TESIS DOCTORAL

ADVANCES IN TOURISM MARKETING IN A GLOBAL MARKET
Towards a better understanding of loyalty, social media, island tourism and cultural convergence

Arminda Almeida Santana
Junio 2017
Las Palmas de Gran canaria

D. JERÓNIMO PÉREZ ALEMÁN, VICEDECANO DE POSGRADO Y FORMACIÓN CONTINUA DE LA FACULTAD DE ECONOMÍA, EMPRESA Y TURISMO DE LA UNIVERSIDAD DE LAS PALMAS DE GRAN CANARIA, EN CALIDAD DE PRESIDENTE DE LA COMISIÓN DE DOCTORADOS EN EXTINCIÓN

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Que la citada Comisión en su sesión de fecha 5 de junio de 2017 tomó el acuerdo de dar el consentimiento para su tramitación y su propuesta para la obtención de la mención internacional, a la tesis doctoral titulada "**ADVANCES IN TOURISM MARKETING IN A GLOBAL MARKET. Towards a better understanding of loyalty, social media, island tourism and cultural convergence**" presentada por la doctoranda **Dña. Arminda Almeida Santana** y dirigida por el doctor **Sergio Moreno Gil.**

Y para que así conste, y a efectos de lo previsto en el Artº 6 del Reglamento para la elaboración, defensa, tribunal y evaluación de tesis doctorales de la Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria, firmo la presente en Las Palmas de Gran Canaria, a 5 de junio de dos mil diecisiete.

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Facultad de Economía, Empresa y Turismo

Programa Oficial de Doctorado en Desarrollo Integral e Innovación de
Destinos Turísticos

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Towards a better understanding of loyalty, social media, island tourism and cultural convergence

AUTORA

ARMINDA ALMEIDA SANTANA

DIRIGIDA POR

DR. D. SERGIO MORENO GIL

El Director   La Doctoranda

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Las Palmas de Gran Canaria

"A mis padres y a Carmelo"

A mis padres, Carmelo y Carmen, porque nada hubiera sido posible sin ellos. Porque a sus esfuerzos les debo todo lo que soy. Porque mis sueños y mis logros son también los suyos. Gracias por el sacrificio. Gracias por enseñarme a levantarme cada mañana y a luchar cada día. Gracias por ser el mejor ejemplo que una hija puede tener. Gracias por vuestro amor incondicional. Gracias mamá. Gracias papá.

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A todos con mucho cariño

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RESUMEN

La presente tesis, se estructura en 4 capítulos diferentes, y por medio de 4 ensayos aborda, empleando distintas metodologías, las siguientes temáticas: la gestión de la arquitectura de marca de los destinos y las estrategias de coopetición asociadas, centrándose en el caso de los destinos insulares; la fidelidad a los destinos turísticos, con especial atención en la fidelidad horizontal; las fuentes de información utilizadas por los turistas para informarse sobre el destino de viaje, con especial énfasis en los medios digitales como herramienta para establecer relaciones duraderas con los turistas; y por último, la multiculturalidad de los turistas y sus diferencias en el uso de las fuentes de información y en sus motivaciones para viajar. Todos estos temas, que pueden parecer divergentes en principio, presentan una clara conexión como se explica a continuación, y donde el análisis de cada problema de investigación ha llevado a nuevas preguntas que se abordan en el siguiente ensayo. El objetivo final perseguido, es que todos los problemas de investigación tratados contribuyan a aumentar la competitividad de los destinos turísticos en el nuevo entorno global competitivo.

Una primera pregunta inicial que puede surgir es ¿por qué una tesis centrada en el sector turístico? y ¿por qué una aplicación en el contexto europeo y en Islas Canarias? En este sentido, el turismo es uno de los sectores económicos de mayor envergadura y crecimiento del mundo. Las llegadas de turistas internacionales a escala mundial han pasado de 25 millones en 1950 a 1.186 millones en 2015, registrando en este último año un crecimiento del 4,6% con respecto al año anterior (OMT, 2016). Además, los ingresos por turismo internacional alcanzaron los $1.260.000 millones US. El turismo internacional representa hoy el 7% de las exportaciones mundiales de bienes y servicios y el 10% del PIB mundial (OMT, 2016). En este contexto global, y según datos de la OMT (2016), Europa es la región más visitada del mundo. Las llegadas de turistas internacionales a Europa crecieron un 5% entre 2014 y 2015, alcanzando un total de 608 millones, un poco más de la mitad del total mundial (51%). Así, Europa fue la región con mayor crecimiento en términos absolutos: 27 millones de turistas más que en 2014. Europa sigue siendo, además, la mayor región emisora del mundo, generando más de la mitad de las llegadas internacionales globales al año (OMT, 2016). Por lo que se hace necesario profundizar en el conocimiento del turista europeo.

En consonancia con lo anterior, la población objetivo de este estudio fueron los turistas europeos, mayores de 16 años y de ambos sexos, procedentes de los 17 principales países

europeos emisores de turistas: Alemania, Austria, Bélgica, Dinamarca, España, Finlandia, Francia, Irlanda, Italia, Noruega, Países Bajos, Polonia, Portugal, Reino Unido, Rusia, Suecia y Suiza.

Por otra parte, el destino de referencia para el estudio fue Islas Canarias. Esta región es un destino líder europeo, con una marca muy conocida en toda Europa (Gil, 2003), recibiendo más de 15 millones de turistas anuales. Además, la importancia del turismo para este destino es incuestionable. El turismo en las Islas Canarias aporta el 31,9% del PIB (13.480.000€) y el 37,6% del empleo, generando 294.896 puestos de trabajo (Exceltur, 2015).

Justificación del tema analizado

Una vez argumentado el motivo de la aplicación en el sector turístico y en su contexto geográfico, el origen de esta tesis se encuentra en un problema práctico, en las Islas Canarias, que llevó a profundizar en el conocimiento de la dinámica del fenómeno turístico en los destinos insulares, tan importante para infinidad de islas alrededor del mundo. Así, de lo particular (un destino insular) se generalizó a lo general (comunidad global de destinos insulares). No sólo el turismo es importante para las islas, sino que se ha demostrado la importancia de las islas para el turismo, defendiéndose la existencia de un "island tourism" (Butler, 2016). Sin embargo, aún es necesario conocer más sobre el papel que desempeñan las islas como destinos de vacaciones en el mercado, así como en el imaginario colectivo como destino predilecto e incluso como destino ideal. En la literatura académica el turismo en las islas goza de un creciente interés y de un amplio reconocimiento (Baldacchino, 2016).

En el actual entorno global competitivo y dinámico, alcanzar relaciones a largo plazo con los turistas es uno de los retos a los que se enfrentan los gestores de marketing de los destinos turísticos. Así, el problema concreto de investigación surgió de entender que los destinos (las islas en este caso), se encuentran conectados por el lado de la demanda. Los turistas, con sus visitas, conectan a unos destinos con otros competidores. Así, la colaboración y la cooperación entre estos destinos y el correcto diseño de su arquitectura de marca, conectándolos por el lado de la oferta, es una cuestión fundamental para

alcanzar ventajas competitivas que permitan desarrollar la fidelidad de los turistas hacia los destinos involucrados en la relación.

Objetivos

Así, el primer trabajo de la presente tesis "Island Tourism: Should They Compete or Cooperate? Designing an Effective Brand Architecture" surge de la preocupación por cómo los destinos insulares pueden gestionar de una manera más eficaz su arquitectura de marca, existiendo una gran variedad de marcas (insular, archipiélago, región, país, etc.). En particular, este trabajo, además de avanzar en el conocimiento del "island tourism", se centra en las estrategias de cooperación mediante la gestión de la arquitectura de marca. Así, el principal objetivo de este trabajo es proporcionar información a los gestores de las islas respecto a cuáles son los destinos con los que deben cooperar, en función de los mercados de origen y la relación de esas islas con el mercado continental.

Este trabajo ayuda a desarrollar mejor una teoría de coopetición entre islas, añadiendo a la literatura de estudios insulares una nueva metodología para analizar la cooperación entre las islas por medio de la marca. Por lo tanto, el estudio ayuda a los gestores de las islas a gestionar mejor su interacción con otras islas y con los mercados continentales, en un análisis sistémico complejo. Incluso cuando estas islas no sean cercanas desde un punto de vista geográfico o cultural, están compartiendo turistas, formando parte de una misma categoría dentro del turismo. Así, las islas podrían ser consideradas como un caso particular dentro del turismo en lo referente a estrategias de marketing.

Por otra parte, las implicaciones prácticas son evidentes, ya que el análisis del comportamiento de los "Island Hoppers", no sólo durante las mismas vacaciones, sino en diferentes momentos, permitirá a las organizaciones de marketing de los destinos (OMDs) el establecimiento de redes de islas desde el punto de vista de la oferta y su promoción. Estas redes de marketing, y su arquitectura de marca, serán capaces de beneficiar a todas las islas que formen parte de ellas, permitiendo sinergias y un efecto multiplicador que añadirá más valor a cada marca.

Al avanzar en el primer capítulo en el entendimiento de las relaciones a largo plazo con los turistas, desde la perspectiva de la oferta (las islas), se abrió la posibilidad a

profundizar en la comprensión de la fidelidad y de la relación de los destinos con los turistas (perspectiva de la demanda), y en especial con turistas que permanecían fieles a un destino, y otros que compartían su fidelidad entre varios destinos alternativamente. Surge así la pregunta de investigación sobre qué factores son los que explican estos comportamientos, siendo este el tema del segundo ensayo.

La fidelidad es uno de los conceptos más estudiados en los campos de los negocios y de la hospitalidad. Comprender cómo los clientes forman su fidelidad al destino es un factor estratégico para el éxito del mismo. Los investigadores han utilizado muchos enfoques para definir la fidelidad turística. Mientras algunos estudios definen la fidelidad utilizando perspectivas actitudinales o comportamentales, otros utilizan una conceptualización alternativa que combina ambas perspectivas (Zhang, Fu, Cai, y Lu, 2014). El problema, con el estudio de la fidelidad en el turismo, es que existe un cierto desacuerdo sobre cómo la fidelidad debe ser analizada. Además, existe una falta de innovación conceptual y metodológica en su tratamiento.

El tradicional análisis de la fidelidad centrado en un único destino y con una perspectiva unidimensional ha sido recientemente cuestionado en el trabajo de McKercher, Denixci, y Ng (2012). Estos autores invierten la perspectiva tradicional de centrarse en la repetición de la visita a un único destino. Ellos adoptan una perspectiva centrada en el consumidor y proponen puntos de vista diferentes del concepto. Se refieren a la fidelidad a distintos proveedores de servicio al mismo nivel del sistema turístico (fidelidad horizontal) dónde los turistas pueden ser fieles, por ejemplo, a distintos destinos al mismo tiempo.

El concepto de fidelidad cobra una especial relevancia en el destino Islas Canarias ya que el destino cuenta con un 77,3% de turistas repetidores y un 16,1% de esos turistas ha visitado el destino en más de 10 ocasiones (Promotur, 2016). Por otra parte, existe una gran disparidad en los niveles de fidelidad de los turistas según las distintas tipologías de destinos analizados. Así, por ejemplo, en Hawai los visitantes repetidores representan el 65,6% de los visitantes (Gobierno de Hawai, 2015), mientras en Malta, sólo un 30,44% de los turistas son repetidores (NSO, 2015). Además, el complejo ecosistema del destino (García-Rodríguez, García-Rodríguez, y Castilla-Gutiérrez, 2016), lo convierte en un

perfecto laboratorio para analizar no sólo su arquitectura de marca, sino también la fidelidad horizontal de los turistas.

Por consiguiente, el objetivo del segundo capítulo "Understanding Tourism Loyalty: Horizontal vs. Destination Loyalty" es analizar la fidelidad horizontal, y explicar los factores que determinan este comportamiento. Este trabajo, además, identifica las diferencias entre las variables que explican la fidelidad horizontal (FH) y la fidelidad a un único destino (FD). Este estudio supone la primera aplicación empírica sobre esta temática a un destino turístico. Los resultados ayudan a comprender el necesario cambio de enfoque en el estudio de la fidelidad en el contexto turístico, así como, en el diseño de las estrategias, dónde el énfasis debe ser puesto en los turistas. De esta manera los destinos serán capaces de mejorar su competitividad.

A colación del segundo trabajo, se reveló que uno de los aspectos más importantes en la determinación tanto de la fidelidad horizontal, como de la fidelidad a un único destino, es el uso de los medios sociales en internet para informarse sobre el destino de viaje. En este sentido, el capítulo 3 "New Trends in Information Search and Their Influence on Destination Loyalty: Digital Destinations and Relationship Marketing" tiene como principal objetivo profundizar en el análisis de la relación entre el comportamiento de búsqueda de información del turista y el desarrollo de la fidelidad a los destinos.

No sólo ha cambiado el enfoque del análisis de las relaciones de fidelidad de los turistas con los destinos, sino que también ha cambiado la forma en la que los turistas se informan para tomar sus decisiones. Tradicionalmente, los turistas buscan información que les ayude a tomar mejores decisiones a la hora de elegir el destino al que viajar, y lo hacen a través de diferentes medios que han ido variando a lo largo del tiempo. La aparición de internet y de los medios y redes sociales ha cambiado radicalmente la forma en la que los consumidores se relacionan con los destinos. Ahora, los turistas comparten su tiempo con varias fuentes digitales específicas. La cuestión es, ¿puede este comportamiento de búsqueda de información afectar al comportamiento post-viaje?, y más concretamente, ¿puede afectar al desarrollo de la fidelidad de los turistas? Y si es así, ¿qué medios y cómo afectan a los diferentes tipos de fidelidad a los destinos?

La primera contribución de este trabajo es entender las diferencias en cuanto al uso de los medios digitales para elegir el destino de viaje. Además, el estudio analiza e identifica las fuentes de información que influyen en el desarrollo de la fidelidad. Así, el tipo de fuente de información utilizada por los turistas determina el tipo de fidelidad que este desarrolla, horizontal o a un único destino, actitudinal o comportamental.

Los resultados de este estudio contribuyen a la literatura existente de marketing de destinos, más específicamente a la literatura relacionada con las fuentes de información, con especial énfasis en los medios digitales y su relación con el desarrollo de la fidelidad, dada la falta de investigación en este contexto.

Teniendo en cuenta las diferencias encontradas en este tercer capítulo, con respecto al uso de los medios sociales dependiendo de las diferentes nacionalidades de los turistas, surgió la cuestión de si las OMDs, en el diseño de sus estrategias de marketing, deben apelar a la convergencia o a la divergencia cultural tanto en los medios a utilizar como en el contenido a comunicar. Por tanto, el capítulo 4 "The Paradox of Tourist-Cultural Convergence-Divergence in Europe. Social Media and Motivations" tiene como principal objetivo profundizar en el conocimiento de la paradójica relación de convergencia-divergencia entre "cultura-contenido-medios sociales" a través del análisis de las nacionalidades, motivaciones, y fuentes de información.

Cada vez más, los turistas de todo el mundo consumen los mismos productos turísticos, viajan a los mismos destinos impulsados por las mismas motivaciones, y además utilizan las mismas fuentes de información. Así, esta globalización de los mercados y "convergencia" entre culturas ha llevado a los destinos turísticos a cuestionarse si una "convergencia del marketing" es posible. Sin embargo, el proceso de convergencia cultural ha sido cuestionado (Usunier, Lee, y Lee, 2005; Reisinger y Crotts, 2010) y, por tanto, se ha puesto en duda la viabilidad de un marketing turístico estandarizado en Europa. Así, en este capítulo se plantea lo siguiente: ¿son los turistas "iguales", con independencia de su cultura, en términos de uso de las nuevas fuentes de información, y según sus motivaciones?, o ¿precisamente el uso de los nuevos medios y la convergencia de medios genera mayores diferencias?

Los resultados de este estudio contribuyen al debate sobre la convergencia cultural turística y la convergencia de medios, y aportan una mayor comprensión al comportamiento de viajes del turista europeo. Así, este estudio contribuye tanto a la literatura de fuentes de información, especialmente a la de medios sociales, como a la literatura de motivaciones, en ambos casos con relación a la cultura nacional de los turistas.

Los resultados encontrados permiten, a las OMDs, conocer si deben apelar a la convergencia o a la divergencia cultural y de medios sociales en la comunicación turística, para llegar a todos los países europeos. Asimismo, los resultados permiten profundizar en el conocimiento de si deben apelar a la convergencia o a la divergencia en el contenido a comunicar en los medios sociales, en función de las motivaciones de los turistas. Así, estos resultados son de interés para los gestores de marketing de los destinos que disponen de una herramienta para elegir el medio más adecuado y diseñar el mensaje más eficiente a comunicar en cada uno de los mercados europeos.

En un entorno global, digitalizado y caracterizado por la creciente competencia, las OMDs deben ser capaces de desarrollar estrategias que les permitan aumentar la competitividad de los destinos. Así, la gestión de la arquitectura de marca de los destinos y sus estrategias de coopetición asociadas, así como la gestión de la fidelidad mediante estrategias en los medios sociales que atiendan a la multiculturalidad de los turistas, proveerá a las OMDs de las herramientas necesarias para alcanzar este objetivo. Por último, el análisis de estas temáticas contribuyen de manera significativa a la literatura de marketing de destinos, como se desarrollará en cada uno de los ensayos.

Conclusiones

A continuación, se pretende resaltar las conclusiones más relevantes de cada uno de los ensayos que forman parte de la presente tesis doctoral, así como las principales implicaciones y recomendaciones globales del estudio.

El primer capítulo pone de manifiesto el importante peso de las islas en el mercado turístico (el 32,1% de los destinos elegidos por los turistas europeos para realizar sus vacaciones en los últimos tres años fueron destinos insulares) y su complementariedad (la

visita a unas islas influye en la visita a otras islas). Además, los resultados confirmaron que las islas son el destino preferido del 16,4% de los turistas, y el destino idílico de viajes para el 17,9% de los turistas europeos, lo que enfatiza el papel de las islas como destinos de ensoñación para los turistas continentales. Considerando el "island tourism" como una categoría específica de turismo, los destinos insulares forman parte de una gran red conectada a través de la demanda. Los gestores de las islas deberían prestar una mayor atención a la forma en la que los turistas del continente se relacionan con estos destinos insulares, y lograr así sinergias en sus estrategias de marketing.

Además, este primer capítulo demuestra que la correcta gestión de la arquitectura de marca y la cooperación entre las islas podría ser una estrategia ganar-ganar para las islas que forman parte de la relación, debiendo entender previamente cuáles son las islas con las que deben cooperar en los diferentes mercados. Este estudio propone, partiendo del estudio de la demanda, el establecimiento de redes de islas desde la perspectiva de la oferta para su mejor promoción.

En el caso concreto analizado, Islas Canarias, como archipiélago, además de poder hacer uso de su marca país (España), se encuentra en una compleja relación de complementariedad y competencia (coopetencia) con otros archipiélagos e islas lejanas geográficamente: Baleares, islas griegas, Chipre, islas del Caribe. Por otro lado, cada una de las islas individuales dentro del archipiélago canario, presenta una relación complementaria con otras islas, tanto dentro del propio archipiélago (ej. Lanzarote con Fuerteventura), como con otras lejanas (ej. Gran Canaria con Cabo Verde). Esto da lugar a diferentes posibilidades de diseño de su arquitectura de marca y al desarrollo de acciones promocionales conjuntas. Además, las combinaciones de complementariedad entre islas difieren por mercados de origen, lo que sugiere diferentes posibilidades de submarcas y agrupaciones (ej. Gran Canaria es complementaria con La Gomera en el mercado alemán y suizo, mientras que dicha relación es negativa y de competencia en el mercado noruego, y para el resto de mercados no existe correlación).

En este capítulo se recomienda que las islas realicen una gestión eficiente de esta coopetencia para obtener así ventajas competitivas. Por ejemplo, las islas pueden tener en cuenta sus relaciones con otras para apostar por la presencia coordinada en las ferias turísticas con islas que formen parte de la misma red, y para decidir la forma en la que

deben aparecer en los catálogos de los turoperadores, guías turísticas o de viajes, así como en otras fuentes de información consultadas por los turistas para decidir dónde viajar. De la misma manera, los destinos insulares podrían llevar a cabo estrategias de promoción en los aeropuertos de otras islas, incluso con acuerdos bilaterales, tratando de captar así para sus futuras vacaciones a los turistas que visitan esos destinos, y fomentar la fidelidad compartida, siendo conscientes de la existencia de turistas con tendencia a la búsqueda de novedad.

Este primer trabajo supone un avance en el conocimiento del "island tourism" y contribuye a la literatura existente ayudando al mejor desarrollo de una teoría de coopetición entre islas mediante la propuesta de una nueva forma de analizar dicha coopetición entre ellas a través de la marca.

Conocida la importancia del desarrollo de la fidelidad para que los destinos puedan alcanzar ventajas competitivas (Weaver y Lawton, 2011), y el hecho de que los turistas del continente realicen múltiples viajes a las islas de forma alternativa, en el segundo capítulo se procedió a identificar diferentes grupos de turistas en función del tipo de fidelidad manifestada: FD y FH. Además, se trató de determinar si los factores que determinan que un turista manifieste fidelidad horizontal son los mismos, o no, que aquellos que determinan que un turista sea fiel a un único destino. Los resultados permitieron identificar la existencia de variables que influyen en ambos tipos de fidelidad, pero también otras que tienen influencia en la FH y no en la FD, y viceversa.

De forma específica, el hecho de que la edad y nivel de ingresos influya tanto en la FD como en la FH, hace que los destinos deban plantear programas de fidelización especialmente dirigidos a estos segmentos, pudiendo trabajar con partners donde este perfil (mayor edad y nivel de ingresos) es el más habitual (ej. programas de fidelización de líneas aéreas). En cuanto al efecto negativo de la imagen de sol y playa en ambos tipos de fidelidad, esto denota la necesidad de innovación por parte de estos destinos, incluso planteándose la posibilidad de "salirse de la categoría" de sol y playa mediante la innovación si quieren fidelizar a los turistas. En esta línea, la identificación de dos dimensiones en la imagen afectiva sugiere profundizar en el estudio de un nuevo paradigma de imagen afectiva de los destinos de sol y playa: imagen afectiva de autenticidad, por una parte, y de bienestar y sostenibilidad por otra. Así mismo, la imagen

trasmitida de sus infraestructuras generales y de ocio, en la medida que sean congruentes con la de los mercados de origen, también son un buen impulso de la fidelidad. En cualquier caso, los medios sociales se presentan como una fuente ideal para comunicar todas estas propuestas, ya que fomentan tanto la FD como la FH.

De forma específica, en el caso de los destinos que quieran fomentar la FD, el trasmitir una imagen dirigida a aquellos turistas motivados por un destino de moda y prestigio, que permita el exhibicionismo social, parece ser una estrategia adecuada, alejándose de una imagen de destino alegre y estimulante, como imagen compartida con el resto de lugares. Por otra parte, para fomentar la FH, los destinos que compiten pueden realizar acciones promocionales conjuntas que les ayude en la conversión de la intención de visita, trabajando en una imagen global compartida fundamentada en aspectos comunes de su situación social y medioambiental. Además, como medida para evitar la búsqueda de novedad y la no fidelidad del turista, los destinos pueden renovar permanentemente sus atractivos, además de poder ofrecer propuestas conjuntas y eventos itinerantes entre el set competidor.

Con relación a las implicaciones teóricas, en este capítulo se propone un cambio de visión en el diseño de las estrategias de fidelidad de los destinos turísticos, donde el énfasis se pone en la comunidad de turistas y en cómo estos se relacionan con muchos destinos, ya que tradicionalmente, se han analizado los destinos y sus estrategias de marketing sin tener en cuenta al resto de destinos turísticos, ni la relación de los turistas con todos ellos. Así, este estudio supone la primera aplicación empírica de los factores que determinan la FH, y sus diferencias con la FD. Futuros trabajos podrían hacer uso de la metodología y de las conclusiones que se desarrollan en la presente investigación.

Con respecto a las implicaciones prácticas, la comprensión de las diferencias en la fidelidad del turista implica estrategias de marketing dirigidas a cada grupo, permitiendo a los destinos potenciar su competitividad. Así, las OMDs y los gestores de las empresas que operan en el sector podrían rentabilizar al máximo sus recursos disponibles para la promoción turística y además podrían establecer posibles estrategias de comercialización conjunta, utilizando los medios convencionales y los nuevos medios digitales.

En este sentido, en el capítulo 3, y dada la importancia del uso de los medios sociales en el desarrollo de la fidelidad de los turistas, puesto de manifiesto en el capítulo previo, se profundiza en esta relación. Los resultados presentados en este capítulo demuestran la preponderante importancia de los medios sociales en el proceso de repetición de visita en sus diferentes dimensiones: fidelidad de comportamiento y actitudinal, y tanto para un único destino como en la fidelidad horizontal. Además, en este capítulo, se analizan las diferencias en el uso de fuentes de información online y offline para informarse sobre el destino de viaje entre los diferentes grupos de turistas fieles identificados. Los resultados permiten que los gestores de marketing de los destinos puedan desarrollar mejores estrategias de marketing, tanto en los medios convencionales como a través de los medios sociales.

Concretamente, el estudio comienza por identificar unas diferencias significativas en el uso de los medios sociales consultadas por los turistas para elegir el destino de viaje en función de la nacionalidad, el género, y la edad. Los destinos pueden hacer uso de este conocimiento y utilizar como medios de promoción aquellos medios sociales más utilizados por los segmentos a los que quiera dirigir su oferta, encontrándose algunas fuentes más genéricas y de uso global (ej. Wikipedia por parte de todos los grupos de edad, Flickr por parte de todas las nacionalidades), y otras más específicas con diferencias entre segmentos (ej. YouTube y Flickr con mayor énfasis en los hombres). El estudio revela, además, la posibilidad de uso de un patrón común de comunicación, con respecto a la nacionalidad, en el uso del contenido pictórico en los medios sociales, lo que no es posible con otros contenidos (vídeo). Finalmente, y como era de esperar, las generaciones más jóvenes muestran un mayor uso de todos los medios sociales, salvo en el caso de Wikipedia.

Los segmentos de turistas encontrados en este estudio en función de la fidelidad manifestada son los que siguen:

Segmento 1: Turistas con un comportamiento fiel horizontal (CFH)
Este segmento está compuesto por turistas que muestran visitas repetidas a diferentes destinos dentro del conjunto de competidores (las Islas Canarias en este estudio). Esto significa que son fieles a varios destinos a la vez. Esto requiere, en este estudio, al menos dos visitas anteriores a dos o más islas dentro de las Islas Canarias.

Segmento 2: Turistas con un comportamiento y una actitud fiel horizontal (AFH)

Este segmento comprende turistas que, al igual que el grupo anterior, manifiestan visitas anteriores repetidas a diferentes destinos dentro del conjunto competidor (Islas Canarias). Además, muestran una intención de visitar el destino en un futuro próximo (dentro de los próximos dos años en este estudio).

Segmento 3: Turistas con un comportamiento fiel a un único destino (CFD)

Este segmento está compuesto por turistas que muestran un patrón de repetición a un único destino. Por lo tanto, los turistas pueden ser descritos como CFD si hacen al menos dos o más visitas al mismo destino (una isla en este estudio) y no han visitado ninguna otra isla, dentro del conjunto de competidores (las Islas Canarias).

Segmento 4: Turistas con un comportamiento y una actitud fiel a un único destino (AFD)

Los turistas AFD son aquellos que son fieles a un único destino. Al igual que los turistas CFD, estos turistas visitan el mismo destino dos o más veces, y no han visitado otros destinos dentro del conjunto de competidores (Canarias). Además, los turistas AFD muestran una alta probabilidad de visitar el destino (Islas Canarias) en un futuro próximo.

Así, el estudio encuentra diferencias significativas en el uso de las diferentes fuentes de información tradicionales utilizadas por los turistas CFD y CFH, no encontrándose diferencias entre ambos grupos en el uso de los medios sociales. Además, tampoco se encuentran diferencias significativas en el uso de las distintas fuentes de información y medios sociales utilizados por los turistas AFD y AFH. Estos resultados son fundamentales para comprender las diferencias de comportamiento de búsqueda de información de estos segmentos. Sobre estos factores puede actuar la promoción turística, no siendo necesario que los destinos adapten el plan de promoción de los medios sociales en función de este objetivo. Sin embargo, no es suficiente con identificar diferencias entre ambos segmentos en función de su comportamiento de búsqueda de información, sino que es también necesario comprender si esas fuentes consultadas y medios utilizados son factores explicativos que inducen a la fidelidad.

El estudio permite afirmar que las fuentes de información utilizadas por los turistas para informarse sobre los destinos de viaje influyen en el desarrollo de la fidelidad de los turistas hacia los destinos. Sin embargo, el uso de unas fuentes u otras determina el tipo

de fidelidad que se desarrolla. Los gestores de marketing de destinos deben ser capaces de utilizar aquellas fuentes que permitan establecer lazos emocionales con los turistas que los lleven a repetir la visita al destino. Esto permitirá establecer relaciones de fidelidad más consistentes y duraderas a lo largo del tiempo

Los resultados de este capítulo son útiles en la toma de decisiones en relación con el desarrollo de estrategias digitales y programas de fidelidad para los destinos turísticos, y contribuyen de manera significativa a la literatura de marketing de destinos, especialmente a la literatura de las fuentes de información, con especial énfasis en los medios digitales, y su influencia en la fidelidad a los destinos, dada la falta de investigación en este contexto.

Las diferencias significativas encontradas en el capítulo 3, en cuanto al uso de los medios sociales consultados para elegir un destino para viajar en función de las diferentes nacionalidades, plantean el problema de investigación que se aborda en el capítulo 4. En este artículo, se profundiza en el conocimiento de la convergencia cultural y la convergencia de medios en función de los medios sociales utilizados por los turistas europeos y de sus motivaciones de viaje.

Los resultados encontrados en este ensayo ponen de manifiesto la imposibilidad de tratar a Europa como un mercado único en términos de comunicación turística debido a la "divergencia de medios". A la luz de los resultados, Europa debe entenderse como un mercado fragmentado en cuanto al uso de los diferentes medios sociales para informarse sobre el destino de viaje. Sin embargo, también se observa una agrupación de culturas (países) en tres segmentos, en función de la intensidad de uso de los medios sociales, la cual no responde a aparentes similitudes culturales. La agrupación de estos países se relaciona precisamente con un proceso de convergencia de medios, que no es homogéneo a través de todas las culturas, pero si compartido entre los países integrantes de estos tres bloques, y con algunas fuentes en concreto presentes ampliamente en un gran número de mercados (convergencia), creando su propia tribu y cultura global en internet.

Por otra parte, este estudio demuestra la existencia de diferencias en las motivaciones de los turistas en función de su nacionalidad, por lo que el contenido a comunicar a través

de los medios sociales deberá ser distinto dependiendo del mercado al que se dirija. Tres bloques de países son identificados, demandando un tratamiento diferenciado.

Con respecto a las implicaciones prácticas, estos resultados pueden ser utilizados para diseñar estrategias de marketing que atraigan a turistas pertenecientes a los segmentos seleccionados atendiendo a la convergencia-divergencia identificada. Esto podría lograrse enfatizando la presencia en los medios sociales que tienen más intensidad de uso por parte de los segmentos seleccionados; y generando acciones "globales" para los distintos canales específicos, atendiendo a las diferencias en uso según los bloques de países identificados.

Por otra parte, los resultados son de interés para los gestores de marketing de los destinos que disponen de una herramienta para diseñar el mensaje a comunicar en cada uno de los diferentes bloques de países, atendiendo a las motivaciones genéricas compartidas. Más específicamente, adaptando los contenidos a cada uno de los medios sociales y a las comunidades identificadas por conjuntos de países.

El presente estudio contribuye a la literatura existente en el debate sobre la convergencia/divergencia cultural, donde poca atención se ha prestado a la paradójica relación de convergencia-divergencia entre "cultura-contenido-medios". Así, este último capítulo contribuye tanto a la literatura de fuentes de información, especialmente a la de medios sociales, como a la literatura de motivaciones, en ambos casos con relación a la cultura nacional de los turistas.

Finalmente, esta tesis no está exenta de limitaciones, que se abordan a continuación conjuntamente con un planteamiento propositivo sobre futuras líneas de investigación que pueden derivarse de la presente tesis doctoral:

1. Futuras líneas de investigación deben profundizar en la comprensión fundamental de la relación entre las islas y el "island tourism", donde hay que considerar el tamaño de las islas (en términos geográficos y de negocio), la distancia geográfica y cultural entre ellas, y respecto al continente (destinos de corta y larga distancia). La conectividad con sus mercados de origen también es crucial, teniendo en cuenta todos los diferentes medios de

transporte, su tiempo, su coste y comodidad. Por otra parte, otras industrias diferentes al turismo pueden ser también incluidas en el análisis.

2. Dado que el estudio se centra en una única área geográfica y en un set competitivo, se propone, por un lado, que se desarrolle el análisis en otras áreas geográficas del planeta y por otro, que se amplíe el set de destinos competidores. Por ejemplo, sería de interés comprobar en qué grado las conclusiones de este estudio pueden ser aplicadas a los destinos que se visitan "una vez en la vida".

3. Resultaría de ayuda, para alcanzar una mayor comprensión del fenómeno de la fidelidad, la consideración de otros indicadores adicionales que ayuden a explicar las visitas repetidas a los destinos turísticos (satisfacción, calidad, familiaridad, diferencias culturales, etc.), así como la incorporación de otras dimensiones de la fidelidad, tales como la dimensión vertical (los turistas pueden ser fieles a distintos proveedores que ocupan distintos niveles dentro del sector turístico, por ejemplo a un destino, a una cadena hotelera y a una compañía aérea al mismo tiempo) y la experiencial (los turistas pueden ser fieles a categorías específicas de vacaciones, por ejemplo hay turistas que son fieles a realizar actividades deportivas con independencia del destino que visiten).

4. Analizar si el orden en el que los distintos destinos, dentro de un set competidor, son visitados, tiene una influencia en el desarrollo de la FH, y en la determinación del número de veces que se visita el set de destinos competidores. Esto supondría importantes implicaciones prácticas para las OMDs que dispondrían de las herramientas necesarias para tratar de influir en el recorrido de los turistas a través del set competidor y a lo largo de diferentes vacaciones.

5. La valoración social, económica y medioambiental de la fidelidad, en sus diferentes dimensiones (FD, FH), y sus implicaciones en la arquitectura de marca, permitiría una mejor evaluación de las propuestas promocionales, y las OMDs podrían conocer con una mayor precisión cuál sería el retorno de su inversión en el desarrollo de estrategias para alcanzar la fidelización de sus turistas.

6. Ampliar el número de fuentes de información digitales analizadas, introduciendo nuevas plataformas (Instagram, Pinterest…), tendría importantes implicaciones para la

comunicación turística. Por ejemplo, Instagram se ha convertido en un referente en el contenido fotográfico.

7. Teniendo en cuenta las diferencias encontradas con respecto al uso de los medios sociales dependiendo de las diferentes nacionalidades, un análisis más profundo debe realizarse introduciendo la nacionalidad como una variable que influye en las diferentes tipologías de la fidelidad analizadas.

8. Se propone profundizar en si la convergencia-divergencia determinada se explica únicamente por las diferencias culturales, u obedece también a otros criterios de normalización relacionados, tales como las diferencias económicas, climáticas, etc.

9. Sería de interés, la incorporación de otras variables, alternativas a las motivaciones, que influyen en el contenido adecuado a difundir (ej. valores y perfiles psicológicos de los turistas).

10. Finalmente, sería necesario profundizar en los contenidos específicos a generar y difundir en función de las diferencias idiomáticas en Europa, y las consecuencias que ellas implican.

El conjunto de reflexiones y hallazgos discutidos en esta tesis doctoral, conjuntamente con las futuras líneas de investigación comentadas, pretenden ser el punto de partida para el comienzo de una línea de investigación sólida dentro del marketing turístico y en relación con el desarrollo de estrategias que permiten aumentar la competitividad de los destinos, y en especial de los insulares, en un entorno globalizado, multicultural y digitalizado, con especial atención al desarrollo de la fidelidad en sus diferentes modalidades como elemento clave.

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INTRODUCTION

The present thesis, structured into four separate chapters, and through four essays using different methodologies, addresses the following topics: the management of a destination's brand architecture and the associated co-opetition strategies, focusing on the context of island destinations; loyalty to tourist destinations, with special attention on horizontal loyalty; the information sources used by tourists to research a travel destination, with special emphasis on digital media as a tool for establishing lasting relationships with tourists; and finally, the multiculturalism of tourists and their differences in both the way they use information sources and their travel motivations. All these issues, which may seem quite different in principle, have a clear connection, which is outlined below. The analysis of each research problem has led to new questions that are also addressed in the following paper. The final objective is that the different research problems covered contribute to increasing the competitiveness of tourist destinations in the new global competitive environment.

A first initial question that may arise is why write a thesis focused on the tourism sector? And why focus on the European context and on the Canary Islands? Tourism is one of the largest economic sectors in the world. Thus, international tourist arrivals worldwide have increased from 25 million in 1950 to 1,186 million in 2015, registering a growth of 4.6% over the previous year (UNWTO, 2016). In addition, revenues from international tourism reached 1,260,000 USD. International tourism now accounts for 7% of world exports of goods and services and 10% of world GDP (UNWTO, 2016). In this global context, according to UNWTO (2016), Europe is the most visited region in the world. International tourist arrivals to Europe grew 5% between 2014 and 2015, reaching a total of 608 million, slightly more than half of the world total (51%). Thus, Europe was the region with the highest growth in absolute terms: 27 million more tourists than in 2014. Europe is still the largest outbound tourist region in the world, generating more than half of the global international arrivals per year (UNWTO, 2016). Thus, it is essential to expand our knowledge on the European tourist.

In line with the above, the target population of this study were European tourists, aged 16 and over, from the 17 main outbound European countries: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom.

On the other hand, the reference destination for the study was the Canary Islands. This region is a leading European destination, with a well-known brand throughout Europe (Gil, 2003), receiving more than 15 million tourists per year. In addition, the importance of tourism to this destination is unquestionable. Tourism in the Canary Islands accounts for 31.9% of GDP (€13,480,000) and 37.6% of employment for which it generates some 294,896 jobs (Exceltur, 2015).

Justification of the subject analysed

Having explained the reason for focussing on the tourism sector and this particular geographical context, it is worth highlighting that the origin of this thesis lies in a practical problem suffered by the Canary Islands. This problem led to a better understanding of the dynamics of tourism in island destinations, so important to countless islands around the world. Thus, analysis of one-single-destination (an island destination) materialised into a general island analysis (global community of island destinations). Not only is tourism important for the islands, but also the importance of the islands for tourism has been proven, thus confirming the existence of "island tourism" (Butler, 2016). However, it is still important to get further knowledge regarding the role of islands as holiday destinations in the market, as well as the collective imagination as a favourite destination and even as an ideal destination. Island tourism is enjoying increasing growing interest and wide recognition in academic literature (Baldacchino, 2016).

In the current competitive and dynamic global environment, reaching long-term relationships with tourists is one of the challenges facing the marketing managers of tourist destinations. Thus, the specific research problem arose from understanding that destinations (the islands in this case) are connected on the demand side. The tourists, because of their visits, connect to destinations with other competitors. Thus, collaboration and co-operation between these destinations and the correct design of their brand architecture in order to connect on the supply side, is a fundamental issue to achieve competitive advantages that allow the development of the loyalty of tourists to the destinations involved in the relationship.

Thus, the first work of the present thesis "Island Tourism: Should They Compete or Co-operate? Designing an Effective Brand Architecture" arises from the concern about how

island destinations can more effectively manage their brand architecture, with a wide variety of brands (island, archipelago, region, country, etc.). In particular, this study, as well as advancing the knowledge of island tourism, focuses on co-operation strategies through the management of brand architecture, and aims to provide island managers with answers regarding what destinations they should co-operate with, depending on the markets of origin and the relationship of these islands with the continental market.

This study helps to better develop a theory of co-opetition between islands, contributing to literature a new methodology for analysing co-operation between the islands through the brand. The study therefore, helps island managers to better manage their interaction with other islands and with continental markets in a complex systemic analysis. Even when these islands are not geographically or culturally close, they are sharing tourists, and forming part of the same category within tourism. Thus, islands could be considered as a specific case in tourism in terms of marketing strategies.

On the other hand, the practical implications are obvious, since an analysis of island hoppers' behaviour, not only during the same holiday, but at different times, will allow Destination Marketing Organizations (DMOs) to establish networks of islands from a supply and promotion point of view. These marketing networks, and their brand architecture, will benefit all the islands involved by allowing synergies and a multiplier effect that will add more value to each brand.

Whilst working on the first chapter in understanding long-term relationships with tourists from a supply perspective (the islands), the possibility arose of further understanding the loyalty and relationship the tourists have with the destinations (demand perspective), and especially with tourists who remain loyal to a particular destination, and others who are loyal to several destinations. This raises the question on what factors explain this behaviour, which has become the subject of the second essay.

Loyalty is one of the most studied concepts in the fields of business and hospitality (Kandampully, Zhang, & Bilgihan, 2015). Understanding how customers form their loyalty to a destination is a strategic factor for its success. Researchers have used many approaches to defining tourist loyalty. While some studies define loyalty using attitudinal or behavioural perspectives, others use an alternative conceptualisation that combines

both perspectives (Zhang, Fu, Cai, & Lu, 2014). The problem with the study of tourism loyalty is that there is disagreement as to how loyalty should be analysed. In addition, there is a lack of conceptual and methodological innovation in its treatment (McKercher, Denixci, & Ng, 2012).

The traditional analyses of loyalty centred on one-single-destination and with a one-dimensional perspective have recently been questioned in the work of McKercher et al. (2012). These authors reverse the traditional perspective of focusing on the repetition of the visit to one-single-destination. They adopt a consumer-centred perspective and propose different views of the concept. They refer to loyalty to different service providers at the same level of the tourism system (horizontal loyalty) where tourists can be loyal, for example, to different destinations at the same time.

The concept of loyalty is especially important in the Canary Islands, as the destination has 77.3% of repeating tourists and 16.1% of those tourists have visited the destination on more than 10 occasions (Promotur, 2016). On the other hand, there is great disparity in the loyalty levels of the tourists according to the different types of destination analysed. For example, in Hawaii, repeat visitors account for 65.6% of visitors (Government of Hawaii, 2015), while in Malta only 30.44% of tourists are repeaters (NSO, 2015). In addition, the complex ecosystem of the destination (García-Rodríguez, García-Rodríguez, & Castilla-Gutiérrez, 2016) makes it the perfect place to analyse not only the brand architecture of the destination, but also the horizontal loyalty of the tourists.

Therefore, the second chapter "Understanding Tourism Loyalty: Horizontal vs. Destination Loyalty" analyses horizontal loyalty, and explains the factors that determine this behaviour. This paper also identifies the differences between the variables that explain horizontal loyalty and the loyalty to one-single-destination. This study is the first empirical application of this focus to a tourist destination. The results help to understand the necessary change of focus in the study of loyalty in the tourist context, as well as in the design of strategies, where the emphasis should be placed on tourists. This way, destinations will be able to improve their competitiveness.

The second study revealed that one of the most important aspects in determining both horizontal loyalty and loyalty to one-single-destination is the use of social media on the

Internet to find out about the travel destination. In this sense, chapter 3 "New Trends in Information Search and Their Influence on Destination Loyalty: Digital Destinations and Relationship Marketing" further analyses the relationship between the tourist's behaviour when searching for information and the development of their loyalty to the destinations.

The first contribution of this study is to understand the differences in the use of digital media when choosing a travel destination. In addition, the study analyses and identifies the information sources that influence the development of loyalty. Thus, the type of information source used by tourists determines the type of loyalty that develops, whether it is horizontal or to one-single-destination, attitudinal or behavioural.

The results of this study contribute to the existing literature on destination marketing, and more specifically to literature related to information sources, with special emphasis on digital media and their relation to the development of loyalty, given the lack of research in this context.

Taking into account the differences found in this third chapter, regarding the use of social media depending on the different nationalities of tourists, the question arose as to whether DMOs in the design of their marketing strategies should appeal to the cultural convergence or divergence both in the media to be used and in the content to be communicated. Therefore, chapter 4 "The Paradox of Tourist-Cultural Convergence-Divergence in Europe. Social Media and Motivations" provides further knowledge on the paradoxical relationship of convergence-divergence between "culture-content-social media" through the analysis of nationalities, motivations, and information sources.

Tourists from all over the world are increasingly consuming the same tourism products; they travel to the same destinations driven by the same motivations, and also use the same information sources. Thus, the globalisation of markets and "convergence" between cultures has led tourist destinations to question whether "marketing-convergence" is possible. However, the process of cultural convergence has been questioned (Usunier, Lee, & Lee, 2005; Reisinger & Crotts, 2010) and, therefore, the viability of standardised tourism marketing in Europe also raises doubts. Thus, this chapter considers the following: Are tourists "equal", regardless of their culture, in terms of how they use new

information sources, and according to their motivations? Or is it precisely the use of new media and the media convergence that generates greater differences?

The results of this study contribute to the debate on cultural and media convergence, and provide greater understanding of the travel behaviour of European tourists. Thus, this study contributes both to the literature on information sources, especially in relation to social media, as well as on the literature regarding motivations, and in both cases in relation to the national culture of tourists.

The results found allow DMOs to better understand if they should appeal to cultural and social media convergence or divergence in tourism communication in order to properly reach all European countries. The results also allow us to gain more knowledge on whether they should appeal to convergence or divergence in the content to be communicated in social media, depending on the tourist holiday motivations. Thus, these results are of interest to destination marketing managers by providing them with a tool for choosing the most appropriate media and design the most efficient message to be communicated in each of the European markets.

In a global environment that is digitized and characterised by increasing competition, DMOs must be able to develop strategies that allow them to increase the competitiveness of destinations. Thus, managing the destination brand architecture and their associated co-opetition strategies, as well as managing loyalty through social media strategies that address the multiculturalism of tourists, will provide the DMOs with the necessary tools for achieving this objective. Finally, the analysis of these issues contributes significantly to destination marketing literature, as will be developed in each of the articles.

This dissertation concludes with the overall conclusions of the research, where the main contributions of each of the chapters are presented, the limitations of the study are highlighted, several implications or recommendations are formulated and, finally, future lines of research are suggested.

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CHAPTER 1

ISLAND TOURISM: SHOULD THEY COMPETE OR CO-OPERATE?
DESIGNING AN EFFECTIVE BRAND ARCHITECTURE

CHAPTER 1

Island Tourism: Should They Compete or Co-operate? Designing an Effective Brand Architecture

Abstract

In many islands around the world, tourism is the main economic industry. The islands connect with each other, and with the mainland markets in a complex system of relations of competition and co-operation (co-opetition), in what has been called island tourism. This paper analyses firstly the percentage that the islands represent in the tourist market, as well as their preference over continental destinations and their importance as ideal destinations. In addition, this article analyses islands-co-operation strategies through the management of brand architecture, and how the visit to an island can influence the visit to others. The aim of this paper is to provide destination management organizations of islands with information on which islands they should co-operate with, inside and outside their own archipelago, depending on the mainland markets. The study includes in its analysis some of the main tourist islands and archipelagos in the world (Cyprus, Malta, Balearic Islands, Canary Islands, Maldives, Caribbean, Azores, Madeira, Cape Verde, Greek islands), with a sample of 6,559 tourists from the main worldwide tourism market, Europe, and the analysis of 16 of its main markets.

Keywords: Co-opetition, Networks, Archipelago, Destination Branding, Brand Architecture, Europe, Marketing, Island Tourism

1. Introduction

Islands are integrated in a complex system of interactions, both between themselves and with continental areas. This systematic relationship becomes even more complex in the case of tourism (Carlsen, 1999). This analysis focuses on the tourism industry, as it is one of the most important economic activities worldwide, representing 10% of world GDP and 1 in 10 jobs in the global economy. In addition, tourism is the main economic activity of many islands around the world (Baldacchino, 2006). According to data from the World Bank (2014), 9 of the 10 countries most dependent on tourism, in terms of tourism income as a percentage of GDP, are small, developing islands.

Many islands share the characteristic of being highly dependent on tourism, attracting a significant volume of tourists from the continent (Baldacchino, 2016), and also being tourist icons that generate dreams in the collective imagination of the population (Johnson, 2012). In fact, it has been suggested that islands have collectively become the second most visited destination category in the world after historic cities (Marin, 2000). Knowing the importance of the islands in terms of tourist flows and income, tourism in the islands has received academic attention, enjoying growing and wide recognition (Baldacchino, 2016). However, it is still necessary to further enhance knowledge on the role of the islands as holiday destinations in the market, as well as the collective imagination the tourists have of islands as favourite destinations and even ideal destinations.

On the other hand, literature has been dominated by "land-sea" and "island-continent" approaches, paying less attention to island-island relations (Stratford, Baldacchino, McMahon, Farbotko, & Harwood, 2011). In order to achieve mutual benefit between the islands, which form a network of networks, it is necessary to develop an analytical and strategic management perspective. Thus, the main objective of this study is to focus on the relationships between islands, which can be considered from the perspective of a geographical group of islands (archipelago), a global island network, or a systemic network including the islands and the mainland, from which their tourists mainly come (Warrington, 1994). This study takes an integral approach considering this latter perspective, since the island territories can and should show collaborative behaviours in the new global scenario, in relation to the home markets of their visitors. Thus,

irrespective of their geopolitical situation (archipelagos, state islands, outermost islands, etc.), in tourism, the islands are related to the markets of origin and other islands based on the holiday behaviour of the tourists themselves, who are indeed who connect with them through their travels.

A fundamental aspect to manage this relationship is the brand. Many local, regional, national and supranational territorial brands coexist in the tourism industry, which are interrelated and sometimes overlapped. Thus, it is necessary for the islands to develop and manage their brands in order to obtain a differentiated and strong position in the market. Tourist destinations face the challenge of structuring and organizing a portfolio of brands that try to establish a valuable relationship between them, what has been called brand architecture (Harish, 2010). This is even more important in the case of islands, where the geographic question is critical, since islands are peculiar not only in their biology, geology and culture, but also in their complex economic system and in how they relate to other island and continental economic systems (Gössling et al., 2005). The strategic organisation of the brands could not only help to avoid internal competition among them, but also to achieve synergies and a multiplier effect that adds even more value to each island through brand and promotional actions.

Additionally, greater competition among tourist destinations is an increasingly important trend (Mariani & Baggio, 2012). Thus, there has been more dispersion of tourists among many destinations, with a significant increase in promotional investment and competition between these destinations to attract the different markets of origin. Each year, island destinations are actively promoted to maintain or increase their tourism market share (UNWTO, 2014). This scenario requires destinations to develop strategies for competitive advantage. Literature highlights, as a relevant strategy, collaboration and co-operation between tourist destinations (Fyall, Garrod, & Wang, 2012) and islands, which depend on the fluctuations and volatility of arrivals of continental tourists (Shareef & McAleer, 2005). The destinations could increase their profits as a result of efficient collaboration of their brands, however, in the context of the islands, this issue is relatively new (Blain, Levy, & Ritchie, 2005), as highlighted by Okumus, Kock, Scantlebury, and Okumus (2013) in their study applied to four Caribbean islands. Little attention has been given to the relationship between the islands, and the different continental tourists who make multiple trips to islands in an alternative way.

Sometimes it is difficult to manage brand architecture and know how to properly group the islands in order to promote them in the tourist market. This decision generates problems and tension between the islands, and between the islands and the continent (Bertram, 2004). For example, in the case of the Canary Islands, where this study is mainly focused, this territory can be labelled politically and administratively at different levels: the Canary Islands as a political region that is an Autonomous Community of Spain; a region considered as an outermost region within the European Union; two different provinces: Las Palmas and Santa Cruz de Tenerife; seven islands in total (Gran Canaria, Tenerife, Lanzarote, Fuerteventura, La Palma, La Gomera, El Hierro). There is also a more general geographical nomenclature that groups the Canary Islands with other islands nearby, under the Macaronesia umbrella (four populated archipelagos: Canary Islands, Azores, Madeira, and Cape Verde, with 42 islands in the North Atlantic Ocean, opposite the coasts of the European and African continents). Macaronesian islands belong to three countries: Portugal, Spain, and Cape Verde, and that are jointly promoted, for example in the cruise ship market, under the "Atlantic Islands" brand. There are also other possibilities of promotion under tourist brands that could be inspired by other factors (history, natural resources, culture, economy, etc.), either with other distant islands or with the continent, as occurs in the promotion of nautical tourism between the ports of the Canaries and Morocco (mainland), under the brand "Naucam" (Lam-González, González, Ledesma, & Velázquez, 2015).

Bearing in mind the above, the objective of this study is to explore the relationship between the different islands and the continental tourists that visit them. To this end, starting from the analysis of the first world tourism market (Europe), some initial questions are posed: What is the island's share of the total number of trips made by continental tourists? To what extent are islands preferred to continental destinations? In addition, what percentage do islands represent as ideal and dream destinations for the continental tourist? And from here, and once the importance of the subject is identified, the main question arises for the brand architecture management of the islands. What are the other islands with which they should co-operate? Moreover, in which continental markets?

2. Theoretical Framework

The existence of "island tourism" has been discussed as a specific and differentiated form of tourism, as opposed to tourism to and on islands (Sharpley, 2012). Butler (2016) defends the existence of "island tourism" as a specific type of tourism quite different from that of simply participating in a holiday that takes place on an island. The author defines "island tourism" as: "visiting a destination specifically because it is an island, and perhaps a member of an archipelago". In any case, the importance that islands have in the total number of destinations that tourists visit, as well as their preference over continental destinations, or even their role as ideal destinations, is still to be identified, and is in fact, fundamental to be able to consider the posterior specific analysis of island tourism.

The islands, regardless of whether they represent "island tourism or just to an island" trip, are part of a large network of island destinations that present themselves to tourists as the possible selection set. Thus, the islands would be connected on the demand side. Sharpley (2012) defends the need to deepen the understanding of how the islands, which are part of this great network, are consumed by tourists. The islands, as places where tourism services are produced and consumed, share similar characteristics and challenges with respect to tourism planning, management and promotion (Baldacchino, 2016). The development of complementary relations between islands allows the achievement of synergies that benefit those who properly manage such cooperative relationship (Cannas & Giudici, 2016). Such relationships could be between islands belonging to the same archipelago, or between different islands and archipelagos. Literature, however, has paid little attention to archipelagos and their special challenges (Bardolet & Sheldon, 2008).

Butler (2016) outlines the existence of complexity and controversy in the relations between individual islands within an archipelago. Cannas and Giudici (2016) point out that better branding strategies could be designed if the relations between the islands were taken into account. However, few academic studies so far have specifically and systematically adopted an archipelago perspective towards a critical understanding of tourism branding, marketing and management (Baldacchino, 2016). This author argues that success in the tourism sector tends to generate more tourism, and in the case of islands, sometimes this happens to the detriment of the tourism potential of other islands in the archipelago that fail to develop. The same reflection could be made in the case of

several archipelagos. However, there is a gap in literature on the relationship between islands at a global level. That is, there are no studies that explore whether there can be a complementary relationship between islands that do not belong to the same archipelago. In tourism, as in many aspects of life, the neighbour may not be the best friend, even if he is part of the family (Butler, 2016).

Recent literature on co-opetition strategies has emphasized that, in many cases, organisations tend to both compete and co-operate at the same time, thus generating the emergence of a new form of inter-organisational dynamics called co-opetition (Brandenburger & Stuart, 1996). The tourism destinations, their evolution and management offer a fertile context for studying co-opetition (Kylanen & Mariani, 2012; Sonmez & Apostolopoulos, 2000), a strategy highlighted by Mariani, Buhalis, Longhi, & Vitouladiti (2014), for its contribution to the development and marketing of tourist destinations. As far as the islands are concerned, given their condition of isolation from the continent, and in many cases their proximity to each other, this fact is even more pressing (Bertram, 1999; Padilla & McElroy, 2007).

A specific co-operation tool for dealing with the growing competition in the tourism sector is destination branding (Blain et al., 2005). Thus, joint branding between islands can help improve the economic value of the brand (Carballo, Araña, León, & Moreno-Gil, 2015). However, literature has not paid specific attention to how island territories can develop their brand architecture (Conway & Timms, 2010; Hu & Wall, 2005).

2.1. Branding and Brand Architecture

The marketing efforts of tourism destinations are increasingly focused on branding, which is understood as the definition of unique values that describe a distinctive personality, a topic of growing interest in literature (Datzira-Masip & Poluzzi, 2014). In the case of the islands, and although these have a clear geographical delimitation of their territory (destination), the concept of a brand is much more subjective, and sometimes even idyllic, as it alludes to the image that the tourist has of the island or group of islands. Therefore, it is a subjective perception that each individual has of the destination and its system of relations with other territories and products (Moreno & Martín, 2015), and that the

Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs) must manage if they want to be successful (Grydehøj, 2008).

In the area of tourist destinations, Blain et al. (2005), after a review of the literature, define destination branding as a set of activities that (1) support the creation of a name, symbol, logo, brand or other graphic that easily identifies and differentiates a destination (Aaker, 2004; Keller, 2003); (2) constantly transmit the expectation of an unforgettable holiday experience that is only associated with the destination (Laforet & Saunders, 1994); which (3) serve to consolidate and reinforce the emotional connection between the visitor and the destination; and (4) reduce consumer search costs and perceived risk (Wernerfelt, 1988). Collectively, these activities serve to create an image of the destination that has a positive influence on the choice made by the consumer (Araña, León, Carballo, & Moreno, 2016).

On the other hand, Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000) establish that brand architecture is an organised structure of a brand portfolio that specifies the roles of the same, and the nature of the relationship between them. The common brand, versus the use of many local brands, also provides substantial savings in communication costs and economies of scale (Iversen & Hem, 2008; Schuiling & Kapferer, 2004). However, little research has been done on the study of brand architecture (Dooley & Bowie, 2005; Harish, 2010), which is even less so in the case of island destinations, where there is a dispute about differences and peculiarities of each particular island, and the advantages and disadvantages of a generic brand, as Grydehøj (2008) found in his study of a generic cultural brand for the islands in the Shetland archipelago.

According to Datzira-Masip and Poluzzi (2014), in terms of tourist destinations, branding is a relatively new concept, and in addition there are few cases in which brand architecture has been meticulously planned, making it quite difficult to find examples of brand portfolio management models. According to Harish (2010), there are few papers that encompass both brand architecture and the individual destination brand, which clearly indicates the need to analyse the brand architecture. Thus, island destinations should be a priority focus. Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000), aware of the importance of correctly applying the concepts of branding and brand architecture at a local, regional and national level propose a range of models to manage the architecture of a brand portfolio: Branded

House, House of Brands, Master / Sub-brands Relationship and Endorsed Brands. As far as islands are concerned, there is an outstanding representation of sovereign states formed by islands and archipelagos (Baldacchino, 2007), as well as islands integrated in countries, which have different brand configurations.

Datzira-Masip and Poluzzi (2014) apply these models to different tourist destinations. In the case of the Branded House strategy, the authors refer to the case of the Maldives. In this model, the names of the individual islands are almost unknown, on the contrary, the islands are recognized by the characteristics they have in common, under the Maldives brand. On the other hand, the House of Brands model would be for example the Balearic Islands, a destination formed by individual islands, Mallorca, Ibiza, Menorca, and Formentera, which are more known for their specific offerings than for the brand name of the archipelago, Balearic Islands. In the case of the Master / Sub-brands Relationship model, the authors identify it in Central America, where the brand identity created for the joint promotion of the Central American States depends on the attributes of their different nations. However, individual country brands have been designed in order to benefit from the promotion of the Central America brand, as is the case for the Caribbean islands. As for the Endorsed Brands strategy, the example is the model applied by some regions and countries like Norway, which take advantage of the knowledge of the name of the country and add it to its logo: Lofoten Islands, Norway.

On the other hand, Pike (2005) studies the process of development and management of a set of interrelated brands, contributing to a better understanding of the challenges that tourist destinations face when trying to put into practice the theoretical framework on brand architecture management. Pike concludes that the brand must a) assign priority to the customer segments and target markets of each brand; b) fill the supply and demand gaps between brands, without overlapping; and c) define strategies to effectively address priority segments and markets. Thus, collaboration with other destinations is a strategy that is increasingly taking centre stage in the hospitality industry (Lee, Kim, & Kim, 2006), where islands, considering their target markets, can implement this win-win strategy to help boost sales, develop brand image, and save marketing and advertising costs (Kim, Lee, & Lee, 2007).

In any case, the debate about the best way to integrate local brands with regional or national brands, as well as with other geographically nearby brands, or with other distant but similar characteristics (D'Hauteserre & Funck, 2016) remains open. In the same way, the discussion of what criteria to follow in order to determine the union of islands that are part of a common brand must be considered, and the behavioural patterns of tourists from the continent must be acknowledged (Jackson, 2006), as "tourism can be seen as part of a hinterland management system if it is driven by special concessions from metropolitan powers or else benefits handsomely from tourists from the same metropolitan site" (Baldacchino, 2006). In this paper, we present the results of the study of the metropolitan area. In summary, the question arises of how to carry out the branding of an island, whether in conjunction with other islands, or not? and if so, with which islands? Moreover, in what mainland markets? Considering in the tourism management of the brand architecture also the particular interest of the islands, and not only the continental central vision.

3. Methodology

3.1. Population

Europe remains the world's largest outbound tourism region, generating more than half of global international arrivals per year (UNWTO, 2016). For this reason, the target population of this study was European tourists, aged 16 and over, from 16 of the main outbound European countries in terms of tourists: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom.

3.2. Sample Selection

The work was done through Computer-Assisted Web Interviewing (CAWI), to a representative sample of the 16 mentioned countries, from a database of panellists in each country. A random selection was made based on the variables of stratification of geographical area and province, on the one hand, and, on the other, of gender and age, in order to guarantee the representativeness of the sample with the population of each country. Once the questionnaire was translated and pre-tested in the language of the

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potential tourists (12 languages in total), and the relevant corrections were made in those questions that raised difficulties of comprehension, the fieldwork was carried out. The defined sample was of 8,500 tourists (500 in each country) and the actual sample obtained of 6,559 tourists, between 400 and 459 tourists per country. The selected sample was sent a personalised email inviting them to participate in the study, with a link in the mail that led them to the online survey. In order to ensure the expected number of surveys, during the three months of fieldwork in different countries, two reminders were held to encourage response. Table 1 shows the percentage distribution of the overall profile of the sample.

Table 1

Tourists' profile

		Total Tourists	**Percentage**
Nationality	Germany	423	6.07
	Austria	403	5.80
	Belgium	404	5.80
	Denmark	405	5.82
	Spain	406	5.83
	Finland	411	5.90
	France	402	5.77
	The Netherlands	403	5.79
	Ireland	403	5.79
	Italy	402	5.80
	Norway	400	5.70
	Poland	402	5.80
	Portugal	459	6.59
	Sweden	431	6.19
	Switzerland	400	5.74
	United Kingdom	405	5.82
Gender	Man	3453	49.58
	Woman	3508	50.40
Age	from 16 to 24	1368	19.60
	from 25 to 34	1395	20.03
	from 35 to 44	1375	19.70
	from 45 to 54	1406	20.19
	from 55 to 64	1023	14.70
	more than 64	396	5.69

In order to achieve the proposed objectives, the structured questionnaire included socio-demographic variables: age, years of studies, and travel behaviour: the last three trips made by the individual, a favourite destination of those visited, and an ideal destination. The analysis of the results focused on the visits to the islands, and specifically on the Canary Islands (Spain). In particular, which of the seven Canary Islands the tourists had visited, and the perceived image of the destination. In this case, the specific sample of tourists who had visited at least one of the Canary Islands is 2,067 tourists.

The decision to analyse the specific case of the Canary Islands, as well as for reasons of convenience, is justified by being a European leading destination, with a well-known brand throughout Europe (Gil, 2003), receiving around 15 million annual tourists, with a complex economic ecosystem (Almeida & Moreno, 2017; García-Rodríguez, García-Rodríguez, & Castilla-Gutiérrez, 2016). This makes it a perfect subject for analysing the problem of brand architecture in islands. The Canary Islands is an archipelago located in the Atlantic Ocean and is one of the 17 autonomous communities of Spain. Tourism in the Canary Islands accounts for 31.9% of GDP (13,480,000 €) and 37.6% of employment (294,896 jobs) (Exceltur, 2015). This European outermost region is located two and a half hours from the capital of Spain (Madrid) and approximately 4 hours flight from central Europe, and is geographically situated near the African coast, forming the Macaronesian region along with Madeira, Azores and Cape Verde (Figure 1). The Canary Islands consist of seven main islands: Gran Canaria, Fuerteventura, Lanzarote, Tenerife, La Gomera, La Palma and El Hierro. The four major islands (Tenerife, Gran Canaria, Lanzarote and Fuerteventura) receive the largest annual tourist flow, with 98% of the total number of tourists (Table 2). In addition, the Canary Islands have a prominent role in this Macaronesian region, in terms of tourism.

Figure 1

Geographical location of Canary Islands and Macaronesia.
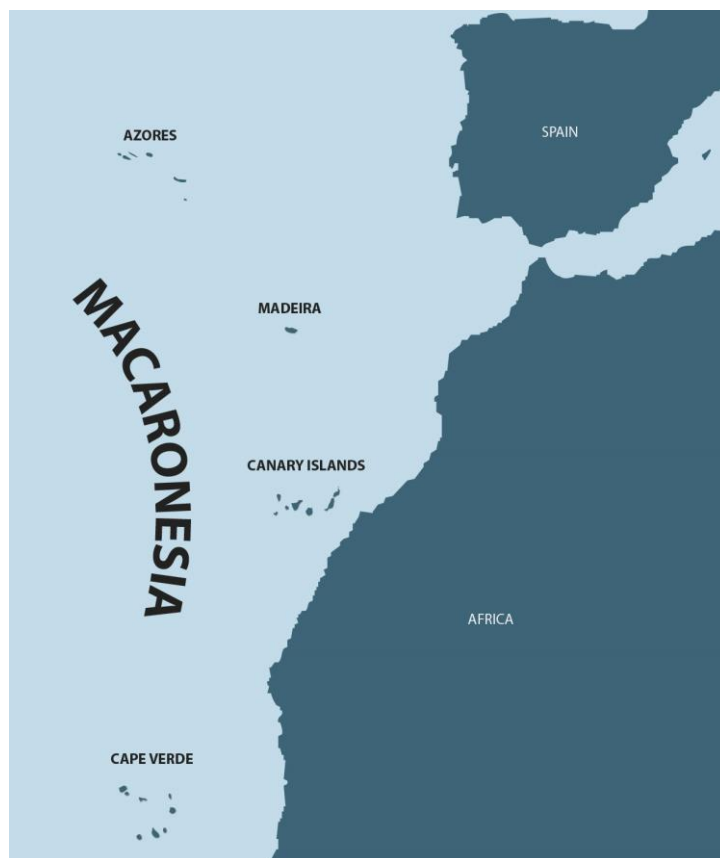
Table 2

Annual tourist's arrivals to Canary Islands and Macaronesia.

Islands	Total Tourists	Population
Lanzarote	2,915,727	145,084
Fuerteventura	2,287,650	107,521
Gran Canaria	4,223,679	845,195
Tenerife	5,769,992	891,111
Canary Islands	**14,981,113**	**2,101,924**
Cape Verde	494	434,263
Madeira	215,511	244,286
Azores	1,319,489	246,772

Source: Frontur (2016), Istac (2016), World Bank, Trading economics, Statistics Portugal, Statistics dos Azores.

Note: Data from Cape Verde correspond to the number of international tourist arrivals to Cape Verde in 2014. Data for Madeira correspond to the total number of guests in hotel establishments in 2015. The Azores data correspond to the landing of air passengers in 2016 (all islands).

With regard to the main characteristics of tourism promotion and the Canary Islands brand, it is important to note that a joint promotion of all the islands under the well-known umbrella brand "Canary Islands" is being developed, managed by the public company Promotur (Canary Islands Tourism Board). On the other hand, the DMOs of each of the islands develop their own promotion as an independent destination, coexisting seven individual brands (Figure 2), forming a complex brand management system.

Figure 2

Canary Islands brand architecture.

In addition, in many promotional actions, the Canary Islands are presented under the brand Spain, as an integral part of the country's offering, along with the rest of its regions (Figure 3).

Figure 3

Canary Islands brand architecture within the Spain brand.

Finally, some products (cruises, nautical tourism, etc.) are promoted in a network made up of other islands from the Macaronesian Archipelago (Figure 4), presenting them as a common tourist experience (Carballo et al., 2015), as is the case of the cruises and its brand "Cruises Atlantic Islands".

Figure 4

Brand architecture of the Canary Islands along with other Macaronesian archipelagos.

In this way, the question arises as to how the different islands can be packaged under a common brand, with which destinations they should co-operate and in relation to which continental tourists.

4. Results and Discussion

In order to answer the first questions raised in this paper, and to further develop knowledge on the importance of island tourism, we firstly analysed the importance of island destinations within the total number of holidays taken by European tourists. Thus, it was found that 32.1% of European tourists, who travelled abroad during the last three years, had been on holiday to at least one island during that period. This fact reinforces the importance of the analysis of the islands in the context of tourism. Specifically, the island destinations with the most visits were the Greek islands, Canary Islands, Balearic Islands and the Caribbean islands (Table 3). Additionally, island destinations show a high rate in the choice of tourists as a favourite destination among those that had visited during the last three years, with a penetration level of 1.5, compared to 0.75 of the continental destinations, enhancing the power of attraction and satisfaction that the islands provide for the tourists. Moreover, when tourists were asked about dreamy an ideal destinations (where they would go on holiday if they could choose anywhere in the world), 17.9% indicated island destinations, compared to 83.7% continental. That is, almost 20% of European tourists conceive their ideal holidays on an island. Among the destinations named as ideal are the Caribbean islands as an outstanding dreamy brand, the Greek islands and the Canary Islands. These results reveal the importance of the islands in the tourist's imagination, and in particular the Canary Islands destination between island destinations worldwide, and specifically so, in the European market.

Table 3

The island destinations with the most visits and portrayed as ideal.

	Visited	%	Ideal	%
Greek islands	657	9.43	184	2.64
Canaries	397	5.70	146	2.10
Balearics	252	3.62	64	0.92
Caribbean	243	3.49	298	4.28
Cyprus	92	1.32	26	0.37
Malta	55	0.79	15	0.22
Madeira	47	0.67	32	0.46
Maldives	31	0.45	97	1.39
Cape verde	23	0.33	13	0.19
Azores	16	0.23	5	0.07

Therefore, and to further analyse the basic questions of this study, what are the other islands with which they should co-operate? And in what continental markets? the analysis focuses on the sample of 2,067 tourists who have visited one of the Canary Islands. A first descriptive analysis shows that there are numerous tourists who have made repeated visits to several of the Canary Islands. The first column of table 4 shows the distribution of tourists visiting several islands on different holidays, and the importance they have on each island. 78.2% of tourists with combined visits to several islands have been to the island of Tenerife (TF), and 75.2% have also visited the island of Gran Canaria (GC), 56.8% have visited the island of Lanzarote (LZ) and 32.5% visited the island of Fuerteventura (FV). Therefore, it can be said that the four most visited islands by tourists with combined visits, coincide with the islands that receive the most visitors in general, these being the four largest islands. This result reveals the existence of a relationship between them to be considered in marketing decision-making processes, and especially for the correct design of the destination's brand architecture, which requires more analysis.

Trying to further analyse whether there are specific islands whose promotional strategies should be more closely linked, with the aim of trying to increase not only visits to a particular island, but also to improve the joint visit of different islands grouped under a common brand, the table shows a first approach with the combinations of islands, in pairs, and the percentage of visits that the tourists make to them. It can be observed, for example,

that 58.3% of the tourists with combined visits have been in the islands of GC and TF, 42.5% in TF and LZ, 40% in GC and LZ, and 23.5% in LZ and FV.

Table 4

Percentage of tourists who have visited more than one island of the Canary Islands, by island, and combinations by pairs between the visited islands.

	Visiting different islands	TF	GC	LZ	FV	LP	LG	EH
Tenerife (TF)	78.2 %		58.3%	42.5%	21.7%	15.3%	12.1%	2.9%
Gran Canaria (GC)	75.2%	58.3%		40.0%	22.8%	15.7%	8.9%	2.5%
Lanzarote (LZ)	56.8%	42.5%	40.0%		23.5%	9.7%	7.5%	2.4%
Fuerteventura (FV)	32.5%	21.7%	22.8%	23.5%		6.4%	5.0%	1.8%
La Palma (LP)	20.7%	15.3%	15.7%	9.7%	6.4%		4.2%	2.6%
La Gomera (LG)	13.3%	12.1%	8.9%	7.5%	5.0%	4.2%		2.5%
El Hierro (EH)	3.2%	2.9%	2.5%	2.4%	1.8%	2.6%	2.5%	

Having verified the existence of interdependence between the islands, it was necessary to analyse the relationship between them, that is, to test to what extent the visit to one of the Canary Islands can influence the visit to another, by increasing the probability of travelling to another island and taking an interest in it. In addition, we considered the relationship with other islands that do not belong to the Canary Islands, in order to analyse the relationship with other islands, both geographically close (Azores, Madeira, Cape Verde) and other distant islands that are considered to theoretically compose their competitive set (Cyprus, Malta, Balearics, Maldives, Caribbean, Azores, Madeira, Cape Verde, Greek islands). In order to do this five logit binomial models were estimated (one for the common brand of the Canary Islands and one for each of the main Canary Islands). The models explored the existence of a relationship between the visits to the different island destinations. For example, the first model aimed to identify if the visit to the umbrella brand the Canary Islands was influenced by a previous visit to another island destination (Cyprus, Malta, Balearics, Maldives, Caribbean, Azores, Madeira, Cape Verde, Greek islands). On the other hand, the different nationalities of the tourists were included in order to analyse how the continental origin of the tourist (mainland) influences the relationship. This is a combination of 16 continental regions, with 10 island destinations, where one of them (Canary Islands) is composed of seven islands. Finally, the models included the perceived image of the destination and other socio-demographic

variables that identify the reasons behind a visit to a destination (Moreno-Gil, Martín-Santana, & León-Ledesma, 2012), which are explained in table 5.The same analysis was carried out on the other models for each of the four main islands: Gran Canaria, Tenerife, Lanzarote and Fuerteventura, adding in this case the visit to other islands of the common brand. In this way it is possible to observe how the visit to an island of the Canarian archipelago influences the visit to another of the Canary Islands.

Table 5

Description of the variables included in the models.

Category	Variables	Definition
Socio-demographic and geographic variables	Age	A continuous variable that explains the age of the individuals in years
	Years of study	Number of years of study
	Germany, United Kingdom, Spain, Ireland, France, Austria, Poland, Switzerland, Portugal, Denmark, Norway, Finland, Sweden, Netherlands, Belgium, Italy	Dichotomic variables that take 0 as a value when the individual does not belong to one of the nationalities under study, and 1 when they do
Co-opetition variables within the Canary Islands brand	Visited TF, visited GC, visited LZ, visited FV, visited LP, visited LG y visited EH	Dichtomic variables that take 0 as a value when the individual has not visited the island under study and 1 when he/she has
Co-opetition variables outside the Canary Islands brand	Visited Cyprus, visited Malta, visited Balearics, visited Maldives, visited Caribbean, visited Azores, visited Madeira, visited Cape Verde, visited Greek Islands	Dichotomic variables that take 0 as a value when the individual has not visited the destination under study and 1 when he/she has
Perceived image	Overall image perceived of the destination Canary Islands	Scale of 1 to 7 (very negative image – very positive image)
Endogenous	Visited Canary Islands, visited TF, visited GC, visited LZ, visited FV	Dichtomic variables that take 0 as a value when the individual has not visited the island under research and 1 when he/she has

Table 6 summarises the results of the estimation of the five proposed models. It is observed, as expected, that the better the image of the destination, the greater the probability of visiting it is. In addition, the level of education influences the probability of visiting the destination Canary Islands in general, and the island of Tenerife in particular. There is also a positive relationship between the age of the individual and visits to the islands of Tenerife, Gran Canaria and Lanzarote, as well as the umbrella brand Canary Islands in general. In addition, the relationship between the nationality of the

tourists and their visits to the different islands is analysed. In this case, negative relations were found with several of the markets in which the Canary Islands have a low level of penetration: Poland, Portugal, France, Italy, Belgium and Switzerland. Thus, tourists from these countries are less likely to visit the Canary Islands, and are likely to prefer other alternative island destinations.

Considering the central analysis proposed in this study: the cooperative relationship that can occur between the different destinations outside and within the Canary Islands umbrella brand, the table below shows the values of the coefficients of the variables called competitive co-operation.

Thus, the fact that a tourist has visited Cyprus, the Balearic Islands, the Caribbean or the Greek islands, increases the probability of them visiting the Canary Islands destination. However, Malta or the Azores do not present such possibilities for co-operation. It is important to note the strong complementarity between the Caribbean and the four main islands of the Canary Islands: Tenerife, Gran Canaria, Lanzarote and Fuerteventura. There is also a complementary relationship between the island of Lanzarote and the Maldives, Madeira and the Greek islands; and between the island of Gran Canaria and Cape Verde; between the island of Fuerteventura and the Greek islands. There are thus multiple possibilities for co-operation among islands, through specific brands, and other joint actions.

With respect to the complementary relations between the different islands that belong to the Canarian archipelago, we can observe the strong positive relation between the visits to the islands of Gran Canaria and Tenerife. This means that if a tourist visits the island of Tenerife, there is a greater chance of visiting the island of Gran Canaria. On the other hand, it is very important to note the strong direct relationship between visits to the islands of Lanzarote and Fuerteventura, and between Tenerife and La Gomera. All the main islands have a relationship with each other, which justifies their grouping around a common brand.

Table 6

Logit Binomial models explaining the probability of visiting the Canary Islands, Tenerife, Gran Canaria, Lanzarote and Fuerteventura.

	Canary Islands		Tenerife		Gran Canaria		Lanzarote		Fuerteventura	
	β	ε	β	ε	β	ε	β	ε	β	ε
Visit Cyprus	0.443*	0.264	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Visit Malta	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Visit Balearics	0.554***	0.156	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Visit Maldives	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.146**	0.538	-	-
Visit Caribbean	0.861***	0.161	0.431**	0.198	0.491**	0.197	0.52**	0.233	0.674**	0.265
Visit Azores	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Visit Madeira	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.292**	0.597	-	-
Visit Cape Verde	-	-	-	-	1.165*	0.628	-	-	-	-
Visit Greek islands	0.475***	0.106	-	-	-	-	0.402**	0.162	0.564***	0.184
Age	0.188***	0.024	0.161***	0.031	0.088***	0.03	0.072**	0.039	-	-
Education	0.017*	0.009	0.025*	0.013	-	-	-	-	-	-
Overall Image	0.371***	0.027	0.199***	0.036	0.206***	0.034	0.218***	0.044	0.181***	0.054
Visit Tenerife	-	-	-	-	1.315***	0.104	1.554***	0.125	0.468***	0.165
Visit Gran Canaria	-	-	1.286***	0.105	-	-	0.834***	0.125	0.89***	0.157
Visit Lanzarote	-	-	1.502***	0.126	0.779***	0.125	-	-	1.872***	0.159
Visit Fuerteventura	-	-	0.472***	0.166	0.815***	0.157	1.847***	0.158	-	-
Visit La Palma	-	-	0.895***	0.193	1.258***	0.187	0.541***	0.208	0.631***	0.229
Visit La Gomera	-	-	2.926***	0.422	-	-	0.799***	0.292	-	-
Visit El Hierro	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.937***	0.549
Germany	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

	Canary Islands		Tenerife		Gran Canaria		Lanzarote		Fuerteventura	
	β	ε	β	ε	β	ε	β	ε	β	ε
Austria	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Belgium	-1.925*	1.147	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Denmark	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Spain	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Finland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
France	-2.638**	1.149	-	-	-2.124*	1.157	-	-	-	-
The Netherlands	-1.899*	1.149	-1.865*	1.119	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ireland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Italy	-2.76**	1.149	-1.99*	1.114	-	-	-	-	-	-
Norway	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Poland	-3.95***	1.176	-2.231**	1.137	-2.011*	1.207	-3.111**	1.485	-	-
Portugal	-2.429**	1.147	-	-	-	-	-2.258*	1.267	-	-
Sweden	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Switzerland	-	-	-2.154*	1.111	-	-	-	-	-	-
UK	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Constant	-2.483**	1.158	-3.146***	1.125	-3.878***	1.141	-3.994	1.252	-6.604	2.818
-2 Log likelihood	4934.925		3170.003		3387.093		2173.552		1571.625	

Note: * 0.1 % ** 0.05% ***0.01%.

In order to deepen the previous analyses, but considering the more specific relation between the competitive co-operation of islands and mainland territories, different models were made by country of origin (Figure 5). This was proposed because some islands can compete in general terms, but carry out a strategy of co-operation in some specific geographic markets. By nationality, tourists from Sweden, Norway, the United Kingdom, Spain, the Netherlands, Belgium, Germany, Ireland, Finland, Austria and Switzerland are the target markets for greater complementarity and co-operation between islands, while France, Italy, Portugal and Poland have the lowest complementarity between islands, and thus greater direct competition. These results reflect that the cultural background (nationality) of the tourist must be considered when analysing islands-mainland relationships. Thus, the design of brand architecture and complementary relationship between island destinations will depend on each specific market. In this case, the main islands of the Canaries in tourist terms, present a greater possibility of co-operation in the majority of the markets, whereas in the smaller islands this happens only with a few countries of origin. Therefore, in order to promote these smaller islands in some specific markets, it is possible to suggest changes in the brand architecture, adding differentiated sub-brands, different groupings and connections between the islands, and alternative communication strategies.

Figure 5

Complementarity of the Canary Islands`s brands by European mainland countries.

	TENERIFE *disfruta de todo*	**GranCanaria**	**Fuerteventura** *Islas Canarias*	**LANZAROTE** *Reserva de la Biosfera*
TENERIFE *disfruta de todo*		🇩🇪 0.971 🇮🇹 0.904 🇦🇹 2.328 🇮🇸 1.504 🇧🇪 2.808 🇵🇹 2.105 🇫🇮 2.224 🇷🇺 21.203 🇪🇸 1.365 🇸🇪 1.981 🇫🇮 1.251 🇨🇭 1.403 🇫🇷 4.280 🇬🇧 1.561 🇳🇱 2.178	🇫🇷 2.666 🇳🇴 1.517 🇸🇪 1.124	🇳🇱 2.306 🇮🇹 1.778 🇫🇮 1.019 🇮🇸 1.379 🇪🇸 1.528 🇵🇹 2.409 🇧🇪 2.761 🇸🇪 1.299 🇫🇷 2.848 🇨🇭 1.771 🇦🇹 2.754 🇬🇧 1.135 🇩🇪 1.911 🇮🇹 3.140
GranCanaria	🇳🇱 2.150 🇮🇸 1.419 🇫🇷 3.437 🇵🇱 5.833 🇫🇮 1.322 🇵🇹 2.082 🇪🇸 1.416 🇸🇪 2.003 🇫🇮 1.802 🇨🇭 0.914 🇧🇪 2.361 🇬🇧 1.275 🇦🇹 2.189 🇩🇪 1.158		🇩🇪 1.358 🇦🇹 1.323 🇧🇪 1.816 🇪🇸 1.023 🇳🇱 1.393 🇮🇹 1.147 🇬🇧 1.090	🇫🇷 1.852 🇮🇸 1.057 🇫🇮 1.337 🇪🇸 1.329 🇮🇪 1.245 🇮🇹 1.754 🇮🇸 2.072 🇸🇪 0.939 🇨🇭 0.967
Fuerteventura *Islas Canarias*	🇮🇹 2.542 🇮🇹 3.612 🇮🇸 1.421 🇨🇭 0.912 🇬🇧 0.995	🇩🇪 1.041 🇦🇹 0.918 🇧🇪 2.734 🇳🇱 1.533 🇮🇹 1.139 🇫🇷 4.640 🇬🇧 1.087		🇳🇱 4.108 🇮🇹 2.252 🇫🇷 2.666 🇮🇸 1.799 🇫🇮 2.649 🇸🇪 2.062 🇪🇸 2.689 🇨🇭 2.418 🇦🇹 2.995 🇧🇪 3.321 🇦🇹 1.986 🇩🇪 1.738
LANZAROTE *Reserva de la Biosfera*	🇳🇱 1.709 🇮🇹 3.312 🇮🇹 1.563 🇮🇹 2.070 🇫🇮 1.322 🇮🇸 1.359 🇪🇸 1.549 🇵🇹 1.969 🇮🇹 2.503 🇸🇪 1.153 🇫🇷 2.449 🇨🇭 2.113 🇦🇹 2.629 🇬🇧 1.117 🇩🇪 1.911	🇪🇸 1.514 🇬🇧 1.180 🇫🇮 1.350 🇫🇷 1.452 🇮🇹 1.229 🇮🇹 2.417 🇮🇸 2.132 🇦🇹 25.567 🇸🇪 0.992	🇳🇱 3.680 🇮🇸 2.120 🇫🇷 2.785 🇸🇪 1.976 🇪🇸 2.826 🇨🇭 2.228 🇪🇸 3.394 🇬🇧 2.588 🇩🇪 3.023 🇧🇪 2.274 🇩🇪 1.849 🇮🇹 2.218	
La Palma *La Isla Bonita CANARIAS*	🇮🇹 2.542 🇪🇸 2.542 🇧🇪 1.726 🇩🇪 1.857	🇪🇸 1.398 🇫🇮 1.905 🇳🇱 2.226 🇮🇸 2.238 🇵🇹 3.113 🇨🇭 1.348	🇬🇧 1.677 🇳🇱 1.223	🇵🇹 0.747 🇸🇪 2.122
La Gomera *Islas Canarias*	🇩🇪 2.802 🇸🇪 3.995	🇩🇪 2.342 🇮🇸 -1.365 🇨🇭 0.278		🇫🇷 3.846 🇮🇸 2.763 🇦🇹 5.984

5. Conclusion

The world has evolved and the islands face serious geopolitical and economic challenges in a global interconnected business setting. These challenges in the tourism industry involve understanding the starting position of the islands in the tourist market, and how they manage their co-opetition relationship and brand architecture between themselves, and their promotion to the different countries of origin and mainland markets of their tourists.

Traditionally, island tourism managers design their marketing strategies without taking into account the other islands with which they are cooperating, or in any case only those that are close to or that make up their own archipelago or political region, and they do not focus on analysing the relationship of the continental tourists with all the islands during different holiday periods. This study shows, firstly, that islands have a preponderant role in the tourism market, and that co-operation between them could be a strategy in which all the islands that participate in the relationship obtain benefits and improve their productivity, as long as it is previously clear which are the islands to co-operate with in the different markets.

The first contribution of this study is focused on advancing the knowledge of island tourism. Although the results are not of tourists who travel explicitly to these destinations because of their island status, it does show the importance of the islands in the global market and their complementarity (the visit to some islands influences the visit to other islands). Island destinations play an important role in the preferences of the continental tourists (32.1% of the destinations chosen in the previous three years), being the preferred destination of 16.4% of the tourists. In addition, the islands are the idyllic travel destination for 17.9% of European tourists, emphasising their role as dream destinations for continental tourists. Considering island tourism as a specific category of tourism, island destinations are part of a large network connected through demand. Island managers should pay greater attention to how the continental tourists consume these island destinations and thus achieve synergies in their marketing strategies.

The second, and most important, theoretical contribution of this study is that it helps to better develop a theory of co-opetition between islands, adding to the literature of insular

studies, a new way of analysing co-operation between the islands through the brand. The study therefore helps island managers to better manage their collaborations with other islands and with continental markets in a complex systemic analysis. Even when these islands are not geographically or culturally close, they are sharing tourists, forming part of the same category within tourism. Thus, islands could be considered as a particular case in tourism in terms of marketing strategies. There is a long tradition of near continental destinations that are working together in designing their brand architecture. In the case of the islands, the design of the brand architecture should expand its horizons beyond the near destinations to an even further extent.

On the other hand, the practical implications are evident, since understanding Island Hoppers behaviour, not only during the same holiday, but also at different times, will allow the DMOs to establish island networks focusing on what they offer and their promotion activities. These marketing networks, and their brand architecture, will be able to benefit all the islands that are part of it, allowing synergies and a multiplier effect that will add more value to each brand. In the specific case analysed, the Canary Islands, in addition to using their country brand (Spain), these islands are complementary and have a co-relation with other archipelagos and geographically distant islands: Balearic Islands, Greek islands, Cyprus, and the Caribbean Islands. On the other hand, each island within the Canarian archipelago has a complementary relationship with other islands, both within the archipelago itself (e.g., Lanzarote with Fuerteventura), and with other islands (e.g., Gran Canaria with Cape Verde). This allows different possibilities of brand architecture and joint promotional actions. In addition, complementary combinations between islands differ by outbound markets, suggesting different possibilities for sub-groups and bundling (e.g., Gran Canaria is complementary with La Gomera in the German and Swiss markets, while the relationship is negative and competitive in the Norwegian market, and with the other countries there is no correlation).

The islands could benefit as a result of an efficient management of this co-opetition. For example, the joint presence of islands that are part of a network, at tourist fairs (physical proximity to the fair itself or joint actions during the fair) could be a win-win strategy. In addition, it is important for islands to consider these relationships to decide how they should appear in tour operator brochures, tour guides or travel guides, as well as other sources of information consulted by tourists when deciding where to travel. In the same

way, the islands could carry out promotional strategies at the airports of other islands, even with bilateral agreements, trying to attract island tourists for their future holidays.

Finally, future lines of research could deepen the fundamental understanding of the relationship between islands and island tourism. Hence, there is a need to consider other variables such as the size of islands (in geographic and business terms), geographic and cultural distance between them and with respect to the continent (long or short-haul destinations), etc. Connectivity with their home markets is also crucial, taking into account all the different means of transportation, their time, their cost and comfort. On the other hand, other industries other than tourism can also be included in the analysis. As a final observation, there is a need to develop a more detailed analysis in the different geographical areas of the planet (Picazo & Moreno, 2013).

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CHAPTER 2

UNDERSTANDING TOURISM LOYALTY:
HORIZONTAL VS. DESTINATION LOYALTY

CHAPTER 2

Understanding Tourism Loyalty: Horizontal vs. Destination Loyalty

Abstract

Tourism loyalty is a key topic that has been covered in literature mainly from a very homogenous perspective. This study analyses horizontal loyalty (consumer´s loyalty divided among several destinations), and explains the background factors that affect this behaviour (cognitive, affective and overall destination image; information sources; motivations; socio-demographic characteristics; previous behaviour; conative loyalty). The paper also identifies the differences between the explanatory factors of horizontal loyalty and one-single-destination loyalty. Applying a comprehensive analysis with 6,964 tourists from 17 countries, the study provides interesting recommendations for destinations with a view to better designing marketing activities and improving their co-opetition strategies and competitiveness.

1. Introduction

Traditionally, research into loyalty in a tourist destination context has focused its attention on how a destination relates to tourists to try to establish lasting and beneficial relationships with them. However, less attention has been paid to the study from the perspective of tourists and how these relate to destinations. In order to allow destinations to be able to improve their marketing strategies and tourist loyalty, a change of focus is absolutely necessary (Font & Villarino, 2015; Nordbø, Engilbertsson, & Vale, 2014). "Service-dominant logic", as articulated by Lusch and Vargo (2006), claims for a customer-centered focus, where the context of creating value takes ground in networks of networks (destinations and tourists in this case). Focusing on tourists and how they establish their loyalty relationships with different destinations will help to understand how destinations should relate to both tourists and competitors, and it may be beneficial to foster co-opetition between tourist destinations to improve competitiveness of the same.

Increasing competition among tourist destinations is an increasingly significant trend (Mariani & Baggio, 2012). This is accentuated by a larger number of holidays, albeit shorter ones, per individual, together with the unstoppable growth of the number of destinations in the market and the development of their offer (UNWTO, 2013), which make this change in focus even more necessary in the analysis of tourist loyalty. While some tourists may be loyal to a single destination, there are a large number that share out holidays between different destinations, which may cooperate and / or compete with each other. In the current tourism scenario, destinations are forced to increase their competitiveness, and literature shows that collaboration and co-operation between tourist destinations (Fyall, Garrod, & Wang, 2012), as well as the development of loyalty (Weaver & Lawton, 2011) are relevant strategies for destinations in achieving competitive advantages in the long term. Therefore, it is necessary to further analyse this phenomenon.

Loyalty is a construct that has been tackled in literature in a very homogeneous way and all the different ways in which tourists can show their loyalty have not been contemplated. According to McKercher, Denizci-Guillet, and Ng (2012), most studies on loyalty in the tourism industry focus on a single unit of analysis (e.g., a single destination), and apply similar indicators, which shows a lack of conceptual and methodological innovation. Specifically, according to these authors, from the consumer perspective, one can speak of the existence of horizontal loyalty

(HL) where tourists can be loyal to more than one supplier occupying the same level within the tourism system. Thus, tourists can show their loyalty to several destinations at the same time.

The study of HL, which is hardly explored in tourism literature, requires an alternative methodological approach and suggests a better knowledge of the tourist and an answer to the following questions: What profile do tourists with HL have? What factors really explain the differences between HL and single-destination loyalty (DL)? In literature, serious efforts have been made to investigate the factors that influence customer loyalty (Han, Hyun, & Kim, 2014), but there are no studies that analyse the factors that determine whether a tourist is loyal to multiple destinations. Thus, the objective of this research is to segment tourists according to the way in which they manifest their loyalty to tourist destinations and to analyse whether or not the factors that determine HL are the same as those that determine DL.

2. Theoretical Framework

The study of competitiveness has been a dominant paradigm in twentieth-century industry (Kylänen & Rusko, 2011), and in the field of tourism destinations it has been defined as the ability of a destination to attract potential tourists to its region and to be able to satisfy their needs and desires (Enrigth & Newton, 2004). According to Dawes, Romaniuk, and Mansfield (2009) tourist destinations compete for a time allocation of the traveller during a particular trip or for being the traveller's choice through consecutive trips. Thus, destinations are connected to each other through the decisions of tourists.

However, according to Mariani, Buhalis, Longhi, and Vitouladiti (2014), in a highly competitive tourism sector, pure competition is not the only tool for destinations to achieve sustainable competitive advantages. The term co-opetition is understood as co-operation and simultaneous competition between companies (Luo, 2007) and destinations. This approach to co-operation, introduced during the last decades (Kylänen & Rusko, 2011), has changed and will continue to change the economic landscape (Fyall & Garrod, 2005; Jorde & Teece, 1990). Thus, co-opetition has important political and management implications, and influences the marketing of tourist destinations and their potential benefits for all the stakeholders involved.

But while the focus on ways of competing in destinations has changed, the study of the development of loyalty has continued to have a very homogeneous traditional approach (Zhang,

Fu, Cai, & Lu, 2014). This is especially important because of the fundamental role that loyalty plays in the competitiveness of a destination (Weaver & Lawton, 2011). The need for a rethinking of tourism loyalty has been suggested in order to better understand this phenomenon and discover subtle relationships and acquire a more complete understanding of tourism (McKercher et al., 2012).

2.1. Conceptualisation and Importance of Loyalty

Since the 1930s, the study of loyalty has been one of the concerns of academics (Rundle-Thiele, 2005). According to Oliver (1999), loyalty is a deep commitment to buying a product or service again in the future, which causes repetitions of the same brand despite situational influences and marketing efforts that have the potential to provoke a change in behaviour. Developing customer loyalty has become an important marketing strategy because of the benefits associated with retaining existing customers (McMullan & Gilmore, 2008): loyal customers represent not only a stable source of income but also act as channels of information that informally connect networks of friends, relatives and other potential travellers to a destination; they are less sensitive to prices, showing a greater willingness to pay; and also the cost of serving this type of tourist is lower (Lau & McKercher, 2004; Oliver, 1999; Oppermann, 2000; Reichheld & Sasser, 1990; Shoemaker & Lewis, 1999).

Traditionally, the conceptualisation of loyalty has adopted three main approaches (Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978; Moore, Rodger, & Taplin, 2015): behavioural, attitudinal, and an approach that integrates both attitude and behaviour (Rundle-Thiele, 2005). However, Oppermann (2000) argued that in a tourism context, loyalty research should emphasise the behavioural approach, which in addition to being the most frequently used by researchers (Zhang et al., 2014), allows to keep questionnaires to a manageable length (Rivera & Croes, 2010). Thus, the final benefits that a loyal tourist brings to a tourist destination are largely motivated by their behaviour.

The first studies of loyalty already analysed this behavioural approach (Oliver, 1999). From this perspective, loyalty is usually measured as the number of times a product is purchased, or a destination is visited (McKercher et al., 2012). Thus, the tourist destinations compete for repeated visits of the tourists. Under this approach, the greater the number of times a tourist visits a destination, the more loyal he will be considered.

Although there is a great deal of research on loyalty and its connection with marketing strategies (Sivadas & Baker-Prewitt, 2000), fewer studies have analysed loyalty to tourist destinations (Moore et al., 2015), and approaches that integrate several destinations visited by tourists alternatively (Rivera & Croes, 2010).

2.2. Horizontal Loyalty

Although one-to-one loyalty relationships, where consumers are loyal to a single brand, are desirable, it seems that consumers are often loyal to more than one brand (Felix, 2014). This specific manifestation of loyalty has been classified in literature as multi-brand loyalty (Jacoby & Kyner, 1973; Oliver, 1999; Olson & Jacoby, 1974), divided loyalty (Sharp & Sharp, 1997; Yim & Kannan, 1999); dual loyalty to the brand (Cunningham, 1956); polygamous loyalty (Dowling & Uncles, 1997) multiple loyalty (Passingham, 1998) or transferred loyalty (Pearce & Kang, 2009). In addition, these relationships have been empirically demonstrated in different sectors, such as recently in the tobacco (Dawes, 2014) and mobile telephone sectors (Quoquab, Yasin, & Dardak, 2014). Loyalty to multiple brands, in non-tourism contexts, has been conceptualised and described in different ways.

However, according to McKercher et al. (2012) traditionally, in a tourism context, studies on loyalty have considered a single unit of analysis (e.g., a single destination), and fail to consider the complex interrelationships between multiple units of analysis at the same level in the tourism system. This is a consequence, among other things, of the difficulty of measurement that it involves. These authors suggest the study of loyalty related to the consumer perspective, and propose, among others typologies, the HL approach, manifesting that tourists can show loyalty to different suppliers at the same level within the tourism system (e.g., a tourist can show a loyal behaviour to two or more destinations at a time). Thus, destinations should understand that tourists behave in such a way that they share their holidays between different tourist destinations, which means that their loyal behaviour can also be divided among several destinations (Dawes et al., 2009). The current traveller can choose from an almost unlimited range of destinations offering similar attractions and facilities (Bianchi & Pike, 2011).

Moreover, the shared loyalty behaviour is motivated by the fact that in the tourism sector many of the goods and services are similar in both the quality and the experience they provide (Baloglu, 2002; Campo & Yagüe, 2007; Darnell & Johnson, 2001) and by the search for

something new, considered by some authors, to be innate in travellers (Bowen & Shoemaker, 1998), which can have a negative impact on their loyalty, if one considers the traditional approach to a tourist destination (Alegre & Juaneda , 2006; Jang & Feng, 2007). This suggests analysing, if indeed there are any, the differences in tourists showing DL and HL.

The HL concept, however, has not been extensively studied in the tourism sector. In this context, only a few studies have analysed implicitly or explicitly multi-brand loyalty, for example, in the airline industry (McKercher et al., 2012) and destinations (Dawes et al., 2009; McKercher et al., 2012). These studies have indicated that tourists show HL but have not analysed whether there are differences in the profile of this group of tourists with respect to the rest, and what factors explain this behaviour (McKercher & Denizci-Guillet, 2011).

Understanding and an appropriate use of information concerning customer loyalty will help identify different segments of visitors (Melián-González, Moreno-Gil, & Araña, 2011; Petrick, 2005). In addition, the characteristics that constitute tourist profiles are critical factors in analysing loyalty (Ozdemir et al., 2012).

Many studies have attempted to examine the differences between first time visitors and repeaters (Weaver & Lawton, 2011), finding discrepancies, for example, in socio-demographic aspects (Li, Cheng, Kim, & Petrick, 2008; McKercher & Wong, 2004), as well as factors related to before the trip, such as motivations (Lau & McKercher, 2004; Li et al., 2008), and the search for information (Li et al., 2008), and the perception of the destination image (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). However, there are few studies that analyse the differences between the different groups in which repeating tourists can be classified. There are no studies that analyse the differences between those who show loyalty to one-single-destination and those whose behaviour reveals loyalty to several destinations at the same time (Moore et al., 2015).

2.3. Background of Horizontal Loyalty

Many studies have examined tourism loyalty and its antecedents (Forgas-Coll, Palau-Saumell, Sánchez-García, & Callarisa-Fiol, 2012; McKercher et al., 2012; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Zhang et al., 2014). These studies have examined a number of factors that influence destination loyalty, including demographic characteristics, past experiences and destination image (Assaker, Vinzi, & O'Connor, 2011; McDowall, 2010). Recently Sun, Chi, and Xu (2013) present a summary of

the literature that has studied loyalty to tourist destinations. Among the aspects that they highlight some are emphasized such as tourist's motivations, the image of the destination and behaviour of information searching. Gursoy, Chen, and Chi (2014) classify these factors as components pre-trip and post-trip, emphasising motivations and image. However, previous studies have not yet been able to fully explain the background factors that affect customer loyalty (Yoon & Uysal, 2005), and even fewer have analysed the factors that cause HL. Previous literature has failed to analyse whether the factors that determine a tourist to be loyal horizontally differ from those that determine that a tourist makes repeated visits to one-single-destination. Therefore, the objective of this research is to verify whether or not the variables that determine DL are different from those that determine HL, exerting a different magnitude of the impact.

The following are some of the main antecedents of loyalty that have been used in literature: image, motivations, sources of information, socio-demographic characteristics and conative loyalty. Although there are other factors that determine loyalty (e.g., satisfaction, quality), attention in this study has been focused on those that have been less mentioned in literature, or those for which no consensus has been reached on the direction and magnitude of the relationships despite having been the subject of much research.

2.3.1. Image

Although there is a great deal of conceptualisation on the image of a destination (Chon, 1990; Gallarza, Saura, & García, 2002; Moreno & Martín, 2015), it can be understood as a total impression of cognitive and affective evaluations (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Carballo, Araña, León, & Moreno-Gil, 2015). The cognitive component of the image refers to the beliefs and information that tourists retain of the attributes of a destination, while the affective component is represented by emotional feelings or responses to the various characteristics of a place.

Although many studies have identified image as an antecedent of loyalty (Bigné, Sánchez, & Sánchez, 2001; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Faullant, Matzler, & Füller, 2008; Loureiro & González, 2008; Prayag, 2008; Prayag & Ryan, 2012) no consensus has been reached on the magnitude and direction of the relationships. Most of the authors use cognitive image (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008; Prayag & Ryan, 2012) or overall image attributes to measure them (Bigné et al., 2001; Campo-Martínez, Garau-Vadell, & Martínez-Ruiz, 2010; Loureiro & González,

2008), and take into consideration to a lesser extent the attributes that measure the affective image (Zhang et al., 2014). The incorporation of the affective component suggested by Prayag and Ryan (2012), could help to understand the relation between image and loyalty.

2.3.2. Motivations

When individuals make the decision to travel for pleasure, they do so for different reasons (Beerli & Martín, 2004). Previous studies have analysed the influence of travel motivations on tourism loyalty (Sun et al., 2013). These motivations can be classified into push and pull factors (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977). According to Dann (1977), internal motivations (push) are linked to the wishes of tourists and include the desire to escape, rest, achieve prestige, practice sports and social interaction. However, pull factors are related to the attractiveness of the destination and its historical, cultural or natural resources.

When the motivation for the trip is internal, the consumption of tourist destinations does not exhaust the objectives of an individual for that destination, but can improve their knowledge of the possibilities offered (Antón, Camarero, & Laguna-García, 2017), meaning that an intense and satisfactory experience in the destination will have a positive effect on the intention to revisit it (Hosany & Martin, 2012). In addition, the fact that a new experience does not necessarily imply securing new knowledge (Crompton, 1979), and that certain experiences can always offer new sources of pleasure for the tourist (Lee & Crompton, 1992) reinforces this belief. On the other hand, according to Antón et al. (2017) external motives (pull) could disappear when the destination becomes familiar to an individual since both their medium and long-term goals have been reached, implying a lesser intention to return. Thus, the travel motivations of individuals can act as inhibitors of loyalty or can benefit the development of it.

It is worth highlighting the search for something new as a particular case of motivation. It is widely accepted that this factor plays an important role in decision-making in the tourism sector (Petrick, 2002). The search for different types of novelty is the reason behind many holidays (Lee & Crompton, 1992). Thus, the search for something new as a travel motivation can also prevent tourist loyalty to a destination.

2.3.3. Sources of Information Used

Tourists look for information that helps them make a better decision when choosing a travel destination. According to Gartner (1994) this information comes from several sources, which have been extensively studied in literature (Llodrà-Riera, Martínez-Ruiz, Jiménez-Zarco, & Izquierdo-Yusta, 2015). In addition, according to Gruen, Osmonbekov, and Czaplewski (2006), word-of-mouth recommendations through social media can influence loyalty. This form of communication is perceived by customers as a reliable source of information, which requires a greater research effort (Law, Buhalis, & Cobanoglu, 2014), organic information being a key element for the success of a destination (Araña, León, Carballo, & Gil, 2016).

2.3.4. Socio-Demographic Characteristics

Previous research has revealed that there are differences in loyalty by gender and income (Petrick & Backman, 2001; Petrick, 2005). For example, Correia, Zins, and Silva (2015) found that older tourists are more likely to repeat visits than younger people. As far as income was concerned, these authors found that tourists with higher incomes are less likely to be loyal (intention to revisit). In any case, it is necessary to refute such indications in the context of HL.

2.3.5. Conative Loyalty

According to Oliver (1999), the manifestation of conative loyalty, defined as the intention and commitment to re-purchase the brand (Harris & Goode, 2004), is the pre-behavioural loyalty phase. In this way, it is expected that a tourist who manifests an intention for a future visit to a destination, has a greater probability of becoming truly loyal to a destination. However, all of these previous evidences have focused on DL analysis, whereas it has not been analysed whether these factors are important for the determination of HL or not.

3. Methodology

In order to achieve the proposed objectives, specific field work was undertaken through a structured loyalty questionnaire that included socio-demographic, behavioural, motivational and image variables. The questionnaire combined open and closed questions. The numerical scales used are from 1 to 7, with 1 being the minimum value and 7 being the maximum. For the

measurement of the destination image, its three components were evaluated. To measure the cognitive component of the image, 24 items were used following Beerli and Martín (2004). A 5-item semantic differential scale based on Russel (1980) was used for the measurement of the affective component of the image. A Likert scale from 1 to 7 was used to measure the overall image. With regard to motivations, the typology proposed by Fodness (1994) was used, with 19 items. The questionnaire was designed as a continuation of the bibliographic review and taking into account the specific nature of the destination analysed (Canary Islands, Spain).

3.1. Population

Europe remains the largest originating region for tourist flows in the world, a region that generates more than half of the annual international arrivals (UNWTO, 2016). Therefore, the target population of this study were potential tourists, aged 16 and over, who had travelled abroad during the last two years and from the 17 major European countries that send tourists to the destination under study (Canary Islands): Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Ireland, Italy, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom.

3.2. Sample Selection

The work was done through a Computer-Assisted Web Interviewing (CAWI), to a representative sample of the 17 countries mentioned, from a database of panellists in each country, and a random selection of the same was made based on the variables of stratification of geographical area and province on the one hand and, on the other, of the criteria of gender and age, in order to guarantee the representativeness of the sample with the population of each country. The defined sample was 8,500 tourists (500 in each country) and the actual sample 6,964 tourists, between 400 and 459 tourists per country. The selected sample was sent a personalised email inviting them to participate in the study, embedded in the mail itself was a personalised link that led them to the online survey. In order to ensure the expected number of surveys, during the three months of fieldwork in the different countries, two reminders were held to encourage response. Table 1 shows the basic profile of the sample analysed.

Table 1

Tourists' profile

		Total Tourists
	Germany	423
	Austria	403
	Belgium	404
	Denmark	405
	Spain	406
	Finland	411
	France	402
	The Netherlands	403
Nationality	Ireland	403
	Italy	402
	Norway	400
	Poland	402
	Portugal	459
	Russia	405
	Sweden	431
	Switzerland	400
	United Kingdom	405
Gender	Man	3453
	Woman	3508
	from 16 to 24	1368
	from 25 to 34	1395
Age	from 35 to 44	1375
	from 45 to 54	1406
	from 55 to 64	1023
	more than 64	396
	Primary	392
	Secundary	2927
Studies	University degree	2313
	University masters, doctorate	1067
	Others	265

3.3. Quality Control and Data Analysis

The questionnaire was translated into the languages of each country analysed. Once the questionnaire was pre-tested in the language of the potential tourists, and the pertinent corrections made to the questions that raised comprehension difficulties, the interviews were

carried out. The online system, after the relevant programming had taken place, reviewed all the interviews conducted, detecting the time that a respondent had taken to respond to the survey, thus any survey answered in less than five minutes was not accepted as valid. After completing the fieldwork and having applied the corresponding quality controls, we performed a binomial Logit analysis with the latest version of the SPSS statistical analysis programme. In this case a Logit model based on the theory of random utility has been chosen. The use of this model guarantees robustness in the estimated results and the fulfilment of the properties of the conventional utility functions established by the theory of the consumer.

In this case, the 7 islands (destinations) that compose the Canary Islands are considered the competitive set: Tenerife, Gran Canaria, Lanzarote, Fuerteventura, La Palma, La Gomera, and El Hierro. This destination was chosen, as well as for convenience, as a well-known European leading destination (Gil, 2003), and because there is an interesting complementarity between the islands that makes it ideal for the study of HL. Two groups of tourists are differentiated, those that show DL and those that manifest HL. A tourist can be defined as being loyal to one-single-destination if at least two or more visits to the same destination are observed, without observing other visits to the rest of destinations considered in the competitive set (a single island of the Canary Islands in two occasions or more, and no other). On the other hand, tourists are considered to be HL tourists when they have visited at least two different destinations in the group (at least two islands among the seven Canary Islands).

4. Results and Discussion

Below, and in order to fulfil the objective of the investigation, two regression models, with two different estimations, have been estimated with DL and HL as dependent variables. Since endogenous variables only involve two alternative choices, two binomial logit models are estimated. Before estimating the models, a factor analysis was carried out to examine the dimensions of the cognitive and affective image and motivational factors with the objective of reducing its dimensions and to properly identify the determining factors.

Once this factor analysis was performed on the cognitive image of the target, three dimensions of the same were identified that explain 65.45% of the variance. As shown in table 2 the first factor includes 6 items that have been labelled as "Sun, beach and lifestyle". The second factor

includes 7 items that refer to "Tourist leisure and general infrastructure". The third factor contains 6 items related to the "Environmental factors".

Table 2

Cognitive image factor analysis

Variables	COGI1	COGI2	COGI3	Cronbach´s alpha
The destination has good beaches	0.794	0.216	0.116	
The destination is exotic	0.788	0.135	0.219	
The destination has good landscapes and scenery	0.722	0.277	0.285	0.876
The destination has a pleasant climate	0.693	0.219	0.148	
The destination has an attractive life style	0.580	0.368	0.455	
The destination is fashionable	0.511	0.423	0.193	
The destination has good nightlife	0.309	0.737	0.137	
The destination is good for shopping	0.215	0.714	0.299	
The destination has a wider range of leisure facilities on offer	0.446	0.680	0.235	
The destination has a wider range of sports on offer	0.422	0.669	0.197	0.902
The destination has a great level of general infrastructure	0.342	0.661	0.322	
The destination is accessible	-0.013	0.655	0.376	
The destination has good hotels, apartments and chalets	0.534	0.588	0.288	
The destination is not crowded	0.341	0.101	0.738	
The destination offers great personal security	0.239	0.361	0.720	
The destination is clean	0.472	0.237	0.694	0.881
The destination has a good environmental situation	0.496	0.213	0.682	
The destination is cheap for holidays	-0.020	0.345	0.627	
The destination offers great political and social stability	0.1596	0.484	0.61	
Cronbach´s alpha				0.945
% Explained variance: 65.448				
KMO: 0.952				
Bartlett: 89645.852				
Significance: 0.000				

Note: COGI1: Sun, beach and lifestyle, COGI2: Tourist leisure and general infrastructures, COGI3: Environmental factors.

With respect to the affective image, the factor analysis summarises the variables used for its study in two factors that explain 73.42% of the variance (Table 3). The first factor, which collects 3 items has been called "Healthy and sustainable lifestyle", while the second includes 2 variables that relate to the "Emotional vibrancy of destination".

Table 3

Affective image factor analysis

Variables	AFI1	AFI2	Cronbach´s alpha
Sustainable destination	0.86	0.05	
Authentic destination	0.83	0.18	0.738
Healthy destination	0.67	0.30	
Happy destination	0.16	0.90	0.806
Stimulating destination	0.19	0.89	
Cronbach´s alpha			0.760
% Explained variance: 73.420			
KMO: 0.694			
Bartlett: 10417.695			
Significance: 0.000			

Note: AFI1: Healthy and sustainable lifestyle, AFI2: Emotional vibrancy of destination.

As far as the motivations are concerned, there are 6 factors identified by the analysis and they represent 70.37% (Table 4). The first one summarises those variables that have to do with the "Rest and relaxation" and includes 4 items. The 5 items related to knowledge are summarised in factor number 2, which has been called "Knowledge and culture". The third factor is the one for "Prestige and social exhibitionism" and picks up 4 items. "Sports" is the name of the fourth factor that is composed of 3 items. The fifth factor is also made up of 3 items and is called "Entertainment". Finally, the sixth factor is composed of two items related to "Inter-relationships".

The results obtained in the previous factor analyses largely coincide with literature (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Kozak, 2002), except for the affective image for which other authors (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martín, 2004) found a single factor, and in this case two have been identified, as was also the case of Tsiotsou, Ratten, Byon, and Zhang (2010). This result opens an interesting line of discussion on the number of dimensions of the affective image, where the greater sophistication of the tourists can divide between affective aspects more generic and shared between the holiday destinations (cheerful and stimulating) and other more distinctive of each place (authentic, sustainable and healthy), as Echtner and Ritchie (1993) already categorised. In this case, this distinction facilitates different interpretations in later analyses.

Table 4

Motivations factor analysis

Variables	MOT1	MOT2	MOT3	MOT4	MOT5	MOT6	Cronbach´s alpha
To relieve stress and tension	0.847	0.120	0.077	0.101	0.101	0.065	
To rest and relax	0.844	0.019	0.062	0.001	0.175	0.042	0.825
To escape from daily routine	0.844	0.130	0.055	0.031	0.170	0.060	
To enjoy and spend time with family and friends	0.515	0.138	0.240	-0.033	0.213	0.115	
To know different cultures and life styles	0.073	0.870	0.024	-0.045	0.127	0.093	
To broaden my horizons	0.044	0.867	0.068	-0.003	0.109	0.074	
To know new and different places	0.267	0.749	0.039	-0.067	0.274	0.090	0.819
To attend cultural events	0.042	0.624	0.227	0.245	0.080	0.210	
To be in contact with nature	0.253	0.431	-0.108	0.346	-0.014	0.417	
To go to places friends have already visited	0.078	0.097	0.763	0.172	0.071	0.200	
To go to places that are fashionable	0.071	0.008	0.744	0.326	0.104	0.069	0.773
To tell friends about the holiday experience	0.129	0.096	0.733	0.149	0.126	0.267	
To go to comfortable places with good hotels and restaurants	0.466	0.096	0.560	0.017	0.082	-0.075	
To do watersports	0.112	0.023	0.158	0.822	0.142	0.128	
To do recreational activities and sport	0.072	0.041	0.135	0.805	0.213	0.173	0.783
To play golf	-0.126	0.006	0.340	0.714	-0.053	0.028	
To look for adventures and pleasure	0.157	0.217	0.096	0.126	0.836	0.135	
To do exciting things	0.211	0.256	0.086	0.089	0.791	0.088	0.826
To look for entertainment and fun	0.361	0.055	0.168	0.134	0.693	0.150	
To make new friends	0.058	0.178	0.262	0.185	0.165	0.840	
To mix with other people	0.100	0.207	0.239	0.121	0.198	0.834	0.896
Cronbach´s alpha							0.889

% Explained variance: 70.372
KMO: 0.877
Bartlett: 72078.921
Significance: 0.000

Note: MOT1: Rest and relaxation, MOT 2: Knowledge and culture, MOT3: Prestige and social exhibitionism, MOT4: Sports, MOT5: Entertainment y MOT6: Inter-relationships

Table 5 summarises the results of the estimation for the two proposed models. The results determined, as Mechinda, Serirat, and Gulid (2009) and Wang (2004) stated, that age and income are variables that determine DL. The results show, in line with Correia et al. (2015), that the greater the age of the individual the more likely they are to be loyal to one-single-destination ($\beta = 0.170$ p <0.01), but also to several destinations simultaneously ($\beta = 0.215$ p <0.01). Young people seem to be more connected with the search for something new, besides their younger age has given them fewer options for repeating visits to destinations. There is also a direct relationship between the mean income level expressed by the tourist and DL ($\beta = 0.010$ p <0.01) and HL ($\beta = 0.014$ p <0.01), these results are in line with Correia et al. (2015). However, greater purchasing power facilitates the repeated purchase of both a destination and an alternative way between competitors. In fact, the strength of the relationship (β values) is higher for both variables (age and income) in the case of HL. The variables of gender and level of studies were found to be non-significant in both models.

As for the previous experience of the consumer as a tourist, the results show that the greater the number of holidays of more than four days a year, then as to be expected, the greater the probability there is of DL being evident ($\beta = 0.075$ p <0.05) or HL ($\beta = 0.157$ p <0.01), although it is possible to observe a greater probability of sharing out the loyalty between several destinations.

As for sources of information, tourists' use of social media with the intention of learning about their travel destination influences DL ($\beta = 0.479$ p <0.05), as stated by Gruen et al. (2006), and has also proved to be significant for HL ($\beta = 0.166$ p <0.05), demonstrating the importance for destinations to use this tool for enhancing loyalty, and also for opening up to the possibility of shared communications with other "competing destinations" in order to encourage HL.

The fact that a tourist shows a strong intention to revisit the Canary Islands in the short term (conative loyalty), as expected, increases the probability of manifesting HL ($\beta = 0.783$ p <0.01). This variable is not explanatory of DL however, as the intention is to visit other destinations, albeit complementary to the islands. This result raises if tourists, when answering about their intention to repeat, really answer about returning to that same place, or about repeating that type of experience, which could take place in any other alternative destination. In addition, this result opens up an interesting line of research on the existing relationship between DL, HL and

experiential loyalty (when the tourist is loyal to a certain type of holiday experience, regardless of the destination visited).

Table 5

Estimated binomial logit models of HL and DL

	Variables	DL β	DL ε	HL β	HL ε
Socio-demographic	Age	0.170**	0.049	0.215**	0.027
	Income	0.010**	0.003	0.014**	0.002
Past Experience	Number of holidays per year	0.075*	0.034	0.157**	0.019
Information sources	Social media use	0.479**	0.146	0.166*	0.081
Conative loyalty	Intention to visit	-		0.783**	0.099
Motivations	MOT 2. Knowledge	-0.225**	0.074	-0.134**	0.042
	MOT 3. Prestige and social exhibitionism	0.211**	0.074	-	
Image	Overall Image	-		0.259**	0.038
	COGI1: Sun, beach and lifestyle	-0.181*	0.079	-0.307**	0.047
	COGI2: Tourist leisure and general infrastructures	0.195**	0.072	0.092*	0.042
	COGI3: Environmental factors	-		0.101*	0.043
	AFI2: Emotional vibrancy of destination	-0.246**	0.083	-	
	Constant	-4.790**	0.251	-5.153**	0.239

Note: **: 0.01% *:0.05%

On the other hand, the motivation to know new and different places, and new cultures and ways of life, as expected, has a negative influence on DL (β = -0.225 p <0.01) and HL (β = -0.134 p <0.01). In both cases, these motivations limit the development of loyalty. Tourists, who decide to visit a destination in response to this type of motivation, with a single visit, will probably satisfy their needs in the short and long term, so that the likelihood of a return visit to the destination decreases. These results reinforce the idea held by Jang and Feng (2007), who affirmed that repeat tourists are travellers with a low need for searching for something new. However, the value of the estimated parameter is lower in the case of HL, which can be understood as the fact that horizontality can provide tourists with a certain degree of novelty, but when it comes to competing destinations, and therefore with "similar products" it turns out to be an inhibitory factor to repetition.

However, the motivation related to searching for prestige, classified as internal motivation of the individual, affects DL in a positive way ($\beta = 0.211$ p <0.01). This supports the idea of Antón et al. (2017), who asserted that tourists visiting a destination for internal reasons are more likely to repeat the visit. Although these tourists have met their needs in the short term, they may have decided that they have already found the destination that meets those needs, so when they wish to satisfy them again they are likely to return to the same destination "This is the place", and they do not have to change. It is important to emphasise that this motivation does not influence HL, and so it indicates an interesting difference between these segments. The motivations of rest and relaxation, sports, entertainment and socialisation, are not significant in any type of loyalty, as they are more general motivations that can be satisfied in a wide range of destinations.

With respect to the determining factors related to the image of the destination, both models reveal a relation between the cognitive image and the loyalty. There is an inverse relation between the factor called "Sun, beach and lifestyle" with DL ($\beta = -0.181$ p <0.05) and HL ($\beta = -0.307$ p <0.01). The greater the value that the tourists apply to these attributes at the destination, the lower the probability of them showing loyalty. This may be related to the fact that these cognitive image features are easy to find in other destinations, making them easily substitutable. In addition, there is a positive relation between leisure and general tourism infrastructures with DL ($\beta = 0.195$ p <0.01) and HL ($\beta = 0.092$ p <0.05), which can be explained by the self-congruence of the image, and the level of services that tourists expect to find in the destination. Tourists are very demanding and are seeking for novelty, but they do not tend to repeat the visit to a destination that does not share their "way of living" and self-perception (Beerli, Meneses, & Gil, 2007). On the other hand, the image assessment of the environmental situation ($\beta = 0.101$ p <0.05) positively affects the tourist manifesting HL among the different islands that form the competitive group, with no relation between this factor and DL. This can be explained by the fact that the destinations of the competitive set have similar environmental conditions, which makes them interchangeable (but different from others), thus making this a hygienic factor that does not influence DL.

On the other hand, the attributes of affective image related to the emotional vibrancy of destination, inversely influence the DL ($\beta = -0.246$ p <0.01), hindering the development of tourist loyalty. This affective part of the loyalty is easily replaceable, since practically all the sun and beach destinations provide a cheerful and stimulating image. When the affective
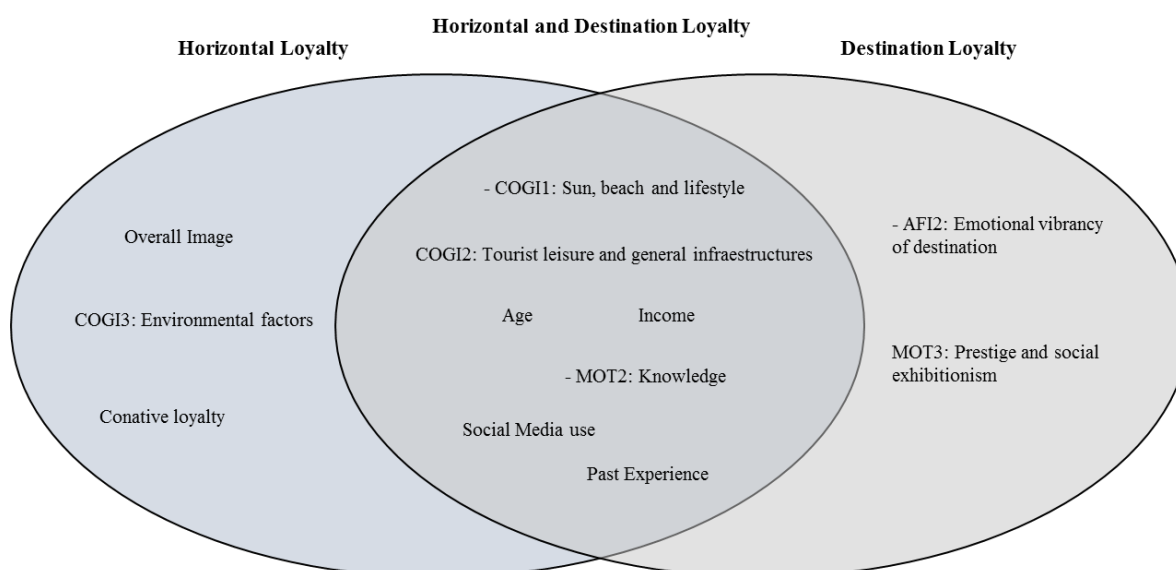
perception of a destination is leaded by this generic image, the result is that any destination in the category is a valid alternative.

The estimated regression model has also shown that the overall image of the competitive group is a determinant of HL, with a positive impact ($\beta = 0.259$ p <0.01). However, no relationship was found between this variable and DL. This result opens an interesting line of research around the umbrella brand and the link of the same with the HL and with loyalty to each destination under that brand.

Figure 1 summarises the determinants of each of the types of loyalty analysed. Thus, they differ between those that are significant for both HL and DL, and those that only affect HL or DL. These results seem to indicate that a positive overall image with intention to visit by the tourist, does not have to be an explanatory factor of DL, but does, on the contrary, for HL where other complementary destinations are selected for the next holidays. On the other hand, if the destination is associated with a travel motivation of prestige and social exhibitionism, then there does seem to be a clear determinant for DL but not for HL. Some attributes that are generic and shared by all the destinations within the category (sun and beach in this case), as the cognitive perception of "sun, beach and lifestyle" and the affective perception of "emotional vibrancy" are inhibitors to loyalty. On the other hand, unique attributes of the destination within the category: environmental factors, leisure offering and infrastructures, encourage loyalty.

Figure 1

Determining factors of loyalty

Horizontal and Destination Loyalty

Horizontal Loyalty — Destination Loyalty

- COGI1: Sun, beach and lifestyle

COGI2: Tourist leisure and general infraestructures

Age   Income

- MOT2: Knowledge

Social Media use

Past Experience

Overall Image

COGI3: Environmental factors

Conative loyalty

- AFI2: Emotional vibrancy of destination

MOT3: Prestige and social exhibitionism

5. Conclusion

A review of literature helped to conceptualise the subject of study: the loyalty to the destination and its fundamental dimensions, different groups of tourists were identified according to the type of loyalty shown: loyalty to a destination and horizontal loyalty to multiple destinations. Subsequently, the differences in their explanatory variables were analysed with a methodological design based on a questionnaire made to potential tourists from 17 countries, with a large sample size (6,964 tourists) that allowed consistent conclusions to be drawn.

The results allowed us to identify the existence of variables that influence both types of loyalty, and furthermore, that there are others that influence HL and not DL, and vice versa. In this way, when designing marketing and tourist loyalty strategies, managers should take into account the differences between the determinants of each type of loyalty.

Regarding the theoretical implications, the present study supposes the first empirical application of the factors that determine HL, and its differences with DL, focussed on tourist destinations, where the concept of loyalty has its peculiarities (Alegre & Juaneda, 2006). Thus, the need for a change of focus in the study of loyalty in the context of tourist destinations is highlighted, where future work could use the methodology and conclusions that are developed in the present research. Traditionally, destinations and their marketing strategies have been analysed without taking into account other tourist destinations, or the relationship of tourists with all of them. This study proposes a change of vision in the design of such strategies, where the emphasis is placed on the community of tourists and how these relate to many destinations.

On the other hand, the practical implications are obvious, since the understanding of the differences raised in the loyalty of the tourist implies different marketing strategies for each group, allowing the destinations to enhance their competitiveness. Thus, destination organisations and managers of companies operating in the sector could maximise their available resources for tourism promotion and could also establish possible joint marketing strategies.

Specifically, the fact that the higher the age and the level of income of the tourist influences both the HL and the DL, means that the destinations must design loyalty programmes especially directed to these segments, being able to work with partners where this profile (higher age and income level) is the most common (e.g., airline loyalty programmes). As for the negative effect

of the sun and beach image on both types of loyalty, this denotes the need for innovation by these destinations, even with the intention to "get out of the category" of sun and beach through innovation and differentiation if they want to keep tourists loyal. In this line, the identification of two factors in the affective image suggests further studying a new paradigm of the sun and beach image of destinations (affective image of authenticity, well-being and sustainability). Likewise, the projected image of its tourist leisure and general infrastructures, to the extent that they are congruent with that of the markets of origin, are also a good impulse for loyalty. In any case, social media are an ideal source for communicating all these proposals, as they promote both DL and HL.

In the case of destinations that want to promote DL, in addition to the previous aspects, the projection of an image aimed at those tourists motivated by a fashionable and prestigious destination, which allows social exhibitionism, would seem to be an appropriate strategy, moving away from a cheerful and stimulating destination image, as an image shared with other places. On the other hand, to promote HL, competing destinations can carry out joint promotional actions that help them in the conversion of the intention to visit, working on a shared global image based on common aspects of their environmental situation. In addition, as a means of avoiding the tourist's search for something new and lack of loyalty, destinations can continually renew their attractions, in addition to being able to offer joint proposals and itinerant events between the competing group.

Finally, some lines of future research are suggested: a) in the first place and since this study has focused only on a geographical area and a competitive set, the set of considered destinations can be expanded. For example, in the once-in-a-lifetime destinations, the extent to which these conclusions apply and whether they can also be networked should be analysed; Furthermore, other additional indicators may be considered to help explain the visits to each of the different destinations (satisfaction, quality, familiarity, cultural differences, etc.), and incorporate vertical and experiential loyalty dimensions; Analyse if the order in which the different destinations are visited influences HL and the determination of the number of times the group of competing destinations is visited; To further analyse the different typologies of social media and sources of information used by tourists to find out about their travel destination in the determination of HL and; To evaluate loyalty from a social, environmental and economic perspective, in its different dimensions (DL, HL), and its implications in the brand architecture, which would allow to evaluate the promotional proposals with better criteria.

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CHAPTER 3

NEW TRENDS IN INFORMATION SEARCH AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON DESTINATION LOYALTY: DIGITAL DESTINATIONS AND RELATIONSHIP MARKETING

CHAPTER 3

New Trends in Information Search and Their Influence on Destination Loyalty: Digital Destinations and Relationship Marketing

Abstract

Increasingly destination manager organizations are engaging with consumers through digital media, communicating with them in a long-term relationship. Numerous studies have shown that social media influence the intentions of travellers to visit a destination over another. However, the literature has paid little attention to the relationship between information-seeking behaviour and the development of destination loyalty. In that sense, this study analyses how tourists are consulting more digital information and using several different information sources, which influences the time tourists are sharing at a few destinations, becoming more loyal to multiple destinations at the same time (horizontal loyalty). However, this topic has not yet been stressed in the tourism context. Thus, this study proves a) the difference in behaviour when it comes to the use of several information sources, depending on tourists' profiles (nationality and socio-demographic characteristics); and b) although there are no significant differences regarding the use of the different social media in terms of destination-loyal and horizontal-loyal tourists, the impact of the different sources of information on loyalty (behavioural and attitudinal) is different. Social media has a greater impact on attitudinal loyalty. To achieve those goals, a wide survey with 6,964 questionnaires was developed, considering tourists from 17 European countries. Those results are useful in making decisions concerning digital development strategies and loyalty programs to tourist destinations. The practical implications are discussed in this paper.

Keywords: Digital Destinations, Horizontal Loyalty, Relationship Marketing, Information Sources, Social Media

1. Introduction

Tourists search for information that helps them make better decisions when it comes to choosing a holiday destination, and they do so using different channels (Ho, Lin, & Chen, 2012) that have evolved over time. The start of the Internet and social media has altered the way tourist knowledge spreads, and it has turned into the most commonplace information search (Xiang & Gretzel, 2010). In addition, these global platforms allow travellers to share their experience (Gretzel, Lee, Tussyadiah, & Fesenmaier, 2009; Gupta & Kim, 2004) and the content generated by users in those platforms plays a key role in planning trips, including decisions regarding revisiting destinations and loyalty (Litvin, Goldsmith, & Pan, 2008; Yoo & Gretzel, 2011). Understanding how travellers have adapted to these changes is essential in order to identify and develop effective communication strategies (Xiang, Wang, O'Leary, & Fesenmaier, 2014).

Not only have the search methods used by tourists changed, but also the relationship regarding loyalty towards tourist destinations. Nowadays, tourists not only share their time with different sources of information and specific social media, but also share their holiday time within several destinations at the same time, staying loyal to several of them, which is known as horizontal loyalty (McKercher, Denizci-Guillet, & Ng, 2012).

On the one hand, understanding how tourists access information is important in order to make marketing choices (Bieger & Laesser, 2004), depending on the different tourists' profiles (Chiang, King, & Nguyen, 2012; Gursoy & Chen, 2000; Hyde, 2007; Jun, Vogt, & MacKay, 2007; Luo, Feng, & Cai, 2005; Xu, Morgan, & Song, 2009). On the other hand, numerous studies have shown that the information sources have an influence on the intentions tourists have of visiting a particular destination (Dey & Sarma, 2010), and it is the first step before planning a trip and making decisions. This process has become more complicated with the introduction of new sources of information (Xiang et al., 2014). Nevertheless, the literature available has not focused specifically on how social media influences different kinds of loyalty (Hudson, Roth, Madden, & Hudson, 2015). Therefore, it is necessary to capture the key aspects of joint use of the different social media and traditional sources of information when planning a trip, and determine the existing relationship towards loyalty typologies to tourist destinations.

It is subsequently vital to examine the following in depth: a) the difference in behaviour when it comes to the use of several information sources depending on tourists' profiles (nationality and socio-demographic characteristics) and b) the relationship between the information sources used and loyalty towards destinations. In doing so, a better understanding of how tourists vary their behaviour between the different sources and different destinations is obtained.

2. Theoretical Framework

When tourists make the decision to travel, they find difficulties when assessing the quality provided if they haven't visited these locations before (Kim, Lehto, & Morrison, 2007). Information sources are used to reduce uncertainty during the decision-making process (Xiang et al., 2014). Furthermore, tourist behaviour regarding the use of social media differs depending on the segments analysed: nationalities and socio-demographic characteristics (Bieger & Laesser, 2004; Bolton et al., 2013; Bonn, Furr, & Hausman, 2001; Kim, Xiang, & Fesenmaier, 2015), and information sources have been traditionally analysed considering their influence in explaining the next visit to a destination (Baloglu, 2000). However, the influence on repeating visits (loyalty), considering both behavioural and attitudinal loyalty, has been omitted in the literature. In this process, different variables must be included to explain this loyalty behaviour, such as motivations and image (Gursoy, Chen, & Chi, 2014; Sun, Chi, & Xu, 2013).

2.1. Information Sources

The social media use on the Internet by travellers has become a dominant way of searching for information (Pan, MacLaurin, & Crotts, 2007; Xiang & Gretzel, 2010), with several types of content generated by consumers (Munar & Jacobsen, 2014), such as wikis (i.e., Wikipedia), blogs and microblogs (i.e., Twitter), social media (i.e., Facebook), communication exchange channels (i.e., Flickr, YouTube), and review channels (i.e., TripAdvisor). In this context it is crucial to identify what the most relevant new information sources are in order to consider them in this study.

According to Chan and Guillet (2011), Twitter and Facebook are the most widely used social media sites in the industry. Thus, Twitter is the most popular microblogging service

(Jansen, Zhang, Sobel, & Chowdury, 2009), and Facebook is the most-used social media platform among European tourists (Escobar-Rodríguez, Grávalos-Gastaminza, & Pérez-Calañas, 2017). Besides Twitter and Facebook, YouTube, Flickr, and TripAdvisor are among other popularly used social media sites in the industry. Thus, YouTube is the second-largest worldwide search engine after Google (Welboune & Grant, 2015), being the leader in the distribution of video content. Flickr is the most popular photo-sharing social media site (Zielstra & Hochmair, 2013), although new players (e.g., Instagram) are taking over this position. Finally, TripAdvisor is the largest community travel site in the world (TripAdvisor, 2016). Table 1 shows references that support the relevance of these social media sites and the importance of analysing them to pursue the goals of this study.

Table 1

Literature supporting the importance of different social media sites in tourism

Social Media site	References
Twitter	Hennig-Thurau, Wiertz, & Feldhaus, 2015; Jansen et al., 2009; Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010; Lo, McKercher, Lo, Cheung, & Law, 2011; Palmer & Koenig-Lewis, 2009
Facebook	Escobar-Rodríguez et al., 2017; Illum, Ivanov, & Liang, 2010; Lo et al., 2011; Palmer & Koenig-Lewis, 2009; Waters, Burnett, Lamm, & Lucas, 2009
YouTube	Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010; Kim et al., 2007; Palmer & Koenig-Lewis, 2009
Flickr	Angus, Stuart, &Thelwall, 2010; Donaire & Galí, 2011; Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010; Lo et al., 2011; Stepchenkova & Zhan, 2013; Stylianou-Lambert, 2012
TripAdvisor	Gupta & Kim, 2004; Xiang et al., 2014
Wikipedia	Fang, Kamei, & Fujita, 2015; Hanna, Rohm, & Crittenden, 2011

Previous studies have tried to understand how tourists use the Internet to gather information, as well as the best way for tourist suppliers to make the most out of those channels (Araña, León, Carballo, & Gil, 2015; Buhalis & Law, 2008; Chung & Buhalis, 2009; Ho et al., 2012; Kladou & Magravani, 2015; Litvin et al., 2008; Pan & Fesenmaier, 2006; Papathanassis & Knolle, 2011; Xiang & Gretzel, 2010). Recently, there has been an advance in research related to social media and the Internet in the destination context and their use when establishing relationships with tourists and loyalty (Casaló, Flavián,

& Guinalíu, 2010; Kim & Hardin, 2010; Wang & Fesenmaier, 2004; Xiang & Gretzel, 2010) and the impact it has when planning a holiday (Gretzel & Yoo, 2008; Sigala, Christou, & Gretzel, 2012; Xiang & Gretzel, 2010). However, there is a need to keep enhancing knowledge regarding the differences among segments when using the social media (Kim et al., 2015). On the other hand, Stepchenkova, Shichkova, Kim, Pennington-Gray, and Rykhtik (2015) noted that for tourists with a loyal behaviour, the Internet seems to be the main source used when choosing a holiday destination. However, there has not yet been an in-depth study of the influence of the use of the Internet and the particular social media sites on the development of the different kinds of loyalties towards tourist destinations.

The analysis of information sources, on the one hand, and the analysis of loyalty, on the other hand, should take into account the different groups of tourists. In particular, information-seeking behaviour has a significant relationship with demographic characteristics (Buhalis & Law, 2008). Previous studies have tried to understand the existing differences in the information-seeking behaviour of different groups of tourists. On the one hand, socio-demographic characteristics such as nationality, gender, and age have been used as segmentation criteria. For example, Gursoy and Chen (2000) examined the external information-seeking behaviour of travellers from Germany, the United Kingdom and France, and four distinct segments of information-seeking behaviour were identified. Gursoy and Umbreit (2004) ran a cross-cultural comparison of the information-seeking behaviour of travellers from the EU member countries where six market segments emerged. However, these studies have not paid particular attention to the use of social networks and online media as a source of tourist information. For example, Gursoy and Chen (2000) and Chen and Gursoy (2000) analysed social media as a general category, without considering the differences among them. Something similar happens in the work of Gursoy and Umbreit (2004)—they ask about the use of Internet information and Minitel (a videotex service developed in France). Thus, it is necessary to try to better understand this phenomenon by studying the differences among the use of the specific social media and the different socio-demographic segments.

More recently Kim et al. (2015) examined various aspects of Internet use among four generational groups, including the Silent Generation, Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y, over a six-year period. Findings show a high adoption rate of the Internet

among all generations, but there are important differences related to information search, trip planning activities, and Web sites used for online booking.

2.2. Antecedent Factors of Loyalty

Consumer loyalty is one of the most critical marketing constructs (Tasci, 2016). According to the literature, there are two elements of loyalty (Baloglu, 2002; Kumar, Shah, & Venkatesas, 2006): behavioural and attitudinal. From a behavioural point of view, loyalty can be understood as a current revisit to a holiday destination. An attitudinal approach represents the personal attitude and emotions that play a part in showing loyalty to a destination. The intention of revisiting a destination in the future is a manifestation of the latter.

On the other hand, previous literature on loyalty has shown that customers may be loyal to more than one brand (Brown, 1953; Cunningham, 1956; Dowling & Uncles, 1997; Jacoby & Kyner, 1973; Oliver, 1999; Olson & Jacoby, 1974; Sharp & Sharp, 1997; Yim & Kannan, 1999). This fact has not been thoroughly studied in the tourist sector, despite having proven its presence in other market environments, in which tourists can be loyal to several destinations at the same time, which has been referred to as horizontal loyalty in recent studies (McKercher et al., 2012).

Properly understanding tourist loyalty will help identify different segments of visitors (Melián-González, Moreno-Gil, & Araña, 2011; Petrick, 2005). Thus, numerous studies have attempted to examine the differences between first-time visitors and repeat visitors (Weaver & Lawton, 2011), finding differences, for example, in socio-demographic aspects (Li, Cheng, Kim, & Petrick, 2008; McKercher & Wong, 2004), motivations (Lau & McKercher, 2004; Li et al., 2008), information search (Li et al., 2008), and perceived image of the destination (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). However, no research to date has analysed the differences in the use of information sources by the different typologies of loyal tourists attending to its main dimensions: attitudinal vs. behavioural, and destination vs. horizontal.

Before revising the antecedents of loyalty, a brief description of each segment differentiated in this study and its proposed tag follows (Figure 1):

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Figure 1

Segments by loyalty

	Behavioural Loyalty Actual visits in the past	**Attitudinal Loyalty** Actual visits in the past plus intention to visit it in the future
Horizontal Loyalty Multiple destination	**Behavioural Horizontal Loyalty (BHL):** This segment is comprised of tourists who have visited different islands within the competitor set Canary Islands.	**Attitudinal Horizontal Loyalty (AHL):** This segment comprises tourists who manifest repeat visits to different islands within the competitor set Canary Islands, and at the same time, they manifest a high probability to visit the destination Canary Island in the near future
Destination Loyalty One single destination	**Behavioural Destination Loyalty (BDL):** This segment is composed of tourists who make at least two or more visits to the same island, within the Canary Islands, and they have not visited to any of the other islands.	**Attitudinal Destination Loyalty (AHL):** This segment is composed of tourists who are loyal to one only destination, like BDL tourists, but they show a high likelihood to visit the destination Canary Island in the near future

Segment 1: Behavioural Horizontal Loyalty (BHL)

This segment is composed of tourists who display repeat visits to different destinations within the competitor set (the Canary Islands in this study). This means that they are loyal to several destinations at once. This requires in this study at least two previous visits to two or more islands within the Canary Islands.

Segment 2: Attitudinal Horizontal Loyalty (AHL)

This segment comprises tourists who, like the previous group, manifest previous repeat visits to different destinations within the competitor set (the Canary Islands). Additionally, they show an intention to visit the destination in the near future (within the next two years in this study).

Segment 3: Behavioural Destination Loyalty (BDL)

This segment is composed of tourists displaying a repeat pattern to a single destination. Thus, tourists can be described as BDL if they make at least two or more visits to the same destination (one island in this study) and they have not visited any other islands within the competitor set (the Canary Islands).

Segment 4: Attitudinal Destination Loyalty (ADL)

ADL tourists are those who are loyal to one-single-destination. Like BDL tourists, these tourists visit the same destination two or more times, and they have not visited other destinations within the competitor set (the Canary Islands). Furthermore, ADL tourists show a high likelihood to visit the destination (Canary Islands) in the near future.

Although the focus of this paper is to analyse the influence of information sources on loyalty and its typologies, this analysis cannot be done separately without considering at the same time the influence that other variables exert on loyalty. Earlier literature highlights several factors that encourage people to revisit a destination: information sources (traditional and new), demographic characteristics, motivations, and perceived image (cognitive, affective, and overall) of the destination (Assaker, Vinzi, & O'Connor, 2011; Hudson, Wang, & Gil, 2011; McDowall, 2010; Sun et al., 2013). Although, there are other determinants of loyalty (e.g., satisfaction, quality), this study has focused its attention on those that either have been less discussed in the literature, like information sources, or have been the subject of research but a consensus about the direction and magnitude of these relationships has not been reached.

Although numerous studies have identified the image as an antecedent of loyalty (Bigné, Sánchez, & Sánchez, 2001; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Faullant, Matzler, & Füller, 2008; Loureiro & González, 2008; Prayag, 2008; Prayag & Ryan, 2012), they have not analysed the relationship among the different dimensions of image (cognitive, affective, and overall) and the different typologies of loyalty. Most authors have analysed the impact on loyalty of cognitive image (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008; Prayag & Ryan, 2012) or overall image (Bigné et al., 2001; Campo-Martínez, Garau-Vadell, & Martínez-Ruíz, 2010; Loureiro & González, 2008), considering in a lesser extent attributes that measure the affective image (Zhang, Fu, Cai, & Lu, 2014). The incorporation of the affective component suggested by Prayag and Ryan (2012) could help to understand the

relationship between image and loyalty. Moreover, antecedents of horizontal loyalty have been omitted in previous studies.

On the other hand, previous studies have analysed the impact of travel motivations on tourist loyalty (Sun et al., 2013). These motivations can be classified into push and pull factors (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977). According to Dann (1977), internal reasons (push) linked to the tourists' desires include the need to escape, relax, gain prestige, health, adventure, and social interaction. However, attraction factors (pull) are related to the attractiveness of the destination and include tangible resources such as historical, artistic, cultural, natural, and culinary resources. When the trip motivation is internal, an intense and satisfying experience in the destination will have a positive effect on the intention to revisit it (Hosany & Martin, 2012). Moreover, according to Antón, Camarero, and Laguna-García (2017) external reasons (pull) could disappear when the destination becomes familiar to an individual and both medium- and long-term goals have been reached, implying a lower intention to revisit. Thus, travel motivations of individuals either can act as inhibitors of loyalty or can encourage it.

Finally, previous research has revealed that there is a direct relationship between the personal characteristics of tourists and loyalty (Alegre & Garau, 2010; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000; Mechinda, Serirat, & Gulid, 2009; Ozdemir et al., 2012). For example, Chen and Gursoy (2001) found that older tourists are more likely to recommend destinations and make repeat visits than younger people. With respect to income, Ozdemir et al., (2012) found that tourists with higher incomes are less likely to be loyal (intention to revisit and recommend). However, more in-depth research on this topic is still needed.

3. Methodology

Europe is still the region with the greatest number of travellers in the world, an area that represents more than half the international arrivals a year (UNWTO, 2016). Therefore, the population used for this study consisted of tourists over 16 years of age (both genders) from the main 17 European countries travelling to the destination being researched: Germany, Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Ireland, Italy, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom.

We used a Computer-Assisted Web Interview (CAWI) to conduct the research in the 17 countries previously mentioned. The initial sample consisted of 8,500 tourists (500 in each country), and the real final sample consisted of 6,964 tourists, with between 400 and 459 tourists per country. Potential responders were selected from a panel sampling owned by a professional survey company. Within each country, we made a random selection, taking into account the stratification variables of the geographic location and province, on the one hand, and, on the other, gender and age, in order to guarantee the sample's representativeness. Only people who have previously travelled abroad were considered. A more detailed breakdown of the characteristics of the sample is shown in table 2.

Table 2

Tourists' profile

		Percentage
Nationality	Germany	6.07
	Austria	5.80
	Belgium	5.80
	Denmark	5.82
	Spain	5.83
	Finland	5.90
	France	5.77
	The Netherlands	5.79
	Ireland	5.79
	Italy	5.80
	Norway	5.70
	Poland	5.80
	Portugal	6.59
	Russia	5.82
	Sweden	6.19
	Switzerland	5.74
	United Kingdom	5.82
Gender	Man	49.58
	Woman	50.40
Age	from 16 to 24	19.60
	from 25 to 34	20.03
	from 35 to 44	19.70
	from 45 to 54	20.19
	from 55 to 64	14.70
	more than 64	5.69

In order to reach the set goals, the consideration set analysed was the Canary Islands. The justification of this selection is that the Canary Islands is a leading European destination (Gil, 2003), with more than 14 million international tourists a year, and it is a very well-known and popular destination in Europe. The Canary Islands consist of seven islands: Tenerife, Gran Canaria, Lanzarote, Fuerteventura, La Palma, La Gomera, and El Hierro, with a complex ecosystem (García-Rodríguez, García-Rodríguez, & Castilla-Gutiérrez, 2016), showing an interesting complementary relationship between them (Promotur, 2012), which makes this consideration set ideal for studying horizontal loyalty. Furthermore, the analysis of this complementarity has been noted for other authors, claiming for further research applied to destinations geographically close (Shih, 2006). Thus, this study has taken as a competitive set, the seven islands (destinations) within the Canary Islands.

We carried out fieldwork using a structured questionnaire that included socio-demographic variables, sources of information, image, and loyalty. In order to conduct a more in-depth study of tourist loyalty to the consideration set and to bring together tourists in the different groups, they were asked about their loyal behaviour and attitude. First of all, they were asked whether they had ever visited the Canary Islands before (no time frames were used) and, if so, which islands they had visited and how many times. Tourists who had visited the consideration set (Canary Islands) twice or more were considered loyal tourists. Then they were invited to answer the following question (attitudinal loyalty): "On a scale of 1 to 7, how likely do you think it is that you will go on holiday to the Canary Islands in the next two years: 1 indicates very unlikely and 7 very likely?" Tourists who marked a 6 or 7 out of 7 were considered to be attitudinally loyal. Table 3 shows a description of the sample loyalty profile.

Table 3

Loyalty profile of tourists

		Frecuency	Percentage
No visitors		4897	70.3
Visitors	First visit	826	40.0
	Loyal	1241	60.0
	Total visitors	2067	29.7
Total		6964	100
Behavioural Horizontal loyal (BHL)		996	80.3
Behavioural Destination loyal (BDL)		245	19.7
Attitudinal Horizontal loyal (AHL)		331	26.7
Attitudinal Destination loyal (ADL)		81	6.5

With regard to social media sites used by tourists, they were asked: "Have you ever used social and digital media on the Internet to find out information about the destination you visit?" If so, tourists were asked to indicate which social media site they had used. This is a multiple-choice question, and they were able to choose among several alternatives according to the literature review: TripAdvisor, Facebook, Flickr, YouTube, Twitter, Wikipedia, and Others.

With regard to traditional sources of information, tourists were asked: "Please indicate the sources through which you have received the information on the Canary Islands." Thus, tourists had to choose between tour operators' brochures; leaflets; holiday guide books; news, articles, documentaries, and information about the destination in different media; the Internet through the official Web site of the destination; other Internet sources; travel agents; friends and relatives (word of mouth); and other sources. Finally, motivations and image were measured following validated scales from previous studies (Baloglu & Mangaloglu, 2001; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Beerli, Meneses, & Gil, 2007; Carballo, Araña, León & Moreno-Gil, 2015; Fodness, 1994).

Once the questionnaire, in the corresponding language of the tourists, was pretested and the necessary corrections to questions that seemed difficult to understand had been completed, we proceeded to carry out the survey. Once the field work was completed, the corresponding quality controls were applied: the online system, after being programmed, revised the interviews conducted and detected how long the participants took to answer

the survey. All surveys answered in less than five minutes were not accepted as valid. Additionally, 10 percent back-checks and authentication of the respondent interviewed was realized.

Finally, we proceeded to conduct an analysis of the significant differences using a chi-square test among the different groups to analyse the first goal and a logit binomial analysis in order to look into the second goal. In this case, we chose the logit model based on the random use theory. This model is especially appropriate when working with endogenous binary qualitative variables in the tourism field, despite the availability of other statistical techniques (Alegre & Cladera, 2006; Barros & Assaf, 2012; Perales, 2002).The goodness of fit of a logit model was assessed by −2 log likelihood (LL) ratios and their associated chi-square.

4. Results and Discussion

In order to accomplish the first goal (differences in social media use by nationalities, age, and gender), the total sample was analysed. Table 4 summarises significant differences by nationality revealed during this study regarding the use of the main digital sources of information consulted when choosing a holiday destination. It can be confirmed that there are important differences in the use of social media depending on each nationality, except when it comes to the use of Flickr. This result makes us think of the possibility of a common pattern in the use of pictorial content in social media, regardless of the nationality, as opposed to other contents and formats. This requires further analysis in this regard in other geographic contexts, adding other photo social media (Instagram, Pinterest), given the important implications this would have in tourist communication. More specifically, the social media sites used more often by tourists when planning their trips are Wikipedia, Facebook, and YouTube. TripAdvisor plays a significant role in United Kingdom and Ireland, whereas Twitter and Flickr have a less significant role in all the countries.

Table 4

Differences in the use of social media by nationality

	TripAdvisor	Facebook	Flickr	YouTube	Twitter	Wikipedia	Total
Germany	4.0%	14.7%	2.4%	10.4%	3.3%	17.0%	30.7%
Austria	2.5%	11.9%	0.0%	8.7%	1.2%	14.6%	31.0%
Belgium	3.5%	13.9%	1.2%	5.4%	1.0%	12.1%	26.7%
Denmark	9.1%	12.1%	1.5%	14.8%	1.7%	27.9%	88.9%
Spain	7.6%	24.6%	2.5%	12.8%	3.7%	19.0%	50.5%
Finland	6.3%	25.8%	1.5%	15.8%	3.2%	29.9%	44.8%
France	3.5%	12.7%	1.0%	6.0%	2.7%	8.5%	20.4%
The Netherlands	3.7%	12.2%	1.5%	12.7%	5.5%	12.9%	45.4%
Ireland	28.5%	24.1%	1.5%	11.7%	2.5%	15.6%	50.6%
Italy	15.2%	31.8%	2.7%	18.7%	3.5%	24.4%	58.5%
Norway	10.3%	28.5%	1.8%	11.0%	2.0%	23.3%	52.0%
Poland	2.5%	25.4%	1.2%	20.4%	4.0%	29.1%	45.8%
Portugal	10.7%	24.4%	1.5%	15.5%	1.7%	20.9%	44.2%
Russia	2.2%	22.5%	1.0%	26.2%	10.9%	40.5%	72.1%
Sweden	9.3%	28.3%	0.9%	15.8%	0.7%	29.7%	58.2%
Switzerland	3.3%	11.3%	0.3%	5.3%	0.5%	11.0%	24.3%
United Kingdom	17.8%	18.8%	1.2%	10.6%	5.4%	12.6%	36.5%
Total	8.2%	20.2%	1.4%	13.1%	3.1%	20.6%	
Chi2	415.610	200.409	23.425	174.136	132.148	303.920	
Sig	0.000	0.000	0.103	0.000	0.000	0.000	

Table 5

Differences in the use of social media by gender

	TripAdvisor	Facebook	Flickr	YouTube	Twitter	Wikipedia	Total
Woman	8.6%	20.9%	0.9%	11.9%	2.7%	20.9%	48.7%
Man	7.8%	19.5%	1.9%	14.2%	3.6%	20.3%	43.1%
Chi2	1.432	2.217	11.921	8.334	5.386	0.413	
Sig	0.231	0.137	0.001	0.004	0.020	0.520	

Table 6

Differences in the use of social media by age

	TripAdvisor	Facebook	Flickr	YouTube	Twitter	Wikipedia	Total
16-24	7.8%	28.0%	2.4%	19.0%	5.0%	26.7%	47.8%
25-34	12.3%	24.4%	1.9%	13.8%	3.2%	21.1%	48.1%
35-44	8.0%	18.3%	1.2%	11.4%	2.3%	18.0%	45.3%
45-54	7.3%	17.4%	1.1%	11.5%	3.3%	17.5%	44.7%
55-64	6.0%	14.2%	0.5%	10.4%	2.1%	19.6%	43.6%
More than 64	5.6%	10.9%	0.0%	8.3%	1.3%	20.2%	44.7%
Chi2	43.859	121.625	26.352	63.709	28.046	46.067	
Sig	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	

Table 5 summarises significant differences by gender regarding the use of the main digital sources of information consulted when choosing a holiday destination by European travellers. It can be stated that there are no differences regarding the use of social media such as TripAdvisor, Facebook, and Wikipedia. However, there are differences in the rest of the media. The differences in the use of video and photographic content is worth mentioning (YouTube and Flickr), suggesting the need to adapt the content depending on tourists' gender, where men have a more intensive use of them.

The study also revealed significant differences by age in the use of the main digital sources of information when choosing a travel destination (Table 6). Younger generations show a more significant use of all the media, except when it comes to the use of Wikipedia, where figures are similar for all age groups. In terms of photo and video content, however, the difference is even higher in favour of younger tourists.

Regarding the second goal of this study, the analysis consists of the influence of information sources and their effect on loyalty. Thus, the sample used considers all the tourists who are loyal to the destination consideration set. Table 7 shows the intensity of the use of the different sources of information, whether traditional or digital, by each of the main segments being analysed, destination and horizontal loyal. In general, the tour operator's brochures, the Internet and the comments of friends and relatives are the most popular sources of information, with Wikipedia, Facebook, and YouTube being the most common social media among tourists. As it may be observed, the Internet seems to be the

main source used for tourists with a loyal behaviour (BDL and BHL) when choosing a holiday destination, especially the use of Wikipedia, Facebook, and the Web site of the holiday destination itself, among the online options. Tour operator brochures are the most used traditional information source by those two groups. Internet use is also at the forefront if we analyse the sources used by attitudinal loyal tourists (ADL and AHL). Attitudinal loyal tourists show a very intensive use of TripAdvisor, and there is a significant decrease of other sources such as Wikipedia and YouTube. Concerning traditional sources, tour operator brochures are again the most common. This first result shows higher involvement in information searching by attitudinal loyal tourists (both ADL and AHL), but also an important difference in the types of sources, which helps Destination Marketing Organizations (DMOs) better specify the communication strategies according to their objectives.

Despite the popularity of use of the different sources of information, there are significant differences among the sources used by BDL and BHL tourists, showing a higher use made by the latter. This happens with tour operators' brochures, official Web sites of the holiday destination, and information given by friends and relatives. Tourists who are loyal to one-single-destination have already found the holiday destination that meets their needs, and they therefore do not need to look for so much additional information, whereas those who change destinations are willing to search for more information. On the other hand, if the attitudinal element is taken into account (ADL and AHL), it can be seen that there are no significant differences in the use of information sources in order to find information regarding a holiday destination. These results imply the necessity to keep analysing differences between these four segments, within a more complex and overall analysis, in order to determine, in addition to no important differences in the use of information sources among them (no differences were found in the use of social media), to what extent the use of which specific sources actually determines the different loyalty typologies.

Table 7

Information sources and differences in use between behavioural and attitudinal, and destination and horizontal loyal tourists

	BDL%	BHL%	Chi2	Sig	ADL %	AHL%	Chi2	Sig	Total
Tour operator's brochures	24.9	31.3	3.86	**0.049**	43.2	48.3	0.69	0.407	7.1%
Tourist leaflets	13.5	15.0	0.35	0.555	19.8	21.5	0.11	0.737	3.4%
Holiday guide books	12.2	15.8	1.90	0.168	22.2	24.8	0.23	0.631	3.5%
News, articles, reports	16.7	18.5	0.40	0.527	24.7	28.1	0.38	0.538	3.9%
Destination official Web site	15.9	22.9	5.81	**0.016**	30.9	40.5	2.54	0.111	4.9%
Internet, other sources	26.1	28.8	0.76	0.385	44.4	44.7	0.00	0.965	6.8%
Travel agents	13.9	14.1	0.01	0.942	22.2	23.3	0.04	0.842	3.3%
Friends and relatives	19.2	24.9	3.55	**0.060**	33.3	35.6	0.15	0.696	5.9%
None of the above	8.6	6.9	0.79	0.374	3.7	5.4	0.41	0.525	1.9%
TripAdvisor	14.7	15.3	0.05	0.824	71.6	61.3	2.96	0.085	8.2%
Facebook	25.7	23.2	0.64	0.425	21.0	22.1	0.04	0.835	20.2%
Flickr	2.0	1.9	0.02	0.892	1.2	2.4	0.43	0.514	1.4%
YouTube	13.5	13.1	0.03	0.863	4.9	3.3	0.48	0.487	13.1%
Twitter	4.9	4.2	0.16	0.692	6.2	3.6	1.07	0.302	3.1%
Wikipedia	22.9	23.2	0.01	0.911	7.4	7.3	0.02	0.961	20.6%
Others	22.4	18.9	1.59	0.207	18.5	23.9	1.06	0.304	10.8%

Once the first preliminary analysis has taken place regarding the use of sources of information, we will proceed to take a closer look in order to better understand their influence on loyalty, adding other explanatory factors of said behaviour to the sources of information. We have taken four binomial logit regression models with four different estimations: BDL, BHL, ADL, and AHL as dependent variables. As explanatory variables of those models, in addition to the sources of information used, cognitive image, overall image, and affective image variables, as well as socio-demographic variables such as income, age, and motivations to travel were added.

Before conducting the analysis of the considered models, we carried out a factor analysis using the principal components method in order to examine the dimensions of both the

cognitive image and the affective image, and the motivations, aiming to decrease their dimensions and identify determining factors.

Using said factor analysis to analyse the cognitive image of the destination, we identified three dimensions that explain 65.45 percent of the variance. As seen in table 8, the first factor includes six items labelled "Sun, beach and lifestyle". The second factor includes seven items regarding "Tourist leisure and general infrastructures". The third factor has six items related to "Environmental factors".

Table 8

Cognitive image factor analysis

Variables	COGI1	COGI2	COGI3	Cronbach´s alpha
The destination has good beaches	0.794	0.216	0.116	
The destination is exotic	0.788	0.135	0.219	
The destination has good landscapes and scenery	0.722	0.277	0.285	0.876
The destination has a pleasant climate	0.693	0.219	0.148	
The destination has an attractive life style	0.580	0.368	0.455	
The destination is fashionable	0.511	0.423	0.193	
The destination has good nightlife	0.309	0.737	0.137	
The destination is good for shopping	0.215	0.714	0.299	
The destination has a wider range of leisure facilities on offer	0.446	0.680	0.235	
The destination has a wider range of sports on offer	0.422	0.669	0.197	0.902
The destination has a great level of general infrastructure	0.342	0.661	0.322	
The destination is accessible	-0.013	0.655	0.376	
The destination has good hotels, apartments and chalets	0.534	0.588	0.288	
The destination is not crowded	0.341	0.101	0.738	
The destination offers great personal security	0.239	0.361	0.720	
The destination is clean	0.472	0.237	0.694	
The destination has a good environmental situation	0.496	0.213	0.682	0.881
The destination is cheap for holidays	-0.020	0.345	0.627	
The destination offers great political and social stability	0.1596	0.484	0.610	
Cronbach´s alpha				0.945
% Explained variance: 65.448				
KMO: 0.952				
Bartlett: 89645.852				
Significance: 0.000				

Note: COGI1: Sun, beach and lifestyle, COGI2: Tourist leisure and general infrastructures, COGI3: Environmental factors.

With regard to the affective image (Table 9), the factor analysis summarises the variables used in two factors that explain 70.37 percent of the variance. The first factor, which has three items, has been named "Healthy and sustainable lifestyle", whereas the second one has two variables related to the vibrancy of the destination, named "Emotional vibrancy of the destination".

Table 9

Affective image factor analysis

Variables	AFI1	AFI2	Cronbach´s alpha
Sustainable destination	0.86	0.05	
Authentic destination	0.83	0.18	0.738
Healthy destination	0.67	0.30	
Happy destination	0.16	0.90	0.806
Stimulating destination	0.19	0.89	
Cronbach´s alpha			0.760
% Explained variance: 73.420			
KMO: 0.694			
Bartlett: 10417.695			
Significance: 0.000			

Note: AFI1: Healthy and sustainable lifestyle, AFI2: Emotional vibrancy of destination.

In the case of motivations, six factors explain 70.37 percent (Table 10)**.** The first one summarises those variables related to "Rest and relaxation" and it includes four items. The five items related to knowledge are summarised in factor 2, called "Knowledge and culture". The third factor is "Prestige and social exhibitionism" and it has three items. "Sports" is the name of the fourth factor, which consists of three items. There are three items related to "Entertainment", which is the fifth factor. The sixth factor consists of two items related to "Inter-relationships".

Table 10

Motivation factor analysis

Variables	MOT1	MOT2	MOT3	MOT4	MOT5	MOT6	Cronbach´s alpha
To relieve stress and tension	0.847	0.120	0.077	0.101	0.101	0.065	
To rest and relax	0.844	0.019	0.062	0.001	0.175	0.042	
To escape from daily routine	0.844	0.130	0.055	0.031	0.170	0.060	0.825
To enjoy and spend time with family and friends	0.515	0.138	0.240	-0.033	0.213	0.115	
To know different cultures and life styles	0.073	0.870	0.024	-0.045	0.127	0.093	
To broaden my horizons	0.044	0.867	0.068	-0.003	0.109	0.074	
To know new and different places	0.267	0.749	0.039	-0.067	0.274	0.090	0.819
To attend cultural events	0.042	0.624	0.227	0.245	0.080	0.210	
To be in contact with nature	0.253	0.431	-0.108	0.346	-0.014	0.417	
To go to places friends have already visited	0.078	0.097	0.763	0.172	0.071	0.200	
To go to places that are fashionable	0.071	0.008	0.744	0.326	0.104	0.069	
To tell friends about the holiday experience	0.129	0.096	0.733	0.149	0.126	0.267	0.773
To go to comfortable places with good hotels/restaurants	0.466	0.096	0.560	0.017	0.082	-0.075	
To do watersports	0.112	0.023	0.158	0.822	0.142	0.128	
To do recreational activities and sport	0.072	0.041	0.135	0.805	0.213	0.173	0.783
To play golf	-0.126	0.006	0.340	0.714	-0.053	0.028	
To look for adventures and pleasure	0.157	0.217	0.096	0.126	0.836	0.135	
To do exciting things	0.211	0.256	0.086	0.089	0.791	0.088	0.826
To look for entertainment and fun	0.361	0.055	0.168	0.134	0.693	0.150	
To make new friends	0.058	0.178	0.262	0.185	0.165	0.840	
To mix with other people	0.100	0.207	0.239	0.121	0.198	0.834	0.896
Cronbach´s alpha **% Explained variance: 70.372** **KMO: 0.877** **Bartlett: 72078.921** **Significance: 0.000**							0.889

Note: MOT1: Rest and relaxation, MOT 2: Knowledge and culture, MOT3: Prestige and social exhibitionism, MOT4: Sports, MOT5: Entertainment, MOT6: Inter-relationships.

Once the dimensions of the variables to be included in the analysis have been reduced, table 11 summarises the results obtained in the estimation of the four suggested models. The traditional sources of information used by tourists to find information regarding their holiday destination have an influence in the development of tourist loyalty towards those destinations. More specifically, the first regression model determined that tour operators' brochures (0.466), news and articles, (0.780), and travel agents (0.653) have a direct and positive effect on the development of BDL. In addition, the results of the second analysis show that the following variables determine the BHL: the tour operators' brochures (1.165); news, articles, and documentaries (0.950); and travel agents (0.403). The following other sources also have an influence on the development of the BHL but not the BDL: holiday guide books (0.577), official Web sites of the holiday destination (0.925), and friends and relatives (1.015). All of them, as can be observed in table 11, have a direct effect on the BHL. However, it can also be observed in all cases, except travel agents, how the use of the different sources of information has more of an influence on the development of the BHL. This may be due to the fact that this latter type of tourist decides to visit other destinations within the competing set after finding out information using those sources. Nonetheless, those who receive the information through travel agencies have a higher chance of becoming BDL, due to the fact that travel agents possibly are prescribers who have more of a restricted profile focused on specific destinations.

The third and fourth models estimated try to explain loyalty towards one-single-destination and horizontal loyalty, taking into consideration the two main joint components of loyalty: attitude and behaviour. The third model determined that, as happened with BDL, the tour operators' brochures have a positive and direct influence on ADL (0.907); there does not seem to be a relationship with the use of news, articles, and documentaries or travel agents, as was found in the case of behaviour loyal to a destination. However, the use of the official Web site of the destination (1.011) and comments of friends and relatives (1.004) have a positive and direct influence on the development of ADL. It can be confirmed that the official Web site of the destination and comments of friends and relatives play a role in influencing the attitude of people who wish to revisit a destination. Regarding sources of information that have an influence on the development of the AHL, it may be observed that only two of them have an influence on attitude: tour operators' brochures (0.818) and the official Web site of the destination

(0.866). Although all the different sources of information showed an influence in the development of BHL, only two of them affect the affective element of loyalty. It is concluded that a greater overall importance should be given to tour operators' brochures and official Web sites. Additionally, travel agencies are also important when it comes to promoting just further visits to the destinations, not generating attitude, whereas using holiday guide books can develop a change among destinations and BHL.

Table 11

Logit binomial models

		BDL		BHL		ADL		AHL	
	Item	β	e	β	e	β	e	β	e
Social Media	TripAdvisor			0.321	0.141			0.630	0.211
	YouTube			-0.366	0.158	-1.311	0.579		
	Facebook					1.302	0.421		
	Flickr					3.033	1.283		
Traditional Information Sources	Tour operator's brochures	0.466	0.233	1.165	0.15	0.907	0.386	0.818	0.171
	The official Web site			0.925	0.164	1.011	0.445	0.866	0.183
	Friends and relatives			1.015	0.152	1.004	0.410		
	Holiday guide books			0.577	0.197				
	News, articles…	0.780	0.243	0.950	0.181				
	Travel agents	0.653	0.265	0.403	0.202				
Cognitive Image	Sun, beach and lifestyle	-0.27	0.089	-0.224	0.055			0.484	0.092
	General leisure and tourism infrastructure							0.276	0.083
	Environmental factors							0.331	0.078
Affective Image	Emotional vibrancy of destination							-0.270	0.091
	Healthy and sustainable lifestyle			0.102	0.045				
Overall Image	Overall Image	0.215	0.076	0.198	0.047	0.794	0.167		
Demographic	Income	0.007	0.003	0.012	0.002				
	Age	0.120	0.053	0.238	0.033			0.169	0.051
Motivations	Relax			-0.101	0.046	0.437	0.205	0.192	0.085
	Knowledge	-0.211	0.077	-0.143	0.048				
	Prestige and social exhibitionism	0.168	0.079						
	Inter-relationships			-0.098	0.046				

On the other hand, regarding the use of the social media to find information about a travel destination, the suggested models determined that there is no relationship between the use of said media and the development of the BDL. However, a positive and direct relationship between the use of TripAdvisor (0.321) and the development of the BHL and a negative relationship between the use of YouTube (-0.366) and the manifestation of BHL can be observed. Furthermore, although none of the researched social media have an influence on the development of BDL, it was found that the use of Facebook (3.033), Flickr (1.302), and YouTube (-1.311) to find out information about their destination does have an influence on the development of ADL. As happens with BHL, the use of TripAdvisor has a positive influence on AHL (0.63), and the use of YouTube does not seem to show any influence when it comes to this type of loyalty.

The importance of TripAdvisor as a global platform to determine horizontal loyalty can be confirmed, as it allows travellers to share their experiences by publishing their opinions and similar ideas. Allowing users to compare destinations, as well as the large number of users they have, seem to be the factors that explain how it has such an influence on the development of BHL and AHL—forcing the tourists to compare destinations that can be visited in the future—as opposed to YouTube, which offers video content and does not compare destinations but rather focuses on a specific destination search, and in turn, has a negative effect on BHL. Although the relationship between users and brands in YouTube can help an emotional attachment evolve, this is not the case in our study, as YouTube does not seem to have a positive influence when it comes to ADL. Facebook and Flickr, on the other hand, do help develop that positive attitude towards one-single-destination, becoming referent channels to be used by DMOs.

With regard to the rest of variables introduced in the model, we came across the following results. Concerning the cognitive image, the higher the rating by tourists of the attributes related to the sun, beach and lifestyle, the lower the chance of a loyal behaviour to one-single-destination and horizontal loyalty. This could be related to the fact that those cognitive image characteristics are easy to find in other destinations, which makes them easily replaceable. However, the better the ratings given by tourists to this particular characteristic, the higher the chance to develop AHL, which suggests that such positive ratings affect the repetition of the destinations that shared this perception. Other attributes of the cognitive image, such as tourist leisure and general infrastructures, and the

environmental factors also have a positive and direct influence on AHL, being considered a comparative advantage of the competitive set analysed vs. other different destinations.

When referring to the affective image, the higher the ratings of attributes related to a healthy and sustainable lifestyle, the more tourists tend to become BHL, whereas the higher the ratings of a vibrant affective image of the destination, the lower the chances of becoming AHL. Therefore, affective image has an influence on shared visits among destinations, where some shared elements among them, such as sustainability and lifestyle, promote this relationship, whereas other more unique and specific ones of one-single-destination (vibrancy), reduce it. Finally, the overall image, as could be expected, has a direct effect on almost all types of loyalty.

On the other hand, the older the tourist (0.120), the higher the chance of becoming a BDL, and in addition, the same can be confirmed regarding BHL and AHL. This may be explained by the likelihood of visits after having gone on many holidays throughout life, as well as the tendency to become more stable when growing older. Also, the higher the tourists' earning incomes (0.007), the better chance for tourists to show a loyal behaviour, whether that may be to one-single-destination or horizontal loyalty. This could be due to the higher probability of travelling overall, although it is true that this does not seem to lead to a higher attitudinal loyalty.

Furthermore, the motivation of getting to know new and different places, new cultures, and new lifestyles has a negative influence on BDL (−0.211) and BHL (−0.143). In both cases, those motivations reduce the development of loyalty. Tourists who decide to visit a destination following such motivations with one only visit probably satisfy their short- and long-term needs; therefore, the probabilities of returning decrease. However, the estimated value of the parameter is lower than in the case of BHL, which may be understood as the fact that horizontality can provide tourists with a certain degree of getting to know something new, whereas when we are considering competing destinations—and therefore "similar products"—it ends up being a factor that reduces the chance of repeating.

However, the higher the motivation of prestige and social exhibitionism, the higher the chances of becoming a BDL (0.168). Although those tourists have already satisfied their

short-term needs, they have decided that they have already found a destination that meets their needs. Therefore, any time they need to satisfy those needs, they will return to the same destination: "This is the place". In addition, when tourists are looking for a place to relax (−0.101), knowledge (−0.143), or to meet other people (−0.098), they are less likely to become BHL, as it seems that adding visits to similar destinations does not provide added value to those motivations. To sum up, looking for a place to relax does have a positive influence on ADL and AHL, which can be explained by a true achievement of "relaxation" associated with the place visited and the competitive set vs. other types of destinations and holidays, suggesting that there is the need to look deeper into the analysis of experiential loyalty.

5. Conclusion

The results found in this study do not only confirm that tourists have included the Internet and social media as a critical way of searching for information when planning their holidays, but also show the vital importance of these sources in inducing loyalty to destinations at different levels: behavioural and attitudinal loyalty, and towards one-single-destination, or horizontal loyalty. The study explores the differences of the use of online and offline sources of information regarding holiday destinations among the different identified groups of loyal tourists. The results have allowed for marketing managers of destinations to be able to develop better marketing strategies, using conventional communication media as well as social media.

The first general contribution of this paper is to show differences in behaviour when it comes to the use of the several information sources depending on tourists' profiles (nationality and socio-demographic characteristics). More specifically, the study starts by identifying the significant differences in the use of social media consulted by tourists when it comes to choosing a travel destination, depending on their nationality, gender, and age. Therefore, the destination marketing managers, in designing their marketing strategies, must make the most out of this fact and use the most popular media among the target market as a means of promotion, applying both more generic or global sources (i.e., Wikipedia for all age groups, Flickr for all nationalities), and other more specific ones with differences among segments (i.e., YouTube and Flickr, with more emphasis on men). Additionally, this study reveals the possibility of a common pattern in the use of

pictorial content in social media, regardless of the nationality, as opposed to other contents (video). Finally, and as expected, younger generations show a more significant use of all the media, except when it comes to the use of Wikipedia—that seems to be an "all ages" content source.

In addition, the second contribution of the study is proving that there are sources of information that have an influence on the development of loyalty. The use of either type of source of information determines the kind of loyalty tourists develop. There are also significant differences in the use of the different traditional sources of information used by BDL and BHL tourists, but no differences between both groups when it comes to using social media. However, it is not enough to identify the differences between both segments regarding their behaviour when searching for information; it is also necessary to understand whether those sources and media are explanatory factors that induce loyalty. Although there are no significant differences regarding the use of the different social media used by ADL and AHL tourists either, the impact of the different sources of information on loyalty is different. On the other hand, the effect of the perceived image (cognitive, affective, and overall), demographic variables, and motivations has also been known to influence the different types of loyalty.

The results of this study contribute to the existing literature regarding destination marketing, more specifically literature related to information sources, with a special emphasis on digital media and their influence on destination loyalty, given the lack of research within this context. In addition, these results are useful to continue advancing the analysis of brand architecture for destinations that are sharing a series of tourists alternatively. Thus, to manage the AHL appropriately, DMOs can use these analyses in defining the way in which their contents should be structured in each of the information sources, from their own Web site to their presence on TripAdvisor.

Finally, future papers should consider and try to explain other manifestations of loyalty, such as vertical and experiential loyalty. Moreover, other variables should be added in order to help explain loyalty further. It would also be advisable to expand the number of digital sources of information analysed by introducing new platforms. For example, Instagram has become a referent in the photographic content. Furthermore, replicate these analyses with different types of competing destinations in other geographic areas. Finally,

taking the differences found regarding the use of social media depending on the different nationalities into account, a more in-depth analysis should be conducted introducing nationality as a variable that has an influence on the development of the different types of loyalty analysed.

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CHAPTER 4

THE PARADOX OF TOURIST-CULTURAL CONVERGENCE-DIVERGENCE IN EUROPE. SOCIAL MEDIA AND MOTIVATIONS

CHAPTER 4

The Paradox of Tourist-Cultural Convergence-Divergence in Europe. Social Media and Motivations

Abstract:

The globalisation of markets has led destination marketing organisations to question whether their marketing strategies should appeal to cultural convergence or divergence, both in the media to be used and in the content to be communicated. The purpose of this study is to investigate the following phenomena: "cultural-convergence" and "media-convergence". Understanding the relationship between them will serve as a tool for destination marketing organisations in the development of their communication strategies, as they will be able to know what social media to use to best reach each culture and what content to communicate based on the consumers individual motivations. The results of this study, which uses data from 17 European countries, add interesting conclusions to the discussion on cultural divergence in tourism and "marketing-convergence".

Keywords: Cross-cultural, Media Convergence, Content Marketing, Information Sources, Globalisation, Segmentation

1. Introduction

The paradox of cultural convergence-divergence raises a fundamental question in tourism: Are tourists "the same", despite their individual cultures, in terms of use of new sources of information, and according to their motivations? Or, conversely, does the use of new media and the media convergence, in fact, generate greater differences? Some authors have argued that, with globalisation, not only is there greater heterogeneity of consumer attitudes and behaviours within countries, but that at the same time, and in a paradoxical way, social media have, in fact, increased the similarities between different countries (Hofstede, Wedel, & Steenkamp, 2002). There are doubts about the existence of cultural convergence among countries as a result of globalisation (Nelson & Paek, 2007; Zhou & Belk, 2004). Thus, the lack of consensus in this regard implies the need for research, especially in a multicultural sector such as tourism, and in a geographical area as culturally controversial as Europe.

Europe is one of the largest tourism markets (Gursoy & Umbreit, 2004), accounting for half of global tourism (UNWTO, 2016). Despite the identity and homogeneity they receive from belonging to the European continent, each country maintains its own national culture that differs from the rest. There are, therefore, remarkable cultural differences between the different European countries. The unification of the European market, in addition to presenting new business opportunities, invites us to rethink the way in which goods and services have to be promoted in this global market and to consider what is the appropriate way to market Europe. In order to achieve economies of scale, should Europe be treated as a single integrated market? Should destinations promote the same content in all the media appealing to cultural unity, or, on the contrary, should they formulate unique strategies for each of the different European cultures?

Thus, the idea of global marketing as an international strategy, in a growing environment of media convergence, has been difficult to accept. Media convergence is defined as a phenomenon involving the interconnection of information and media content resulting from digitalisation and computer networking (Jenkins, 2004). It brings together communication channels and content, in a new era where media will be everywhere and we will use all kinds of media globally and in relation to each other. Therefore, marketing in global markets requires that destination marketing organisations (DMOs) and

companies acquire a thorough understanding of how the information-seeking process of consumers differs between and within regions, countries and cultures (Gursoy & Chen, 2000; Uysal, McDonald, & Reid, 1990), especially in a new paradigm led by digital communication. In particular, in the context of tourist destinations, it has been argued that they are faced with the challenge of developing more efficient communication strategies that allow them to reach different travellers from Europe (Gursoy & Umbreit, 2004; Korneliussen & Greenacre, 2017). Thus, a fundamental question arises whose understanding would help DMOs in the development of better marketing and communication strategies and that is, in terms of tourism communication, should Europe be understood as a single market, or on the contrary is it a fragmented market? Therefore, should the same tourism communication strategies target all European markets or not? And more specifically, is there a general response to this question, or should the problem be considered in terms of each particular social media, and according to the specific motivations of the tourists (more general motivations shared between countries, or specific for each country)?

The nationality of tourists gives rise to differences in the way they search for information (Gursoy & Chen, 2000; Gursoy & Umbreit, 2004; Korneliussen & Greenacre, 2017), and more specifically in the use of social media consulted to select the travel destination (Almeida & Moreno, 2017). In recent years, the Internet has become the most important information-seeking tool (Buhalis & Law, 2008; Kozak, 2007) and the tremendous growth of social media has changed the paradigm of online communication (Sigala, Christou, & Gretzel, 2012; Xiang & Gretzel, 2010). However, literature has paid little attention to the differences in the use of such social media to choose a travel destination based on the nationality of tourists (Almeida & Moreno, 2017). Providing answers to the questions below would help DMOs better target their online promotion. Should we consider the cultural and social media convergence in tourism communication in social media? And therefore, should the same social media be used in promoting a destination to reach different European countries? Or, on the contrary, should cultural divergence be considered, and if so, are there media whose use differs significantly in intensity for tourism in some countries and would therefore, require different local strategies?

On the other hand, in this analysis of media convergence, it is not only important to know the media used by tourists from different European markets, and to what intensity they use them, but also what content to communicate. The different tourist segments, according to their travel motivations, use various online sources of information to find out about their travel destination (Pesonen, 2015). So, should we appeal to convergence or divergence as regards the content to be published in social media? The answer will largely depend on whether the travel motivations of different countries differ or not (Kozak, 2002). In other words, if the content published for tourist communication purposes should be the same in each of the different social media or, on the contrary, it should be adapted to the travel motivations of tourists depending on cultural differences. Thus, analysing the convergence between nationality, travel motivations, and social media used to search for tourism information would allow DMOs to target the most appropriate markets, with the correct media, and the most efficient marketing content.

In conclusion, this study's main objective is to deepen the knowledge of this paradoxical relation of convergence-divergence between "culture-content-social media" (countries, motivations, sources of information). The results of this study contribute to the debate on cultural convergence and media convergence, and provide a better understanding of the travel behaviour of the European tourist. For its development, data from 17 leading European countries have been used: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom.

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1. The Paradox of Cultural Convergence-Divergence

National culture has often been used as a criterion of segmentation (Budeva & Mullen, 2014; Tkaczynski, Rundle-Thiele, & Beaumont, 2009), and is considered a suitable segmentation basis. This variable has received growing interest in research since Hofstede (1980) and previous studies, as it is one of the most influential factors in shaping individual values and it also affects tourism behaviour (Crots & Erdmann, 2000; Hudson, Wang, & Gil, 2011; Muskat, Muskat, & Richardson, 2014; Thrane & Farstad, 2012). However, published research on how national cultures affect consumer behaviour is still

not sufficiently conclusive (Ko, Lee, Yoon, Kwon, & Mather, 2011). Researchers propose to conduct further segmentation studies following geographical criteria (Min, Martin, & Jung, 2013; Obenour, Lengfelder, & Groves, 2005) given the belief that the transnational, cross-cultural approach to market segmentation can better guide the development, among other aspects, of more efficient marketing strategies (Agarwal, Malhotra, & Bolton, 2010).

The globalisation of markets resulting from the revolution in transport and communication technologies has led sellers to question whether their strategies can be based on the assumption that there are consumers who share consumer and purchasing behaviours in all countries (Ghoshal, 1987; Mattila, 1999; Steenkamp & De Jong, 2010; Wind, 1986). If so, then a standardised marketing strategy could be successfully implemented, optimising, mainly through economies of scale, the attainable benefit of this segment globally (Henzler & Rall, 1986; Steenkamp & De Jong, 2010). The main concern is to determine if it is possible to standardise marketing programmes across different European countries, and if so, to what extent (Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch, & Du Preez, 1995; Gursoy & Umbreit, 2004; Jain & Ryans, 1991; Korneliussen & Greenacre, 2017; Leeflang & Vann Raaij, 1995).

Convergence theory states that, due to factors such as technological progress, global communication, travel and tourism, collaboration between organisations and nations (Hjalager, 2007), increased immigration and marriage between nationalities and ethnic groups, the increase of Internet and information technologies (McLeod, 2004), the world is under pressure to become global and homogenised (Reisinger & Crotts, 2010). Consumers increasingly consume similar global products around the world (De Mooij, 2004), and world tourists identify themselves with indistinguishable products offered by McDonald, Disney World or hotel chains such as Holiday Inn, Hilton or Marriott (Reisinger & Crotts, 2010) and furthermore, they travel to the same destinations. However, the limitation in this process of cultural convergence has been highlighted (Reisinger & Crotts, 2010).

According to Usunier, Lee, and Lee (2005), the adoption of homogenous lifestyles and cultural values in all societies is impossible, and the theory of cultural convergence may not be valid. The concept of cultural divergence maintains that societies keep their unique

set of national values, characteristics and lifestyles in continents, countries and regions (Reisinger & Crotts, 2010). Thus, many aspects of consumer behaviour are linked to the differential culture (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2011; Moreno, Martín, & León, 2012), which is one of the aspects that influence the tourist's decision-making process (Correia, Kozak, & Ferradeira, 2011; Frías, Rodríguez, Castañeda, Sabiote, & Buhalis, 2012; Hsu, Woodside, & Marshall, 2013; Kim & McKercher, 2011; Lam, 2007; Litvin, Crotts, & Hefner, 2004), which makes it important for the development of marketing strategies (Mazanec, Crotts, Gursoy, & Lu, 2015).

In Europe, there is no conclusive evidence of convergent consumer value systems (Reisinger & Crotts, 2010). The European Union (EU) has sought to consolidate a standard image and profile of Europe in terms of tourism. However, there is evidence of divergent consumer behaviour (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2002). Each of the European countries maintains its own national culture with its own defining features, which therefore, makes it different from the rest. Thus, the viability of standardised tourism marketing in Europe has been questioned on the basis of cultural and behavioural differences among European consumers (Boddewyn, 1981; Boddewyn, Soehl, & Picard, 1986; De Mooij, 2003). In this environment characterised by the interrelation of cultural flows (Craig & Douglas, 2006; Piacentini & Cui, 2010), it becomes increasingly important to understand how consumer behaviour is influenced by cultural diversity and multiplicity (Seo & Gao, 2015). Therefore, one of the key questions that this research analysis is whether the communication strategies of tourist destinations could be the same in all European countries, and whether there can be simultaneous convergence and cultural divergence depending on the social media used by tourists. The EU itself (2014) highlights as a major challenge the need to face the "Globalisation of information and rapidly advancing changes in technology (... social media...), which pose difficulties in coping with such fast information technology developments", and how to perform the "marketing and sales promotion through new marketing channels and use of social media" and "reinforcing the interoperability between different platforms" and to coordinate their use.

2.2. Culture and Media Convergence: Social Media

Tourists look for information to help them make better decisions on choosing a travel destination, and they do so through various sources (Ho, Lin, & Chen, 2012) that have been changing over time. The emergence of the Internet and social media has changed the way tourism promotion is disseminated, and dominates how tourists search for information (Xiang & Gretzel, 2010). These new digital media, unlike their traditional predecessors, are born with a global vocation and approach. Therefore, the implications for operators in the tourism sector and destinations are crucial. They should be able to distinguish segments of tourists by their use of different media on the Internet (Pesonen, 2015), to understand how each segment acquires information (Bieger & Laesser, 2004), and to perform better promotion of destinations through the Internet (Jacobsen & Munar, 2012).

Although the impact of culture on the overall consumer decision-making process has been extensively studied, the impact of national culture on travellers' information search behaviour has not been given the same attention (Gursoy & Umbreit, 2004; Hyde, 2007; Kozak, 2007). In particular, and in spite of a generalised behaviour of use of the main social media networks (Facebook, YouTube, etc.), little attention has been paid to the differences among travellers regarding the use of social media specifically for tourism (Amaro, Duarte, & Henriques, 2016).

Previous studies have made interesting contributions, showing that the national culture of tourists influences how they search for information (Uysal et al., 1990; Chen, 2000; Gursoy & Chen, 2000). However, on many occasions, and because of the difficulty of obtaining information from many countries simultaneously, studies are usually confined to comparing only a few countries at the same time, lacking more regional and global representative studies.

On the other hand, the studies that have been able to carry out broad analyses of several countries, and in particular in Europe, have also concluded that the national culture of the travellers influences their search behaviour, with differences by channels (Gursoy & Umbreit, 2004). Recently, Korneliussen & Greenacre (2017) have investigated the sources used by tourists from 27 European countries when making decisions to plan their

holidays and they reveal differences in how they use them. However, these studies have not been able to analyse the use of social media as a source of tourist information. For example, Chen (2000), Chen and Gursoy (2000) and Gursoy and Chen (2000) do not contemplate the use of the Internet, given the recent appearance of this channel, or they do it in an aggregate form – "Internet" (Gursoy & Umbreit, 2004). Even in recent studies (Korneliussen & Greenacre, 2017), based on available secondary information, they refer to the Internet in general, without addressing different social media. Therefore, it is necessary to try to better understand this phenomenon, as explaining the differences that exist in the use of media by European travellers, will help the development of better marketing strategies. The question arises of analysing the extent to which the media convergence occurs in social media and its relation to cultural convergence. A further question is the relation of these elements to the content to be communicated (content convergence) depending on the motivations of the tourists.

2.3. Culture and Media Convergence: Motivations and Content

When tourists make the decision to travel for pleasure, they do so for different reasons (Beerli & Martín, 2004) that are critical to understanding travel behaviour (Fodness, 1994; Moreno & Martín, 2013). These motivations can be classified into push and pull factors (Crompton, 1979). According to Dann (1977), internal motives (push) are linked to the wishes of tourists and include the desire to escape, rest, and achieve prestige, adventure and social interaction. However, pull factors are related to the attractiveness of a destination and its resources. The push factors largely dictate the search behaviour of tourist information and the specific content they demand (Pesonen, 2015). In addition, these push motivations may differ by cultures (Kim & Lee, 2000; Kozak, 2002).

In current tourism literature, a large number of studies use motivations as a criterion of market segmentation (Bieger & Laesser, 2002; Cha, McCleary, & Uysal, 1995; Chen, Bao, & Huang, 2014; Kanagaraj & Bindu, 2013; Madrigal & Kahle, 1994; Mohammed & Som, 2010; Park & Yoon, 2009; Ryan & Glendon, 1998; Sung, Chang, & Sung, 2016; Uysal, McGehee, & Loker-Murphy, 1996), and it has been argued that this is one of the most effective methods (Crompton, 1979, Park & Yoon, 2009, Schewe, 1990). Past research has shown that heterogeneous groups of tourists can be easily categorised by

these motivational factors (Awaritefe, 2003, 2004, Keng & Cheng, 1999; Poria, Butler, & Airey, 2004).

Applying motivations as criterion of segmentation is based on general and universal categories, which group together and homogenise tourists (e.g., rest, social interaction). The assumption that consumer motivations are universal is critical to making decisions on standardisation. However, paradoxically it has been shown that motivations are linked to culture (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2011) and the importance of each will vary according to the same (De Mooij, 2004, 2010). Previous studies of differences between cultures have confirmed that travellers of different nationalities have different travel motivations (Kim & Lee, 2000; Kozak, 2002; Reisinger & Turner, 1997; Seddighi, Nuttall, & Theocharous, 2001; Yuan & McDonald, 1990). For example, Kozak (2002) found a number of differences between the motivations of German and British tourists visiting Turkey and Mallorca.

Previous literature on motivations attending to cross-cultural differences and the use of information sources, does not pay attention to different social media, given their recent appearance, or only refers to the use of PC/Internet (Kim & Prideaux, 2005). On the other hand, recent studies like Peasonen and Tuohino (2015), compare the use of diverse Web sites (affiliate Web sites, travel agents' Web sites, destination Web sites, search engines, DMOs Web sites, portals, newspaper and magazine Web sites, discussion boards/blogs, social media), among different motivational clusters, however, they do not attend to the nationality of tourists, but instead focus on a single nationality (Finnish tourists), and fail to differentiate between different forms of social media. Thus, further understanding of the different motivations of consumers is important for positioning brands in different markets (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2011).

In conclusion, previous literature has not paid special attention to the relationship between cultural convergence and media convergence (culture-content-social media). Thus, the contribution of this study resides in a better understanding of the relationship between the countries of origin of the tourists, the intensity of use of different sources of information and their travel motivations. This can help the marketing managers of tourist destinations to decide upon the content to communicate in different countries using different media.

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3. Methodology

In order to achieve the proposed objectives, specific fieldwork was carried out, which was developed as a continuation of the bibliographic review, and where the nationality of the respondents was used to determine their culture.

3.1. Population

Europe remains the largest outbound region in the world, a territory that generates more than half of all international arrivals, 51% in 2015 (UNWTO, 2016). Therefore, the target population of this study were tourists over 16 years of age and of both genders, from the 17 main European tourist outbound countries: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom.

3.2. Sample selection

The work was done through a Computer-assisted web interviewing (CAWI) on the Internet to a representative sample of the 17 countries mentioned, from a database of panellists in each country, and a random selection of the same was made on one hand, based on the variables of stratification of the geographical area and province and, on the other, the criteria of gender and age, in order to guarantee the representativeness of the sample with the population of each country. The defined sample was 8,500 tourists (500 in each country) and the actual sample was of 6,964 tourists, between 400 and 459 tourists per country (Table 1), representing a sampling error of less than 5% for a confidence level of 95.5% (p = q).

Table 1

Distribution of sample by country

		Total Tourists
Nationality	Germany	423
	Austria	403
	Belgium	404
	Denmark	405
	Spain	406
	Finland	411
	France	402
	The Netherlands	403
	Ireland	403
	Italy	402
	Norway	400
	Poland	402
	Portugal	459
	Russia	405
	Sweden	431
	Switzerland	400
	UK	405
	Total	6,964

3.3. Quality Control

Once the questionnaire was pre-tested in the tourist's own language (back translation), with the difficulty of working with 13 languages, plus certain country-specific adaptations, corrections were made to those questions which were in some cases, difficult to understand because of their expression, and the interviews were then conducted. After the relevant programming, the online system itself, reviewed all the interviews conducted, detecting the time that a respondent had been able to take to complete a survey. Any survey, which had been answered in less than five minutes, was not accepted as valid.

3.4. Measuring Scales

As long as the participants had made a trip during the last two years, they were asked about their use of social media usually consulted to find out about the destination. Specifically, individuals were asked to indicate what social media they had used from

multi-response options: TripAdvisor, Facebook, Flickr, YouTube, Twitter and Wikipedia, as these are the main sources used in the literature to date (Escobar, Grávalos, & Pérez, 2017; Fang, Kamei, & Fujita, 2015; Hennig-Thurau, Wiertz, & Feldhaus, 2015; Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010; Stepchenkova & Zhan, 2013; Xiang, Wang, O'Leary, & Fesenmaier, 2015). Furthermore, and given the importance of the tour operators and travel agencies as sources of information in the European market (Koutoulas, Tsartas, Papatheodorou, & Prountzou, 2009), both physically and online, these sources were also included. Finally, tourists' travel motivations were obtained through a closed question, using the Fodness scale (1994) (Table 5), with a numerical scale of 1 to 7, with 1 being the minimum value and 7 being the maximum.

3.5. Analysis of the Data

After completing the fieldwork, the analyses were carried out with the latest version of the SPSS statistical analysis programme. First, a correspondence analysis (CA) was performed to identify similarities and differences in tourist information search patterns (media convergence). The method used, given the nature of the variables (categorical variables) is the Homals or multiple correspondence analysis (MCA) (Benzécri, 1963, 1992). The results obtained through this method are equivalent to those obtained through other methods such as Principals and Overals (Visauta, 1998).

In the analysis of previous studies on differences in the use of information sources used by tourists to choose destinations, the use of dichotomous criteria has predominated: whether tourists use certain sources of information or not (Chen & Gursoy, 2000; Gursoy & Chen, 2000; Gursoy & Umbreit, 2004). However, the present study has considered the intensity of the use given to each source and for each culture. Thus, in this study the variables that refer to the sources of information used have been recoded according to the number of tourists that use them. For each of the sources of information the following categories were established according to the quartiles: "Rarely", "Occasionally", "Sometimes" and "Frequently".

Next, a cluster analysis was used to classify tourists according to the different dimensions found in the MCA. The Ward method was employed using the K-media analysis. In addition, multivariate statistics were used to examine the statistical differences between

clusters. The advantage of this analysis is the joint interpretation of the culture and the social media used, according to the objective pursued.

Additionally, a factor analysis of the motivations was carried out using the principal component method with Varimax rotation in order to reduce their dimensions. Given the quantitative nature of the scale used, factor analysis is the appropriate statistical procedure for summarising information and finding possible underlying relationships between different motivations. Finally, once again, a cluster analysis was performed to group the individuals according to the factors found in the previous factor analysis. This analysis allowed the identification of motivational differences by culture.

Finally, once the nationalities were classified both in terms of social media and motivations, the relationship between social media and motivations preferred by countries was revealed.

4. Results

4.1. Social Media Use by Country. Multiple Correspondence Analysis

In order to meet the first objective of the research, a MCA was used to reveal similarities and differences in patterns of use of information sources and social media among European travellers based on their culture. The MCA offers a two-dimensional solution that explains 56.27% of the variance in the first dimension and 47.11% in the second dimension.

The main coordinates of the external sources of information (traditional and new) derived from the MCA (Table 2) are drawn in a two-dimensional solution in figure 1. The diagrams are combined in a joint graph through a canonical normalisation procedure. The contribution to the inertia of each source of external information and the explained variance of each dimension (Table 2) indicate that the first dimension is defined by Facebook, YouTube, Wikipedia and tour operators' brochures, with Wikipedia and YouTube having the most explanatory power. The second dimension is defined by TripAdvisor, Twitter and travel agency staff, the latter being the source explaining most of the variance.

Table 2

Multiple correspondence analysis

	Coordinates		Explained by dimension		
	I	**II**	**I**	**II**	**Total**
TripAdvisor			0.445	**0.573**	0.509
Rarely	-0.345	0.693			
Occasionally	0.537	-0.421			
Sometimes	0.939	-0.199			
Frequently	-1.179	-1.609			
Facebook			**0.760**	0.548	0.654
Rarely	-0.827	0.891			
Occasionally	-0.968	-1.050			
Sometimes	0.354	-0.682			
Frequently	1.261	0.084			
YouTube			**0.830**	0.433	0.631
Rarely	-1.099	0.700			
Occasionally	-0.253	-0.792			
Sometimes	1.107	-0.061			
Frequently	1.170	0.777			
Twitter			0.093	**0.165**	0.129
Rarely	-0.065	0.408			
Occasionally	0.302	-0.475			
Sometimes	-0.555	0.140			
Frequently					
Wikipedia			**0.856**	0.639	0.748
Rarely	-1.076	0.695			
Occasionally	-0.362	-1.595			
Sometimes	0.670	-0.109			
Frequently	1.170	0.283			
Tour Operators			**0.738**	0.314	0.526
Rarely	1.306	0.571			
Occasionally	-0.438	0.418			
Sometimes	-1.201	-0.796			
Frequently	0.684	-0.559			
Travel Agencies			0.218	**0.625**	0.421
Rarely	0.629	0.714			
Occasionally	-0.290	0.161			
Sometimes	-0.433	-1.371			
Frequently					

The joint visualisation (Figure 1) reveals by proximity, the tourists that have similar external information search profiles (located near each other in the graph) and that therefore constitute homogenous market segments. In addition, a cluster analysis was

used to classify the intensity of use of the different sources of information according to the dimensions found in the MCA. The results of the cluster analysis indicate that a three-group solution is appropriate (Table 3). Specifically, the results of the ANOVA analysis confirm that the two dimensions contribute to differentiate the three clusters ($p < 0.001$).
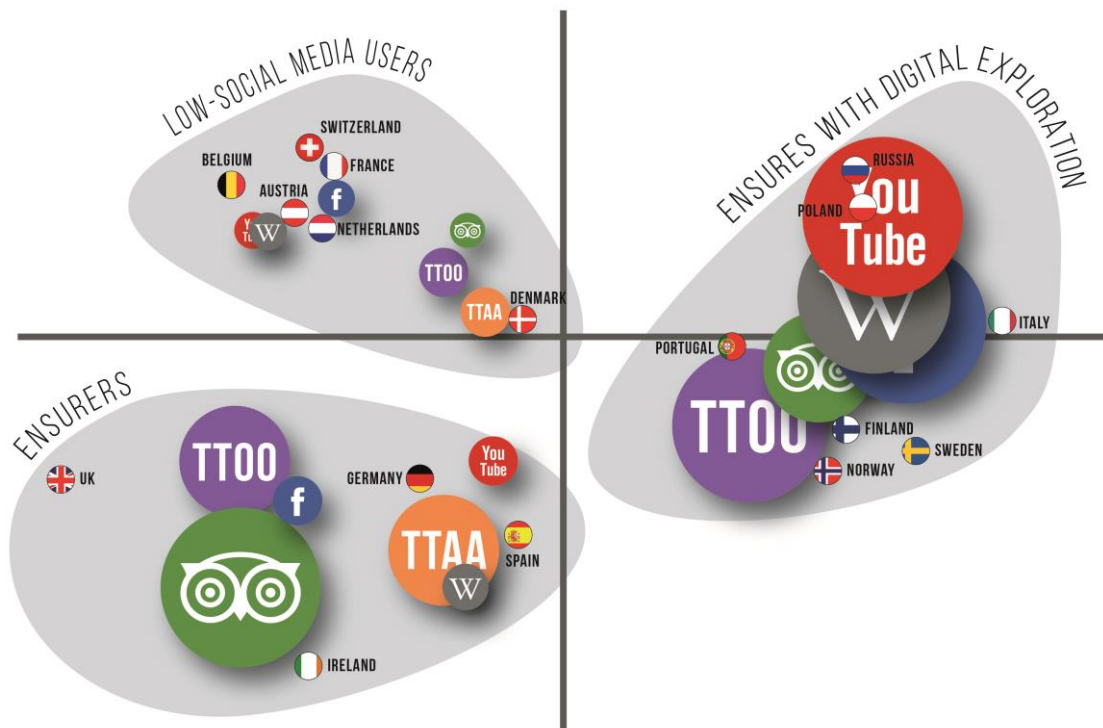
Table 3

Cluster analysis. Social Media

	Cluster I	Cluster II	Cluster III
Cluster name	**Ensurers**	**Ensurers with digital exploration**	**Low-social media users**
Dimension 1	-0.70	1.58	-1.05
Dimension 2	-2.22	0.16	1.20
Total	1,637	2,910	2,417

Thus, 3 groups of tourists are identified according to their use of information sources. Group 1 (n = 1,637) is made up of tourists who frequently use TripAdvisor, as well as the tour operators' brochures and travel agency staff. They consult sources like Wikipedia, Facebook or YouTube only occasionally. This group was labelled "Ensurers" as they try to make the right decision through recommendations suggested by experts and other users, in addition to the safety of the tour operator. Group 2 (n = 2,910) is also characterised by the extensive use they make of tour operators' brochures, YouTube, Wikipedia, and Facebook as well as Tripadvisor. This group was labelled "Ensurers with digital exploration", as, unlike the previous group, they also use the main social media frequently. Lastly, tourists from group 3 (n = 2,417) "Low-social media users" are tourists who do not often use social media, and only occasionally refer to travel agency staff and tour operators' brochures. These results reveal the existence of a "media divergence" among European travellers. But what differences exist in view of the cultural criterion in terms of the intensity of use of the media to find out about their travel destination?

Figure 1

Multiple correspondence analysis of use of social media by country

Once the different groups of tourists were segmented based on the information sources they use, a cross-table was taken, to see how the nationalities are distributed in the different clusters (Table 4). Members of Cluster 1 "Ensurers" are tourists from Germany, Spain, Ireland and the United Kingdom. The members of Cluster 2 "Ensurers with digital exploration" come from Finland, Italy, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Russia and Sweden. Finally, the tourists of cluster 3 "Low-social media users" are from Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, the Netherlands and Switzerland.

Table 4

Social media use by country

Cluster name	Cluster I Ensurers	Cluster II Ensurers with digital exploration	Cluster III Low-social media users
Germany	423	0	0
Austria	0	0	403
Belgium	0	0	404
Denmark	0	0	405
Spain	406	0	0
Finland	0	411	0
France	0	0	402
The Netherlands	0	0	403
Ireland	403	0	0
Italy	0	402	0
Norway	0	400	0
Poland	0	402	0
Portugal	0	459	0
Russia	0	405	0
Sweden	0	431	0
Switzerland	0	0	400
UK	405	0	0
Total	1,637	2,910	2,417

Figure 1 shows the distribution of countries according to the sources used. The results found help the marketing managers of tourist destinations to cope with the "media-cultural convergence-divergence" that occurs simultaneously, as it can be seen, some European countries share the intensity of the use of media, even when they have seemingly different cultures. Thus, it is possible to target them using the same medium, although this is not true for all countries. These results are useful for DMOs when selecting, more efficiently, the media through which they will promote their destination in each market, thus making their limited resources more profitable.

On the other hand, and to fulfil the second objective of this research, it is not only interesting to identify which countries use each of the sources of information and to what intensity, but also to know the motivations of each of the nationalities when choosing a holiday destination, in order to decide upon the most effective marketing message for each of them.

4.2. Motivations by Country. Correspondence Factor Analysis

A factor analysis was used to summarise the set of variables related to motivations and to find the underlying relations. In order to carry out the factor analysis, 21 items were used (Fodness scale, 1994). Table 5 shows the results of the items that reached a loading factor greater than 0.8. Finally, four motivational factors are extracted from the factor analysis. The first factor was labelled "Rest and Relaxation", the second factor as "Knowledge and Culture", the third as "Adventures and Pleasure" and the fourth factor as "Socialising". All factors have a high level of reliability, Cronbach's alpha> 0.8. These results are in line with those found in previous studies (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Chen et al., 2014).

Table 5

Motivations factor analysis

Motivation Items	Factor loadings				Cronbach´s alpha	Communalities
	MOT 1	MOT 2	MOT 3	MOT 4		
MOT1: Rest and Relaxation					0.873	
To escape from daily routine	0.908					0.824
To relieve stress and tension	0.901					0.812
To rest and relax	0.870					0.757
MOT2: Knowledge and Culture					0.856	
To know different cultures and life styles		0.902				0.814
To broaden my horizons		0.885				0.784
To know new and different places		0.856				0.734
MOT3: Adventures and Pleasure					0.823	
To look for adventures and pleasure			0.897			0.805
To do exciting things			0.868			0.754
To look for entertainment and fun			0.818			0.669
MOT4: Socialising					0.896	
To mix with other people				0.952		0.906
To make new friends				0.952		0.906
% Explained variance:	79.75	77.72	74.28	90.59		
KMO:	0.73	0.72	0.70	0.65		
Bartlett:	3	3	3	1		
Significance:	0	0	0	0		

Based on the factors found, a cluster analysis was performed. The objective was to classify individuals into different groups according to their motivations. There are 3 different clusters (Table 6). Among the possible different solutions, the grouping into 3

clusters was chosen as the easiest to interpret and the most significant. The results of the ANOVA analysis confirm that the four factors contribute to differentiate the three clusters (p <0.001). Cluster 1 (n = 2,131) is formed by those tourists who seek rest and relaxation but combined with adventures and pleasure, so this cluster has been labelled as "Rest and Adventures". Cluster 2 (n = 2,549) is made up of those tourists who, in addition to seeking adventure and pleasure, also want to socialise, so this cluster has been called "Adventures and Socialising". Finally, Cluster 3 (n = 2,282) is formed by those tourists who seek rest and relaxation combined with knowledge and culture. This last cluster has been labelled "Rest with Knowledge".

Table 6

Cluster Analysis. Motivations

	Cluster I	Cluster II	Cluster III	F	Sig.
Cluster name	Rest and Adventures	Adventures and Socialising	Rest with Knowledge		
Rest y Relaxation	4.14	1.83	3.28	3260.548	0.000
Knowledge and Culture	3.06	2.79	3.18	47.153	0.000
Adventures and Pleasure	4.16	3.40	1.48	5490.965	0.000
Socialising	2.89	3.40	2.58	233.405	0.000

Table 7 presents the distribution of countries in the different motivational clusters found. For example, the Austrian, Swiss and Irish tourists (the latter with a greater share between all the motivations) travel in search of rest and adventure as their main motivations. Meanwhile, most Danes, Norwegians, Italians, Russians, Finns, Spaniards, Swedes, Britons and Portuguese seek adventures and socialising with other people. In addition, almost half of the German, Belgian and Polish tourists of the sample, as well as a large group of Dutch and French, have as their main motivations rest with knowledge. These results confirm the simultaneous existence of a "cultural convergence-divergence" based on the media convergence and its content. As can be seen in table 7, some European countries can be addressed using the same marketing message, but this is not however, true for all of them.
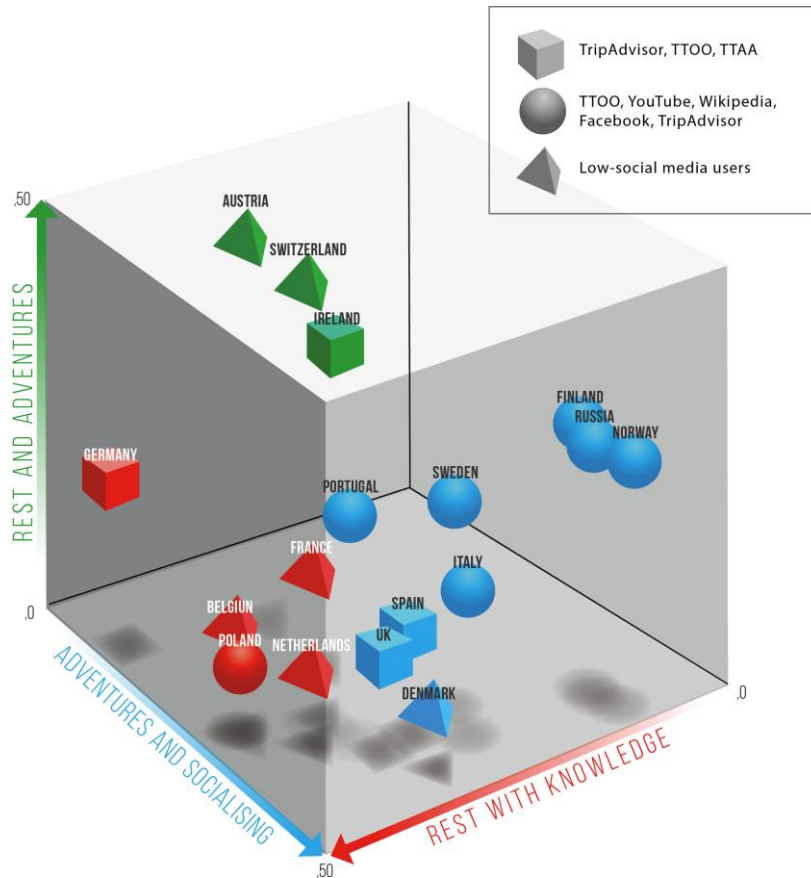
Table 7

Motivations by country

	Cluster I	Cluster II	Cluster III
	Rest and Adventures	**Adventures and Socialising**	**Rest with Knowledge**
Germany	31.20%	23.40%	**45.40%**
Austria	**46.20%**	22.10%	31.80%
Belgium	22.00%	32.70%	**45.30%**
Denmark	18.80%	**50.10%**	31.10%
Spain	29.10%	**40.60%**	30.30%
Finland	37.20%	**42.10%**	20.70%
France	29.10%	35.30%	**35.60%**
The Netherlands	21.80%	38.50%	**39.70%**
Ireland	**37.00%**	31.00%	32.00%
Italy	26.40%	**44.30%**	29.40%
Norway	32.50%	**48.80%**	18.80%
Poland	21.90%	33.60%	**44.50%**
Portugal	30.10%	**35.10%**	34.90%
Russia	35.60%	**44.00%**	20.50%
Sweden	31.60%	**38.70%**	29.70%
Switzerland	**41.50%**	25.50%	33.00%
UK	28.40%	**37.00%**	34.60%
Total	30.60%	36.60%	32.80%

4.3. A Global Vision

Figure 2 shows an overall summary of the results found in this study. It provides information on what sources should be considered to promote tourist destinations in different European markets and likewise, what a more efficient content marketing should be, based on the main motivations of each one.

Figure 2

Summary results

	REST AND ADVENTURES	ADVENTURES AND SOCIALISING	REST WITH KNOWLEDGE
GERMANY	31.20%	23.40%	45.40%
AUSTRIA	46.20%	22.10%	31.80%
BELGIUM	22.00%	32.70%	45.30%
DENMARK	18.80%	50.10%	31.10%
SPAIN	29.10%	40.60%	30.30%
FINLAND	37.20%	42.10%	20.70%
FRANCE	29.10%	35.30%	35.60%
NETHERLANDS	21.80%	38.50%	39.70%
IRELAND	37.00%	31.00%	32.00%
ITALY	26.40%	44.30%	29.40%
NORWAY	32.50%	48.80%	18.80%
POLAND	21.90%	33.60%	44.50%
PORTUGAL	30.10%	35.10%	34.90%
RUSSIA	35.60%	44.00%	20.50%
SWEDEN	31.60%	38.70%	29.70%
SWITZERLAND	41.50%	25.50%	33.00%
UK	28.40%	37.00%	34.60%
MEAN	30.60%	36.60%	32.80%

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5. Discussion and Conclusion

The purpose of this article was to deepen the knowledge of the cultural convergence and the media convergence based on social media and the holiday motivations of the European tourists. Data from 17 countries were used to meet the objectives of this research. The present study contributes to the literature in the debate on cultural convergence / divergence (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2002; Levitt, 1993), where little attention has been paid to the paradoxical relation of convergence-divergence between "culture-content-media". Thus, this study contributes both to literature on information sources, with a special focus on social media, and to literature on motivations, in both cases in relation to the national culture of tourists.

In terms of cultural convergence and media convergence, the results indicate the limitation in the process of cultural convergence, which cannot be confirmed for all European countries, as there are differences between cultures. However, this convergence can be observed among several groups of countries. The analysis of the behaviour when searching for information of travellers from Europe indicates that the national culture is a variable that influences the sources used, and this is also true of social media. The results are consistent with previous literature (Bloch, Sherrell, & Ridgway, 1986; Chen & Gursoy, 2000; Fodness & Murray, 1998; Gursoy & Chen, 2000; Gursoy & Umbreit, 2004; Vogt & Fesenmaier, 1998). These results allow us to confirm the impossibility of treating Europe as a single market in terms of tourist communication due to "media-divergence". In the light of the results, Europe should be considered a fragmented market in terms of the different social media used to find out about travel destinations.

However, there is also a grouping together of cultures (countries) in three segments, depending on the intensity of use of social media. This grouping does not respond to apparent cultural similarities: A first group with Germany, Spain, Ireland and the United Kingdom try to make the right decision based on recommendations made by experts (tour operators and travel agencies), and by other users (TripAdvisor). A second group that unites Finland, Italy, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Russia and Sweden is called "Ensurers with digital exploration", since, unlike the previous group, and in addition to the search for recommendations, they also use some social media extensively (YouTube, Wikipedia and Facebook) and a final group with Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, the

Netherlands and Switzerland, called "low-social media users", who do not make much use of social media in their travel decisions. The grouping together of these countries responds directly to a process of media convergence, that again is not homogeneous across all cultures, but if shared in these three blocks, and with some specific sources present widely in a large number of markets (convergence), creating their own "tribe" and global culture on the internet.

Thus, media convergence goes beyond the technological shift. Convergence alters the relationship between existing social media, traditional media, and cultures. It imposes a shift in cultural and media use, with some specific media gaining greater influence. These results reveal the importance of understanding media convergence as involving more than the simple adoption of a new medium. It rather means a complex media engagement that directly impacts the different cultures and how they interact with these media platforms, which, in turn, were born in a global world and with a global strategy. Further research is needed to overcome this overwhelming challenge and better understand how the tourism industry should deal with social media and media convergence in a dynamic global world, where "global service industry" (tourism and hospitality) in fact, sounds like a paradoxical term, as global suggests a uniform standard. However, successful service often requires customised adaptation to each culture and unique expectations (Martin, Rosenbaum, & Ham, 2015).

As for the second question raised on cultural convergence, and media convergence depending on the different contents, and whether or not the marketing message can be the same for all markets, again the paradox is repeated on whether to appeal to convergence or the divergence in the content to be used. On one hand, there are differences in the motivations of tourists based on their nationality; so therefore, the content to be communicated through social media should be different depending on the market to which it is directed. The study identifies 3 different clusters: "Rest with Knowledge", "Rest and Adventures", "Adventures and Socialising", with three different blocks of European countries. On the other hand, these blocks show internal convergence.

Specifically, there is a first block (Austrians, Irish and Swiss) where the content linked to the motivations of "rest and adventure" prevails. A second group (Danish, Spaniards, Finns, Italians, Norwegians, Portuguese, Russians, Swedes and Britons) where the

contents allusive to the motivations of "adventures and socialising with other people" prevail, and a last block (German, Belgian, French, Dutch and Polish) more related to "rest with knowledge".

A first aspect to emphasise is that the "cultural" blocks formed according to the motivations, although with some similarities, differ from those formed according to the means used, which confirms the complex process of convergence-divergence that we face.

Secondly, what is particularly interesting about the Internet is how content is used, produced, and reproduced across the networked digital media landscape. This enables the creation of new forms of participatory media culture enabled by media convergence (Jenkins, 2004, 2008). For Jenkins, convergence is more than a media channel phenomenon; it involves an altering of relationships around media practices such as production and consumption that ultimately opens doors for new forms of cultural participation. Tourism Internet content thus passes through significant changes, as the Internet content moved from a country-specific focus to one increasingly shaped by peer-to-peer networks. These networks are multi-national and can generate their own content and their "own culture".

Regarding managerial implications, these results can be used to design marketing strategies that attract tourists belonging to the segments selected in response to the identified convergence-divergence. This could be achieved by emphasising the presence in the social media that have more intensity of use by the selected segments, generating "global" actions for the different specific channels, taking into account the differences in use according to the identified country blocks.

On the other hand, the results are of interest to destination marketing managers who have a tool to design the message to be communicated in each of the different blocks of countries, taking into account shared generic motivations. More specifically, adapting the contents to each of the social media and to the communities identified by country blocks.

Destinations trying to attract European tourists could consider these results to design their marketing strategy to Europe as a market. On the other hand, European policies trying to

keep Europeans within Europe during their holidays should foster transnational initiatives in co-operation with the Member States, giving visibility particularly to European products involving cultural heritage that can be promoted (content and media selection) according to the different country-groups identified. Besides, Europe has to be perceived as a set of unique and highly differentiated destinations, and at the same time, as a common united brand. Many on-going factors are adding pressure to the common brand to fail, but after all, as George Carlin once said, "if you try to fail, and succeed, which have you done?"

The combination of the results of this study allows a better knowledge of the paradoxical relationship "country-information sources-motivations". This has important implications for improving the competitiveness of destinations. The triangular culture-social media-content model we discuss helps to understand the characteristics of contemporary on-going media convergence. This media convergence phenomenon is a direct consequence of the digitalisation of media content, and it refers to a process, but not an endpoint.

Among the limitations of this study, and future research areas to be covered, is the difficulty of separating cultural differences within each particular country, which means not assuming that each country is a homogenous culture. It is worth highlighting the possibility of further investigating whether the convergence-divergence determined is only explained by cultural differences, or if it is also affected by other related normalisation criteria, such as economic factors, climatic differences, etc. Research could also be carried out on the incorporation of other digital information sources of recent high growth (e.g., Instagram, etc.) and the incorporation of other variables, apart from motivations, that influence what content is considered appropriate for publishing (e.g., values and psychological profiles of tourists). Finally, another line of research could focus on the specific content to be generated and disseminated depending on the language differences in Europe, and the consequences they imply.

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CONCLUSION

More and more destinations around the world formulate active policies in tourism, making it a key sector for socio-economic progress. Many emerging destinations have started to join the traditional ones. The opening up of these new destinations, in a context of increasing globalisation, has led to an intensification of competition in the tourism sector, in general, and in particular between destinations (Mariani & Baggio, 2012). In addition, important changes in recent years in relation to social media have re-shaped the world tourism market. These factors, among others, have highlighted the need for destinations to adapt their marketing programmes to this new scenario (Uşaklı, Koç, & Sönmez, 2017). All this requires studying what new strategies should be developed to help destinations boost their competitiveness, especially island destinations, not only because of the importance of tourism for them but also because of the significant role islands play in the tourism sector.

Among other things, it is undoubtedly essential to understand the starting position of the islands in the tourist market, and how they jointly manage their co-opetence relationship and brand architecture, as well as their promotion towards the different countries of origin and mainland markets of its tourists.

On the other hand, in a context in which tourist destinations need to develop strategies that allow them to achieve competitive advantages, the concept of loyalty also becomes very relevant. Although there is a long tradition of studies that focus on this phenomenon, it has always been approached from a very homogeneous perspective without considering alternative expressions of loyalty such as horizontal loyalty (HL). Thus, understanding the factors that affect the development of HL would help contribute to improving destination marketing strategies, tourist loyalty levels and ultimately the competitiveness of destinations. In addition, it is fundamental to analyse the key role played by social media as a competitive strategy in this new globalised market scenario, where different cultures can show an increasingly homogeneous behaviour (cultural convergence) due to such media convergence, or indeed quite the opposite.

The present thesis, structured in four related essays, presents a greater understanding of "island tourism" and contributes to literature on island destinations by offering a new methodology for analysing co-operation between islands through brand management. It

is also the first empirical application of HL to tourist destinations and in particular to island destinations. Furthermore, the results found contribute to destination marketing literature, and specifically to literature on information sources and digital media and how they relate to the development of loyalty, given the lack of research in this context. In the same way, the results contribute to the debate on cultural and media convergence, providing a better understanding of the European tourist's travel behaviour and covering the existing gap in literature on the relationship between the culture of tourists, information sources used to research their travel destination and also the content to be communicated in the different channels depending on tourist motivations.

This study represents a scientific advance in the field of tourism marketing, since it analyses the questions raised in order to help destination marketing organisations (DMOs) in the development of strategies that allow them to improve the competitiveness of their destinations.

In order to address the above mentioned issues, a specific fieldwork was carried out in which 6,964 questionnaires were obtained from tourists from the 17 main European countries that send tourists to the Canary Islands. This destination was chosen, besides being convenient, because of the importance of tourism for the islands.

The most relevant conclusions of each of the essays that form part of this doctoral thesis, as well as the main implications and overall recommendations of the study are featured below.

The first chapter highlights the importance of islands in the tourist market (32.1% of destinations chosen by European tourists to spend their holidays in the last three years were island destinations) and their complementarity (the visit to some islands influences the visit to others). Furthermore, the results confirmed that islands are the preferred destination of 16.4% of tourists, and considered an idyllic travel destination for 17.9% European tourists, which emphasises the islands' role as "dream destinations" for continental tourists. If we consider island tourism as a specific category of tourism, it is clear that island destinations are part of a large network connected through demand. Island managers should pay more attention to how tourists from the continent relate to these island destinations in order to achieve synergies in their marketing strategies.

In addition, this first chapter demonstrates that proper management of the brand architecture and co-operation between the islands could be a win-win strategy for those that form part of the relationship, but they have to understand in advance which islands they should co-operate with within the different markets. This study proposes, based on the study of the demand, the establishment of island networks but from a supply perspective in order to improve promotion.

In the specific case analysed, the Canary Islands, as an archipelago, as well as using its country brand (Spain), also features a complex relationship of complementarity and competition (co-opetence) with other archipelagos and geographically distant islands: Balearic Islands, Greek islands, Cyprus, Caribbean Islands. On the other hand, each of the individual islands within the Canarian archipelago has a complementary relationship with other islands, both within the archipelago itself (e.g. Lanzarote with Fuerteventura) and with other islands (e.g. Gran Canaria with Cape Verde). This gives rise to different possibilities of designing brand architecture and the development of joint promotional actions. In addition, complementarity combinations between islands differ by outbound markets, suggesting different possibilities for sub-brands and groupings (e.g., Gran Canaria is complementary with La Gomera in the German and Swiss markets, whereas this relationship is negative and competitive for the Norwegian market, and for the remaining markets there is no correlation).

This chapter outlines the recommendation that the islands efficiently manage this co-opetence to obtain competitive advantages. For example, islands can take into account their relationships with others to work on a coordinated presence at tourist fairs with islands that are part of the same network, and to decide how they should appear in tour operators' brochures, tourist guides or travel guides, as well as other information sources consulted by tourists when deciding where to travel. In the same way, island destinations could carry out promotional strategies at the airports of other islands, including bilateral agreements, in order to attract tourists who, visit those destinations in the future, and to promote horizontal loyalty, in the awareness that many tourists have a tendency to search for something new.

This first study represents an advance in the knowledge on "island tourism" and contributes to existing literature by helping develop a theory of co-opetition between islands through the proposal of a new way of analysing the same through the brand.

Given the importance of developing tourism loyalty so that destinations can gain competitive advantages (Weaver & Lawton, 2011) and the fact that the continental tourists make multiple trips to islands in an alternative way, the second chapter proceeded to identify different groups of tourists according to the type of loyalty they performance: loyalty to one-single-destination (DL) and to multiple destinations (HL). In addition, an attempt was made to determine whether or not the factors that influence a tourist to show horizontal loyalty are the same as those that make a tourist loyal to one-single-destination. The results allowed identifying the existence of variables that influence both types of loyalty, but also others that influence HL and not DL, and vice versa.

Specifically, the fact that age and income level influence both DL and HL makes it clear that destinations should consider loyalty programmes specially targeted on these segments. They could work with partners where this profile (older and higher income level) is the most common (e.g., airline loyalty programmes). As for the negative effect of the sun and beach image for both types of loyalty, this denotes the need for innovation by these destinations, to the extent of even considering the possibility of "breaking out the sun and beach category" through innovation if they want to achieve a higher loyalty index from their tourists. In this way, the identification of two dimensions in the affective image implies further analysing a new affective image paradigm of sun and beach destinations: cheerful and stimulating affective image, on the one hand, and aunthentic, sustainable and healthy affective image on the other. Also, the image perceived of the general infrastructures and of the leisure facilities, as long as they are congruent with those in the markets of origin, seem to be an interesting impulse for loyalty. In any case, social media are an ideal source to communicate all these proposals, as they promote both DL and HL.

For destinations that want to promote DL, the communication of an image aimed at tourists that are motivated by a fashionable and prestigious destination, which allows social exhibitionism, would appear to be a suitable strategy, thus moving away from an

image of a lively and stimulating destination, which is a share with the rest of places. On the other hand, in order to promote HL, competing destinations can carry out joint promotional actions that help them to convert the intention to visit, working on a shared global image based on common aspects of their environmental situation. In addition, as a means of avoiding the search for novelty and non-loyalty of the tourist, destinations can renew their attractions on a permanent basis, in addition to offering joint proposals and touring events among the competitor set.

Concerning the theoretical implications, this chapter proposes a change of vision in the design of destination loyalty strategies, where the emphasis is placed on the tourist community and how they engage with many destinations. Traditionally, literature analysis the destinations and their marketing strategies without taking into account the rest of tourist destinations, or the relationship of tourists with them. Thus, this study represents the first empirical application of the factors that determine HL, and the differences they have with DL. Future studies could make use of the methodology and the conclusions that are developed in the present research.

With respect to the practical implications, understanding the differences in tourist loyalty implies designing marketing strategies aimed at each group, allowing the destinations to enhance their competitiveness. Thus, DMOs and company managers operating in the sector could maximise their available resources for tourism promotion and could also establish possible joint marketing strategies, using conventional media and new digital media.

In this sense, in chapter 3, and given the importance of the use of social media in the development of tourist loyalty, as seen in the previous chapter, this relationship is further considered. The results presented in this chapter demonstrate the extreme importance of social media in loyalty: behavioural and attitudinal, and for both one-single-destination and horizontal loyalty. In addition, this chapter analysis the differences in the use of online and offline information sources to find out about the travel destination among the different groups of identified loyal tourists. The results allow destination marketing managers to develop better marketing strategies, both in conventional media and through social media.

Specifically, the study begins by identifying significant differences in the use of social media consulted by tourists when choosing a travel destination based on nationality, gender, and age. The destinations can make use of this knowledge and taking advantage of the social media sites most used by the segments they are targeting. Some sources are more generic and of global use (e.g. Wikipedia by all age groups, Flickr by all nationalities), and other more specific sources with differences between segments (e.g. YouTube and Flickr with greater use by men). The study also reveals the possibility of using a common pattern of communication, with respect to nationality, in the use of pictorial content in social media, which is not possible with other content (video). Finally, and as expected, younger generations show greater use of all social media, except in the case of Wikipedia.

The segments of tourists found in this study in terms of loyalty shown are as follows:

Segment 1: Behavioural Horizontal Loyalty (BHL)

This segment is composed of tourists who make repeat visits to different destinations within the competitor set (the Canary Islands in this study). This means that they are loyal to several destinations at once. This requires at least two previous visits to two or more islands within the Canary Islands.

Segment 2: Attitudinal Horizontal Loyalty (AHL)

This segment comprises tourists who, like the previous group, make previous repeat visits to different destinations within the competitor set (the Canary Islands). Additionally, they show an intention to re-visit the destination in the near future (within the next two years of this study).

Segment 3: Behavioural Destination Loyalty (BDL)

This segment is composed of tourists showing a repeat pattern to one-single-destination. Thus, tourists can be described as having BDL if they make at least two or more visits to the same destination (one island in this study) and they have not visited any other islands within the competitor set (the Canary Islands).

Segment 4: Attitudinal Destination Loyalty (ADL)

ADL tourists are those who are loyal to one-single-destination. Like BDL tourists, they have visited the same destination two or more times, and they have not visited other destinations within the competitor set (the Canary Islands). Furthermore, ADL tourists show a high likelihood of visiting the destination (Canary Islands) in the near future.

Thus, the study found significant differences in the use of the different traditional sources of information used by BDL and BHL tourists, with no differences between the two groups in the use of social media. Furthermore, there are also no significant differences in the use of the different information sources and social media used by ADL and AHL tourists. These results are fundamental to understanding the behavioural differences in the information searches of these segments. Tourist promotion can be designed based on these results, without it being necessary for the destinations to adapt their promotional plan for social media according to their loyalty strategy. However, it is not enough to merely identify differences between the two segments in terms of their information search behaviour; it is also necessary to understand if these consulted sources and social media sites used are explanatory factors that create loyalty.

The study allows us to confirm that the information sources used by the tourists to find out about the travel destinations influence the development of tourist loyalty towards destinations. However, the use of some sources or others determines the type of loyalty that develops. Destination marketing managers should be able to use those sources that allow them to establish emotional ties with the tourists that lead them to repeat the visit to the destination. This will allow for more consistent and lasting loyal relationships over time.

The results of this chapter are useful in the decision-making process in relation to the development of digital strategies and loyalty programmes for tourist destinations and contribute significantly to destination marketing literature, especially to literature on information sources, and with special emphasis on digital media, and its influence on the destination loyalty, given the lack of research in this context.

The significant differences found in chapter 3 regarding the use of social media when choosing a travel destination according to the different nationalities are the basis of the

research problem addressed in chapter 4. In this article, knowledge of cultural and media convergence in terms of the social media used by European tourists and their travel motivations is further investigated.

The results found in this essay reveal the impossibility of treating Europe as a single market in terms of tourist communication due to "media-divergence". In the light of the results, Europe must be understood as a fragmented market in terms of how tourists use social media to find out about a travel destination. However, there is also a clustering of cultures (countries) in three segments, depending on the intensity of social media use, which does not respond to apparent cultural similarities. The grouping of these countries is precisely related to a process of media convergence, which is not homogeneous across all cultures, but is shared between the member countries of these three blocks, and with some specific sources widely present in a large number of markets (convergence), creating their own tribe and global culture on the Internet.

Furthermore, this study shows the existence of differences in the travel motivations tourists have according to their nationality, to the extent that the content to be communicated through social media should be different depending on the market at which it is targeting. Three blocks of countries are identified each of which require a different treatment.

With respect to the practical implications, these results can be used to design marketing strategies that attract tourists from the selected segments, according to the convergence-divergence identified. This could be achieved by emphasising presence in social media that are more intensely used by the selected segments; and generating "global" actions for the different specific channels, taking into account the differences in use according to the identified country blocks.

On the other hand, the results are of interest to destination marketing managers who benefit from a tool when designing the message to be communicated in each of the different blocks of countries, taking into account shared generic motivations. More specifically, by adapting the contents to each of the social media sites and to the communities identified by the country groupings.

The present study contributes to existing literature on the debate on cultural convergence-divergence, where little attention has been paid to the paradoxical relation of convergence-divergence regarding "culture-content-media". Thus, this last chapter contributes as much to literature on information sources, especially social media, as to literature on motivations, in both cases with respect to the national culture of the tourists.

Finally, it is important to note that this thesis does have certain limitations, which are discussed below, together with a proposal for future lines of research:

1. Future lines of research should deepen the fundamental understanding of the relationship between islands and "island tourism", where the size of the islands (in geographic and business terms) must be taken into account, as well as the geographic and cultural distance between them, and with respect to the continent (long or short-haul destinations). Connectivity with their home markets is also crucial, taking into account all the different means of transport, their time, cost and comfort. On the other hand, other industries different than tourism can also be included in the analysis.

2. Since the study focuses on a single geographic area and a competitive set, it is proposed, on one hand, to develop the analysis in other geographic areas of the planet and, on the other, to expand the set of competing destinations. For example, it would be of interest to see to what extent the findings of this study can be applied to once-in-a-lifetime destinations.

3. It would be helpful to achieve a greater understanding of the phenomenon of loyalty. Thus, considering other additional indicators to help explain repeated visits to tourist destinations (satisfaction, quality, familiarity, cultural differences, etc.), as well as other dimensions of loyalty, such as vertical loyalty (tourists can be loyal to different providers that occupy different levels within the tourism sector, for example to a destination, a hotel chain and an airline at the same time) and experiential loyalty (tourists can be loyal to specific categories of holidays, for example there are tourists who are faithful to sports activities regardless of the destination they visit).

4. Analyse whether the order in which the different destinations within a competitor set are visited has an influence on the development of the HL and in determining the number of times the set of competing destinations is visited. This would imply important practical implications for the DMOs that would have the necessary tools to try to influence the pattern the tourists take through the competitor set and throughout their different holidays.

5. The social, economic and environmental valuation of loyalty, in its different dimensions (DL, HL), and its implications in brand architecture, would allow a better evaluation of the promotional proposals, and the DMOs could know with greater accuracy what would be the return on investment in developing strategies to achieve tourist loyalty.

6. Expanding the number of digital information sources analysed by introducing new platforms (Instagram, Pinterest ...) would have important implications for tourism communication. For example, Instagram has become a benchmark in photographic content.

7. Taking into account the differences found regarding the use of social media based on diverse nationalities, a more thorough analysis should be made introducing nationality as a variable that influences the different types of loyalty analysed.

8. It is proposed to investigate whether the convergence-divergence detected is only explained by cultural differences, or is also due to other related standardisation criteria, such as economic, climatic differences, etc.

9. It would be worthwhile including other variables, other than the motivations, that have an influence on the appropriate content to spread (e.g., values and psychological profiles of tourists).

10. Finally, it would be necessary to further analyse the specific contents to be generated and disseminated in terms of language differences in Europe, and the consequences they imply.

The set of reflections and findings discussed in this doctoral thesis, together with the future lines of research discussed, are intended to be the starting point for the beginning of a solid line of research within tourism marketing. In particular, in relation to strategy development that allows the competitiveness of destinations to be improved, especially for islands, in a globalised, multicultural and digitised environment, and with special attention on the management of loyalty in its different modalities.

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