

Effective island brand architecture: promoting island tourism in the Canary Islands and other archipelagos

Arminda Almeida-Santana

Institute of Tourism Studies and Economic and Sustainable Development,
University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria, Spain
arminda.almeida@ulpgc.es

Sergio Moreno-Gil

Institute of Tourism Studies and Economic and Sustainable Development,
University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria, Spain
smoreno@dede.ulpgc.es

ABSTRACT: Tourism is the main industry in many islands around the world. Islands connect with each other and with mainland markets in a complex system of relations of competition and cooperation (coopetition). This article analyses islands' cooperation strategies through the management of brand architecture and how visits to one island can influence visits to others. This paper aims to provide island destination management organisations with information on how islands can effectively design their brand architecture—inside and outside their own archipelagos—depending on mainland markets. The study includes in its analysis some of the main tourist islands and archipelagos in the world (particularly the Canary Islands but also Cyprus, Malta, Balearic Islands, Maldives, Caribbean, Azores, Madeira, Cape Verde, and Greek islands), with a sample of 6,964 tourists from the main worldwide tourism market, Europe, and an analysis of 16 European markets.

Keywords: archipelagos, Canary Islands, coopetition, destination branding, island brand architecture, island tourism, tourism marketing

<https://doi.org/10.24043/isj.45>

© 2018 – Institute of Island Studies, University of Prince Edward Island, Canada.

Introduction

Islands are integrated in a complex system of interactions, both between themselves and with mainland 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 mainland (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 one of the most visited

destination categories in the world (Naidoo & Sarpley, 2015; World Bank, 2015). Knowing the importance of islands in terms of tourist flows and income, tourism on islands has received academic attention, enjoying growing and wide recognition (Baldacchino, 2016). However, it is still necessary to further enhance knowledge on how to design the image and branding of tourism destinations (Picazo & Moreno, 2017) and in particular for islands.

Nevertheless, the island studies literature has been dominated by 'land-sea' and 'island-mainland' approaches, paying less attention to island-island relations (Stratford et al., 2011). In order to achieve mutual benefit among islands that form a network of networks, it is necessary to develop an analytical and strategic management perspective. Thus, the relationships between islands can be considered from the perspective of a geographical group of islands (an archipelago), a global island network, or a systemic network including islands and the mainland (which is the source of most tourists to islands) (Warrington, 1994).

This study takes an integrated approach considering this latter perspective, since island territories can and should demonstrate collaborative behaviours in the new global scenario in relation to the home markets of their visitors. Thus, irrespective of their geopolitical situation (archipelagos, islands states, outermost islands, etc.), in tourism, islands are related to the markets of origin and other islands based on the holiday behaviours of the tourists themselves, who connect with these islands through their travels. It thus seems important to analyse brand architecture in island tourism.

When designing a brand architecture, many local, regional, national, and supranational territorial brands coexist in the tourism industry. These brands are interrelated and sometimes overlap. Thus, it is necessary for 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 organising 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 for 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 mainland economic systems (Gössling et al., 2005). The strategic organisation of island brands could not only help avoid internal competition but could also 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 (WTO, 2014). The destinations could increase their profits as a result of efficient brand collaboration (Fyall et al., 2012); however, in the context of islands, this issue is relatively new (Blain et al. 2005; Okumus et al., 2013). Little attention has been given to the relationships between islands and the various mainland tourists who make multiple trips to islands (Butler, 2016; Sharpley, 2012).

It is difficult to manage brand architecture and know how to properly group islands in order to promote them in the tourist market. Islands can take an approach related to island consciousness and mainland unconsciousness, generating a complex reflection upon the focus/locus dichotomy (Hong, 2017). This decision generates problems and tensions between islands, and between islands and the mainland (Bertram, 2004). For example, the Canary Islands, the focus of the present study, is a territory that can be politically and administratively labelled 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 nearby islands, 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 continental Europe and Africa). Macaronesian islands belong to three countries (Portugal, Spain, and Cape Verde) and are jointly promoted, for example in the cruise ship market, under the 'Atlantic Islands' brand. There are also additional possibilities for 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 mainland, as occurs in the promotion of nautical tourism between the ports of the Canaries and Morocco (mainland), under the brand 'Naucaam' (Lam-González et al., 2015).

Bearing in mind the above, the aim of this study is to provide island policymakers with information on how islands could effectively design their brand architecture, inside and outside their own archipelago, depending on mainland markets. To this end, starting from the analysis of the world's first tourism market (Europe), this aim requires an in-depth analysis of the brand architecture applied to island tourism. This analysis will allow us to answer the questions: What other island brands should we cooperate with? And moreover, in which mainland markets should we do so?

Theoretical framework

'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" (Butler, 2016, p. XIX). In any case, the importance of islands in terms of the total number of visited destinations, some tourists' preference for islands over mainland destinations, and even the role of islands as ideal destinations is still to be identified and is, in fact, fundamental to analysing island tourism. Thus, this study first emphasises the need to address the importance of this topic, identifying islands' share of the total number of trips made by mainland tourists and the preference for islands over mainland destinations (Cantallops & Cardona, 2015).

Many islands belong to a large network of island destinations that present themselves to tourists as a possible selection set of brands. Thus, islands can be connected on the demand side. Sharpley (2012) defends the need to deepen the understanding of how islands, which are part of this great network, are perceived and consumed by tourists. The development of complementary relations between islands produces synergies that benefit those who properly manage such cooperative relationships (Cannas & Giudici, 2016). Such relationships could be between islands belonging to the same archipelago or between different islands and archipelagos. Additionally, Hayward (2012) introduces the concept of the 'aquapelago' as "an assemblage of the marine and land spaces of a group of islands and their adjacent waters" that may appear "more fanciful in certain locations than others." The 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. 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) 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, which 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 (Cannas & Giudici, 2016). In tourism, as in many aspects of life, one's neighbour may not be one's best friend, even if everyone belongs to the same family (Butler, 2016).

Recent literature on 'coopetition' strategies has emphasised that, in many cases, organisations tend to both compete and cooperate at the same time, thus generating the emergence of a new form of interorganisational dynamics (Brandenburger & Stuart, 1996). Tourism destinations' evolution and management offer a fertile context for studying coopetition (Kylanen & Mariani, 2012; Sonmez & Apostolopoulos, 2000), a strategy highlighted by Mariani et al. (2014) for its contribution to the development and marketing of tourist destinations. As far as islands are concerned, given their condition of isolation from the mainland, and in many cases their proximity to other islands, this fact is even more pressing (Padilla & McElroy, 2007).

Destination branding represents a specific cooperation tool for dealing with growing competition in the tourism sector (Blain et al., 2005). Thus, joint branding between islands can help improve the economic value of the brand (Carballo et al., 2015). However, the literature has not paid specific attention to how island territories can develop their brand architecture (Conway & Timms, 2010; Hu & Wall, 2005).

Branding and brand architecture

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 the literature (Datzira-Masip & Poluzzi, 2014). In the case of 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 an 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 must manage if they want to be successful (Grydehøj, 2008). Agencies should prioritise geo-references with a view to strategically position the brand rather than to simply reflect the structure of target audiences (Strebingner & Rusetski, 2016).

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 one destination (Laforet & Saunders, 1994); (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 create an image of the destination that has a positive influence on consumer choice (Araña et al., 2016). Thus, a final implication of the brand is increasing the probability that a consumer will visit a destination (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006).

Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000), however, establish that brand architecture is an organised structure of a brand portfolio that specifies the roles of various brands and the nature of the relationships 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). Thus, brand architecture needs to be designed in a manner that minimises transaction costs (Strebingner & Treiblmaier, 2006). However, little research has been done concerning brand architecture (Dooley & Bowie, 2005; Harish, 2010), particularly in 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. Similarly, Kuwahara et al. (2007) researched how a group of Japanese islands

have joined inter-regional networks linking disparate, non-metropolitan communities – a transperipheral network.

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 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 local, regional, and national levels, propose a range of models to manage the architecture of a brand portfolio: Branded House, House of Brands, Master/Sub-brand 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 into countries that have different brand configurations.

Datzira-Masip and Poluzzi (2014) apply these models to various tourist destinations. For 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 recognised by the characteristics they have in common, under the Maldives brand. In contrast, the House of Brands model is exemplified by 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. Datzira-Masip and Poluzzi identify the Master/Sub-brands Relationship model in Central America, where the brand identity created for the joint promotion of the Central American states depends on the attributes of their various 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. Thus, designing the right brand architecture is a complex decision, since the number of brands, the number of segments in which brands are marketed, and the degree to which brands compete with one another all influence “the strengths and weaknesses that the different brand architectures manifest in distinctly different risk/return profiles” (Hsu, Fournier & Srinivasan, 2016).

Nevertheless, recent frameworks used for measuring the brand equity of destinations have become much more tourist centric and focus on various aspects of destinations’ brand image, brand awareness, etc. (Yousaf et al., 2017). Pike (2005) studies the process of development and management of a set of interrelated brands, contributing to a better understanding of the challenges tourist destinations face when trying to put into practice the theoretical framework on brand architecture management. Pike concludes that the brand must (1) assign priority to the customer segments and target markets of each brand; (2) fill the supply and demand gaps between brands, without overlapping; and (3) 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 et al., 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 et al., 2007).

In any case, and after illustrating the definition of branding and brand architecture and its application to islands, it can be concluded from the literature that 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. There are, moreover, diverse ways of conceptualising and organising diversity in islands (Hong, 2017).

In the same manner, the previous literature suggests that the discussion of what criteria to follow in order to determine the union of islands that are part of a common brand must consider the behavioural patterns of tourists from the mainland (Jackson, 2006). “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 a study of the metropolitan area. However, when designing the brand architecture, the study considers not only the mainland vision but also the particular interests of the islands. To summarise, the questions that arise are how island branding architecture should be designed, which islands should enter into competition with one another, and in which mainland markets they should do so.

Methodology

Population

Europe remains the world’s largest outbound tourism region, generating more than half of global international arrivals per year (UNWTO, 2015). 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, the Netherlands, Ireland, Italy, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Russia, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom.

Sample selection

The work was done through Computer-Assisted Web Interviewing (CAWI), to a representative sample of the 16 aforementioned 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 potential tourists (12 languages in total), and relevant corrections were made to those questions that raised difficulties of comprehension, the fieldwork was carried out. The defined sample was of 8,500 tourists (500 from each country), and the actual sample contained 6,559 tourists – between 400 and 459 tourists per country. The selected sample was sent a personalised e-mail inviting them to participate in the study, with a link in the e-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 sent to encourage response. Table 1 shows the percentage distribution of the overall profile of the sample.

The structured questionnaire included socio-demographic variables such as age, years of study, 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 visits to 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 and the intention to visit them in the future. In this case, the specific sample of tourists who had visited at least one of the Canary Islands is 2,067 tourists.

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
	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	Men	3453	49.58
	Women	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

The decision to analyse the specific case of the Canary Islands, as well as for reasons of convenience, is justified by their 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-Santana & Moreno-Gil, 2017). This makes it a perfect subject for analysing the problem of island brand architecture.

The Canary Islands is an archipelago located in the Atlantic Ocean, and is one of the 17 autonomous communities of Spain. Tourism accounts for 31.9% of the Canary Islands' 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 flows, with 98% of the total number of tourists (see 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 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	494,000	434,263
Madeira	215,511	244,286
Azores	1,319,489	246,772

Sources: Aena, Istac, World Bank, official website of the Government of Cape Verde, Regional Bureau of Statistics of Madeira, Regional Statistics Service of the Azores. Data from Cape Verde corresponds to the number of international tourist arrivals to Cape Verde in 2014. Data for Madeira corresponds to the total number of guests in hotel establishments in 2015. The Azores data corresponds air passenger landings 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 and managed by the public company Promotur (Canary Islands Tourism Board). The destination marketing organisations of each of the islands are nevertheless developing their own promotion as an independent destination, coexisting seven individual brands (see Figure 2), forming a complex brand management architecture. In addition, in many promotional actions, the Canary Islands are presented alongside the Spain brand, as an integral part of the country’s wider tourism offering. Finally, some products (cruises, nautical tourism, etc.) are promoted in a network comprised of other islands from the Macaronesian Archipelago, presenting them as a common tourist experience (Carballo et al., 2015), as is the case with ‘Cruises Atlantic Islands’ brand.



Figure 2: Canary Islands brand architecture.

The present study includes in its analysis some of the world’s most popular tourist islands and archipelagos. Tourists were asked about the last three holiday destinations they have visited. The results to this free elicitation question revealed the most popular island destinations for European tourists: Cyprus, Malta, Balearic Islands, Canary Islands, Maldives, Caribbean, Azores, Madeira, Cape Verde, and Greek islands were the most-visited island destinations for tourists in the sample. Although these destinations have been analysed in branding studies (Alonso et al., 2008; Alves et al., 2013; Amira, 2016; Baldacchino et al., 2013; Ekiz et al., 2010; Marcelino & Oca, 2016). However, these islands have been mainly analysed in isolation, and not from a brand architecture perspective.

In order to achieve the goals of this study, we conducted descriptive analysis and estimated 5 logit models with the last version of the SPSS. 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. This methodology has been recommended for use in analysing brand and image studies related to tourism destinations, and the final decisions made by the tourists (Almeida & Moreno, 2018).

Results

Before answering the main question of this study, in order to understand the brand architecture applied to island tourism it is necessary to highlight the importance of island tourism. We first analysed the importance of island destinations within the total number of holidays taken by European tourists. 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 reinforces the importance of the analysis of the islands' brand architecture in the context of tourism. Specifically, the island destinations with the most visits were the Greek islands, Canary Islands, Balearic Islands, and Caribbean islands. 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 for the mainland destinations, enhancing the power of attraction the islands provide for tourists. Moreover, when tourists were asked about dreamy, 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% mainland destinations. 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 islands in the tourist imagination, and in particular the Canary Islands destination among island destinations worldwide, and especially in the European market.

These results are important because building a strong brand architecture in island tourism starts with identifying a destination's performance, reputation, and imagery, within a product category at any given point in time (Yousaf et al., 2017).

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

Below, and to further analyse the main goal of this study: What are the other island brands with each island should cooperate? And in which mainland markets should they do so? The following analysis focuses on the sample of 2,067 tourists who have visited one of the Canary Islands. An initial descriptive analysis shows 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 place 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% have visited the island of Fuerteventura (FV). Therefore, it can be said that the four most-visited islands by tourists with combined visits coincides 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 the islands that should be considered in marketing decision-making processes. This is especially relevant 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, in order to improve the joint visiting 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 the tourists make to them. It can be observed, for example, that 58.3% of tourists with combined visits have been on the islands of GC and TF, 42.5% on TF and LZ, 40% on GC and LZ, and 23.5% on 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 the extent to which the visit to one of the Canary Islands' brands can influence the probability of travelling to another island—inside their own archipelago. In addition, we considered the relationship with other islands that do not belong to the Canary Islands—outside their own archipelago—in order to analyse the relationship with other islands, both geographically close (Azores, Madeira, Cape Verde) and quite distant islands but nevertheless included in the same competitive set (Cyprus, Malta, Balears, Maldives, Caribbean, Greek islands). In order to tackle this analysis, 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 brands (brand architecture) though visits to the various island destinations. For example, the first model aimed to identify whether the visit to the umbrella brand 'Canary Islands' was influenced by a previous visit to another island destination brand (Cyprus, Malta, Balears, Maldives, Caribbean, Azores, Madeira, Cape Verde, Greek islands). The various nationalities of the tourists were included in order to analyse how the mainland origin of the tourist influences the relationship. This is a combination of 16 mainland regions and 10 island destinations, one of which (Canary Islands) is composed of seven islands. Finally, the models included the perceived image of the destination and other socio-demographic variables that affect the main explanatory reasons behind a visit to a destination (Moreno-Gil et al., 2012), which are shown in Table 5. These variables are needed to improve the predictive power of the model. The same analysis was carried out on the other models for each of the four main island brands: Gran Canaria, Tenerife, Lanzarote, and Fuerteventura, adding in this case the visit to other islands of the common brand. In this manner, it is possible to observe how the visit to an island brand within the Canary Islands influences a visit to another island brand within the same archipelago.

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
	Coopetition variables within the Canary Islands brand	Visited TF, visited GC, visited LZ, visited FV, visited LP, visited LG and visited EH
Coopetition 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	General 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	Dichotomic variables that take 0 as a value when the individual has not visited the Canary Islands 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. In addition, level of education influences the probability of visiting the Canary Islands brand. There is also a positive relationship between age of the individual and visits to the islands of Tenerife, Gran Canaria, and Lanzarote as well as the Canary Islands umbrella brand in general. In addition, the relationship between the nationality of the tourists and their visits to the different island brands 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 alternative island destination brands.

Table 6: Logit Binomial models explaining the probability of visiting the brands Canary Islands, Tenerife, Gran Canaria, Lanzarote, and Fuerteventura (* 0.1 % ** 0.05% ***0.01%).

	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	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Austria	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Belgium	-1.925*	1.147	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Denmark	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Spain	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Finland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
France	-2.638**	1.149	-	-	-2.124*	1.157	-	-	-	-
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	

Analysis

This study has posed the central question of: Which island brands should cooperate with one another? In the case of the Canary Islands, it can also be asked: Should individual island brands in the Canary Islands cooperate with island brands outside of or within their own archipelago? The table above shows the values of the coefficients of the variables.

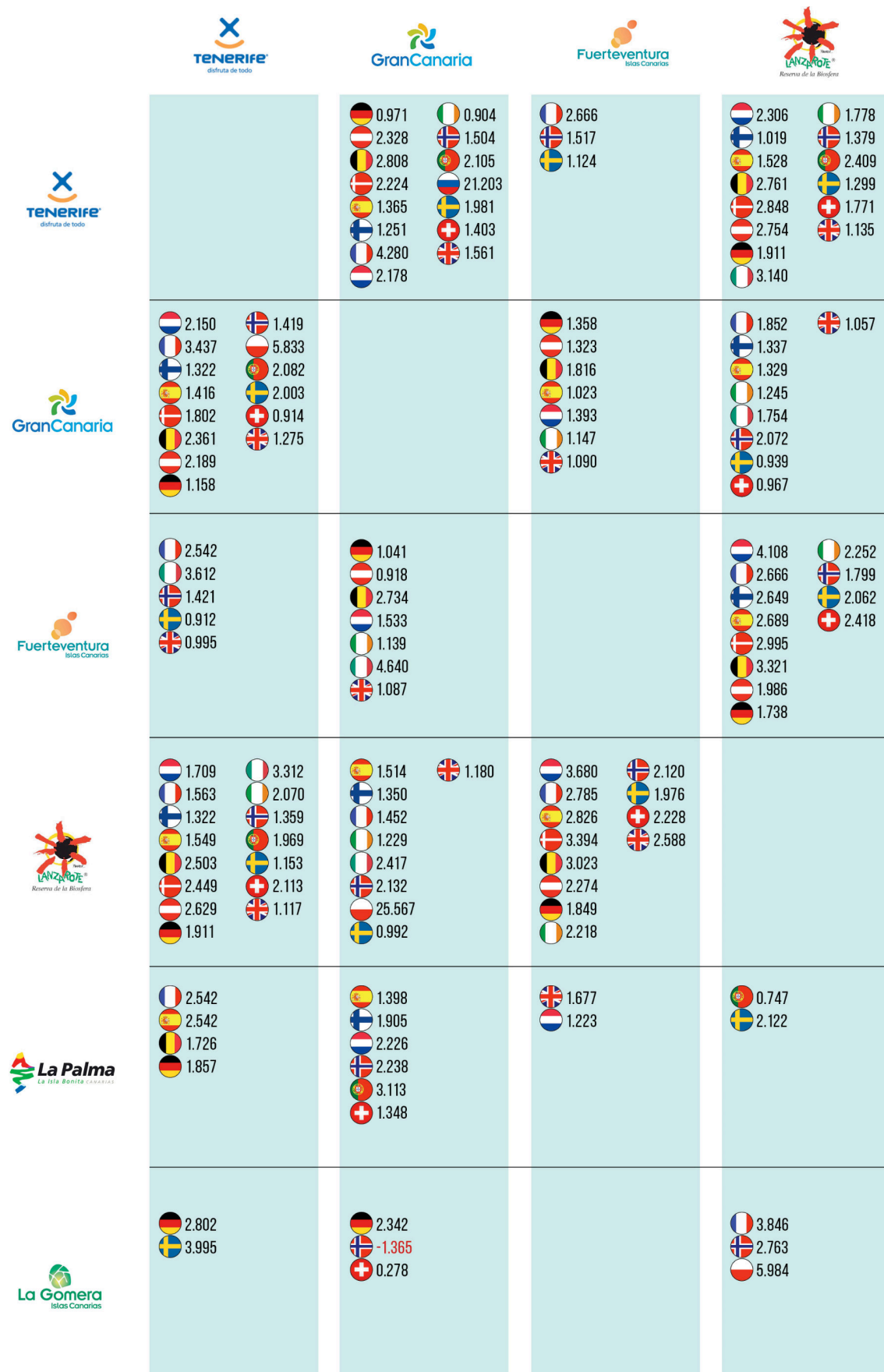
Regarding brand cooperation outside the Canary Islands, the fact that a tourist has visited a number of other island brands (Cyprus, Balearic Islands, Caribbean islands, or Greek islands) increases the probability of this tourist visiting the Canary Islands brand. However, Malta and the Azores do not present such possibilities for cooperation. 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; between the island of Gran Canaria and Cape Verde; and between the island of Fuerteventura and the Greek islands. There are thus multiple possibilities for cooperation among islands, through specific brands and through other joint actions.

With respect to brand cooperation between the various islands that belong to the Canary Islands archipelago, we can observe the strong positive relationship between 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. In contrast, it is important to note the strong direct relationship between visits to the islands of Lanzarote and Fuerteventura on the one hand and between Tenerife and La Gomera on the other hand. All the main islands have a relationship with each other, which justifies their grouping around a common umbrella brand.

Island studies should, however, be more attentive to nuanced relationships between islands and mainland (Hong, 2017). In order to deepen the previous analyses, while considering the specific relationships between the competitive cooperation of island brands and mainland territories, and in which mainland markets where each brand should cooperate with others, different models were made by country of origin (Figure 5). This was proposed because some island brands can compete on general terms but carry out a strategy of cooperation 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 cooperation 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 island-mainland relationships. Thus, the design of brand architecture and complementary relationships between island destinations will depend on each specific market. In this case, the main islands of the Canary Islands present, in tourism terms, a greater possibility of cooperation in the majority of markets, whereas this only occurs with a few countries of origin for the smaller islands. When promoting these smaller islands in some specific markets, it may thus make sense to alter the brand architecture, adding differentiated sub-brands, different groupings and connections between the islands, and alternative communication strategies.

Figure 3: Complementarity of the Canary Island brands, by mainland European countries.



Islands face serious geopolitical and economic challenges in an interconnected global business setting. These challenges in the tourism industry involve understanding the starting position of islands in the tourist market, how they manage their coopetition relationships and brand architecture between themselves, and how they promote themselves to their tourists' various countries of origin and mainland markets. Tourism is facilitated socio-cultural interaction by human interaction between islands and mainlands (Hayward, 2001, p. 34).

This study has focused on designing the general brand architecture related to island tourism. It shows the importance of islands and their brands in the global market as well as a degree of complementarity (visits to some islands influence visits to other islands). Island destinations play an important role in the preferences of the mainland tourists (32.1% of the destinations chosen in the previous three years), being the preferred destination for 16.4% of the tourists. In addition, islands are the idyllic travel destination for 17.9% of European tourists, emphasising their role as dream destinations for mainland tourists. The generic island brand is 'dreamy' one. 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 mainland tourists visit these island destinations and thereby achieve synergies in their marketing strategies and brand architecture. A key aspect for developing island tourism could be emphasising the word 'island' in every brand island. Additionally, island destinations around the world could create a formal brand board to manage their brand architecture and foster island tourism, inside and outside their own archipelagos. The word 'island' could be presented as an 'endorsed brand'.

There are evident practical implications since understanding the behaviour of island hoppers across multiple travel periods allows destination management organisations to establish island networks that focus on the brand architecture and the various islands' promotion activities. In the specific case analysed, the Canary Islands brand uses its country name (Spain) as an endorsed brand, yet this archipelago is likewise complementary and has a mutual relationship with other (and sometimes quite distant) island, archipelago, and country brands. Furthermore, each island within the Canary Islands has complementary relationships with other island brands, both within the archipelago itself (e.g. Lanzarote with Fuerteventura) and with other distant islands (e.g. Gran Canaria with Cape Verde). This allows different brand architecture possibilities and joint promotional actions. In addition, complementary combinations between islands differ by source market, suggesting different possibilities for subgroups 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 rest of the countries there is no correlation).

As an example of practical implications for efficient brand architecture management while coopetiting, islands with complementary brands (visiting one island encourages visiting another) are part of a network and could have a joint presence at tourist fairs (physical proximity to the tourism fair itself or joint actions during the fair) as a win-win strategy. In addition, complementary brands could manage how they appear in tour operator brochures, tour guides, and travel guides as well as other sources of information consulted by tourists when deciding where to travel. In the same manner, complementary island brands could carry out promotional strategies at the airports of other islands, even with bilateral agreements, seeking to attract island tourists for their future holidays.

Conclusion

Traditionally, island tourism managers have designed their brand strategies without taking into account the other islands with which they are competing, or in any case only those that are close to or that belong to their own archipelago or political region. They have not analysed mainland tourists' relationships with all islands brands (brand architecture) during different holiday periods. This study shows that when designing an effective island tourism brand architecture and managing competition between the islands, islands could improve their competitiveness if they are able to ascertain with which other islands they should compete in particular markets.

This paper adds to the island studies literature by presenting a new way of analysing cooperation between islands through island brands. The study therefore helps island managers better manage their collaborations with other islands and with mainland 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. Islands could thus be considered a particular case in tourism in terms of brand architecture. There is a long tradition of mainland destinations working with nearby destinations in designing their brand architecture. In the case of islands, the design of brand architecture should expand its horizons beyond nearby destinations to an even further extent. Island brand architecture could take on different forms and compositions, from branded house, house of brands, master/sub-brands relationships, and endorsed brands. They could have more flexible, temporal, and specific market-oriented architectures, integrating the mainland vision (tourist perspectives and behaviours) and island interests, diversity, and similarities.

Finally, future lines of research could deepen the fundamental understanding of the relationship between island brands and island tourism. Hence, there is a need to consider other variables, such as island size (in geographic and economic terms), geographic and cultural distance between islands, and geographical and cultural distance from continental markets (long-haul or short-haul destinations). Connectivity with home markets is also crucial, taking into account all the different means of transportation, their time, their cost, and their comfort. Industries other than tourism can also be included in the analysis. As a final observation, there is a need to develop a more detailed and global analysis that considers non-European markets and island brands around the globe (Picazo & Moreno, 2013).

Acknowledgements

The authors fully acknowledge financial support for this work by the European FEDER Fund through Project ECO2017-82842-R from the Ministerio de Ciencia y Competitividad, Spain. Arminda Almeida-Santana would especially like to thank University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria for her Ph. D. Student Grant.

References

- Aaker, D.A. (2004). Leveraging the corporate brand. *California Management Review*, 46(3), 6-18. <https://doi.org/10.2307/41166218>
- Aaker, D.A., & Joachimsthaler, E. (2000). The brand relationship spectrum: the key to the brand architecture challenge. *California Management Review*, 42(4), 8-23. <https://doi.org/10.2307/41166051>

- Almeida-Santana, A., & Moreno-Gil, S. (2017). New trends in information search and their influence on destination loyalty: digital destinations and relationship marketing. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 6(2), 150-161. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2017.02.003>
- Almeida-Santana, A., & Moreno-Gil, S. (2018). Understanding tourism loyalty: horizontal vs. destination loyalty. *Tourism Management*, 65, 245-255. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2017.10.011>
- Alonso, A. D., Sheridan, L., & Scherrer, P. (2008). Importance of tasting rooms for Canary Islands' wineries. *British Food Journal*, 110(10), 977-988. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00070700810906606>
- Alves, N., Costa, J., & Salazar, A. (2013). Planning the brand identity of tourist destinations: application of the Aaker model to the Madeira island brand. *Tourism & Management Studies*, 9(2), 65-69.
- Amira, F. (2016). The potential of tourist zones in the Maldives: obscured behind the 'sunny side of life'? In G. Baldacchino (2016), *Archipelago tourism: policies and practices* 67-81. Abingdon: Routledge.
- Ara-a, J.E., León, C.J., Carballo, M.M., & Moreno, G.S. (2016). Designing tourist information offices: the role of the human factor. *Journal of Travel Research*, 55(6), 764-773. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287515587113>
- Baldacchino, G. (2006). Managing the hinterland beyond: two ideal-type strategies of economic development for small island territories. *Asia Pacific Viewpoint*, 47(1), 45-60. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8373.2006.00295.x>
- Baldacchino, G. (Ed.). (2007). *A world of islands: an island studies reader*. Charlottetown: Institute of Island Studies.
- Baldacchino, G. (2016). *Archipelago tourism: policies and practices*. Abingdon: Routledge.
- Baldacchino, G., Ferreira, D., & Costa, E. (2013). Competing notions of diversity in archipelago tourism: transport logistics, official rhetoric and inter-island rivalry in the Azores. *Island Studies Journal*, 8(1), 84-104.
- Bardolet, E., & Sheldon, P. J. (2008). Tourism in archipelagos: Hawai'i and the Balearics. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(4), 900-923. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2008.07.005>
- Bertram, G. (2004). On the convergence of small island economies with their metropolitan patrons. *World Development*, 32(2), 343-364. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2003.08.004>
- Blain, C., Levy, S.E., & Ritchie, J.B. (2005). Destination branding: insights and practices from destination management organizations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(4), 328-338. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287505274646>
- Brandenburger, A.M., & Stuart, H.W. (1996). Value-based business strategy. *Journal of Economics & Management Strategy*, 5(1), 5-24. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1430-9134.1996.00005.x>
- Butler, R.W. (2016). Archipelago tourism: some thoughts and reactions. In G. Baldacchino (2016), *Archipelago tourism: policies and practices* (pp. 67-81). Abingdon: Routledge.
- Cannas, R., & Giudici, E. (2016). Tourism relationships between Sardinia and its islands: collaborative or conflicting?. In G. Baldacchino (2016), *Archipelago tourism: policies and practices* (pp. 67-81). Abingdon: Routledge.
- Cantalops, A.S., & Cardona, J. R. (2015). Holiday destinations: the myth of the lost paradise?. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 55, 171-173. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2015.10.002>

- Carballo, M.M., Ara-a, J.E., León, C.J., & Moreno-Gil, S. (2015). Economic valuation of tourism destination image. *Tourism Economics*, 21(4), 741-759. <https://doi.org/10.5367/te.2014.0381>
- Carlsen, J. (1999). A systems approach to island tourism destination management. *Systems Research and Behavioral Science*, 16(4), 321. [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1099-1743\(199907/08\)16:4<321::AID-SRES255>3.0.CO;2-5](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-1743(199907/08)16:4<321::AID-SRES255>3.0.CO;2-5)
- Conway, D., & Timms, B.F. (2010). Re-branding alternative tourism in the Caribbean: the case for 'slow tourism'. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 10(4), 329-344. <https://doi.org/10.1057/thr.2010.12>
- D'Hautesserre, A.M., & Funck, C. (2016). Innovation in island ecotourism in different contexts: Yakushima (Japan) and Tahiti and its islands. *Island Studies Journal*, 11(1), 227-244.
- Datzira-Masip, J., & Poluzzi, A. (2014). Brand architecture management: the case of four tourist destinations in Catalonia. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 3(1), 48-58. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2013.12.006>
- Dooley, G., & Bowie, D. (2005). Place brand architecture: strategic management of the brand portfolio. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 1(4), 402-419. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.pb.5990037>
- Ekinci, Y., & Hosany, S. (2006). Destination personality: an application of brand personality to tourism destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 45(2), 127-139. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287506291603>
- Ekiz, E., Hussain, K., & Ivanov, S.H. (2010). Investigating marketing opportunities of a politically challenged island destination: the case of North Cyprus. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.1591372>
- Fyall, A., Garrod, B., & Wang, Y. (2012). Destination collaboration: a critical review of theoretical approaches to a multi-dimensional phenomenon. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 1(1), 10-26. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2012.10.002>
- García-Rodríguez, J.L., García-Rodríguez, F.J., & Castilla-Gutiérrez, C. (2016). Human heritage and sustainable development on arid islands: the case of the Eastern Canary Islands. *Island Studies Journal*, 11(1), 113-130.
- Gil, S.M. (2003). Tourism development in the Canary Islands. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(3), 744-747. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(03\)00050-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(03)00050-1)
- Gössling, S., Peeters, P., Ceron, J.P., Dubois, G., Patterson, T., & Richardson, R.B. (2005). The eco-efficiency of tourism. *Ecological Economics*, 54(4), 417-434. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2004.10.006>
- Grydehøj, A. (2008). Branding from above: generic cultural branding in Shetland and other islands. *Island Studies Journal*, 3(2), 175-198.
- Harish, R. (2010). Brand architecture in tourism branding: the way forward for India. *Journal of Indian Business Research*, 2(3), 153-165. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17554191011069442>
- Hong, G. (2017). Locating Zhuhai between land and sea: a relational production of Zhuhai, China, as an island city. *Island Studies Journal*, 12(2), 7-24. <https://doi.org/10.24043/isj.16>
- Hayward, P. (2001). Tide lines: music, tourism & cultural transition in the Whitsunday islands (and adjacent coast). The Music Archive for The Pacific Press. Lismore: Southern Cross University.
- Hayward, P. (2012). Aquapelagos and aquapelagic assemblages. *Shima*, 6(1), 1-11.
- Hsu, L., Fournier, S., & Srinivasan, S. (2016). Brand architecture strategy and firm value: how leveraging, separating, and distancing the corporate brand affects risk and returns. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 44(2), 261-280. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-014-0422-5>

- Hu, W., & Wall, G. (2005). Environmental management, environmental image and the competitive tourist attraction. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 13(6), 617-635. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669580508668584>
- Iversen N.M., & Hem, L.E. (2008). Provenance associations as core values of place umbrella brands. *European Journal of Marketing*, 42(5/6), 603-626. <https://doi.org/10.1108/03090560810862534>
- Jackson, R. (2006). Bruny on the brink: governance, gentrification and tourism on an Australian island. *Island Studies Journal*, 1(2), 201-222.
- Johnson, H. (2012). 'Genuine Jersey': Branding and authenticity in a small island culture. *Island Studies Journal*, 7(2), 235-258.
- Keller, K.L. (2003). Understanding brands, branding and brand equity. *Interactive Marketing*, 5(1), 7-20. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.im.4340213>
- Kim, W.G., Lee, S., & Lee, H.Y. (2007). Co-branding and brand loyalty. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 8(2), 1-23. https://doi.org/10.1300/J162v08n02_01
- Kuwahara, S., Ozaki, T., & Nishimura, A. (2007). Transperipheral networks: bullfighting and cattle culture in Japan's outer islands. *Shima*, 1(2), 1-13.
- Kylanen, M., & Mariani, M.M. (2012). Unpacking the temporal dimension of coopetition in tourism destinations: evidence from Finnish and Italian theme parks. *Anatolia*, 23(1), 61-74. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13032917.2011.653632>
- Laforet, S., & Saunders, J. (1994). Managing brand portfolios: how the leaders do it. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 34(5), 64-77.
- Lam-González, Y.E., González, C.J.L., Ledesma, J.D.L., & Velázquez, J.A.D. (2015). The Canary Islands and Morocco as destinations for nautical tourism: a comparative approach through tourist perceptions. *Criterio Libre*, 13(23), 79-97.
- Lee, S., Kim, W.G., & Kim, H.J. (2006). The impact of co-branding on post-purchase behaviors in family restaurants. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 25(2), 245-261. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2005.04.008>
- Marcelino, P.F. & González, L.O. (2016). Cape Verde 2.0: branding and tourism development across the archipelago. In G. Baldacchino (2016), *Archipelago tourism: policies and practices* (pp. 67-81). Abingdon: Routledge.
- Mariani, M.M., & Baggio, R. (2012). Special issue: managing tourism in a changing world: issues and cases. *Anatolia*, 23(1), 1-3. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13032917.2011.653636>
- Mariani, M.M., Buhalis, D., Longhi, C., & Vitouladiti, O. (2014). Managing change in tourism destinations: key issues and current trends. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 2(4), 269-272. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2013.11.003>
- Moreno-Gil, S., & Martín-Santana, J.D. (2015). Understanding the image of self-contained and serviced apartments: the case of sun and beach destinations. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 39(3), 373-400. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348013491594>
- Moreno-Gil, S., Martín-Santana, J.D., & de León-Ledesma, J. (2012). Key success factors for understanding the image of a tourist accommodation: an empirical study in the Canary Islands. *Innovar*, 22(44), 139-152.
- Naidoo, P., & Sharpley, R. (2016). Local perceptions of the relative contributions of enclave tourism and agritourism to community well-being: the case of Mauritius. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 5(1), 16-25. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2015.11.002>
- Okumus, F., Kock, G., Scantlebury, M.M., & Okumus, B. (2013). Using local cuisines when promoting small Caribbean island destinations. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 30(4), 410-429. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2013.784161>

- Padilla, A., & McElroy, J.L. (2007). Cuba and Caribbean tourism after Castro. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34(3), 649-672. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2007.02.004>
- Picazo-Peral, P., & Moreno-Gil, S. (2013). Scientific dissemination of tourism research in Latin America. *Estudios y Perspectivas en Turismo*, 22(5), 828-853.
- Picazo, P., & Moreno-Gil, S. (2017). Analysis of the projected image of tourism destinations on photographs: a literature review to prepare for the future. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1356766717736350>
- Pike, S. (2005). Tourism destination branding complexity. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 14(4), 258-259. <https://doi.org/10.1108/10610420510609267>
- Schuilng, I., & Kapferer, J. (2004). Executive insights: real differences between local and international brands: strategic implications for international marketers. *Journal of International Marketing*, 12(4), 97-112. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jimk.12.4.97.53217>
- Sharpley, R. (2012). Island tourism or tourism on islands?. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 37(2), 167-172. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2012.11081701>
- Sonmez, S.F., & Apostolopoulos, Y. (2000). Conflict resolution through tourism cooperation? The case of the partitioned island-state of Cyprus. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 9(3), 35-48. https://doi.org/10.1300/J073v09n03_03
- Stratford, E., Baldacchino, G., McMahon, E., Farbotko, C., & Harwood, A. (2011). Envisioning the archipelago. *Island Studies Journal*, 6(2), 113-130.
- Strebing, A., & Treiblmaier, H. (2006). The impact of business to consumer e-commerce on organisational structure, brand architecture, IT structure and their interrelations. *Structures*, 58, 81-113.
- Strebing, A., & Rusetski, A. (2016). Prioritizing geo-references: a content analysis of the websites of leading global luxury fashion brands. *Journal of Global Marketing*, 29(5), 282-297. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08911762.2016.1185562>
- UNWTO (2015). Tourism highlights. <http://www.eunwto.org.bibproxy.ulpgc.es/doi/book/10.18111/9789284416899>
- Warrington, E. (1994). A capacity for policy management: re-appraising the context in micro-states. *Asian Journal of Public Administration*, 16(1), 109-133. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02598272.1994.10800289>
- Wernerfelt, B. (1988). Umbrella branding as a signal of new product quality: an example of signalling by posting a bond. *The Rand Journal of Economics*, 19(3), 458-466. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2555667>
- World Tourism Organization (2014). Panorama OMT del turismo internacional.
- Yousaf, A., Amin, I., & Gupta, A. (2017). Conceptualising tourist based brand-equity pyramid: an application of Keller brand pyramid model to destinations. *Tourism and Hospitality Management*, 23(1), 119-137. <https://doi.org/10.20867/thm.23.1.1>

