

1 **Identifying Structural Asymmetries by Jointly Estimating Tourism Expenditure Intensity and**  
2 **Extensity**

3 **Authors:**

4 <sup>a</sup>Usamah F. Alfarhan†, <sup>b</sup>Khaldoon Nusair, <sup>c</sup>Fevzi Okumus, <sup>d</sup>S.R. Nikhashemi

6 **Affiliations and email addresses:**

7 <sup>a</sup>Department of Accounting, Economics and Finance, Haile College of Business, Northern  
8 Kentucky University, Nunn Drive, Highland Heights, KY 41099, USA; [alfarhanu1@nku.edu](mailto:alfarhanu1@nku.edu).

9 † Corresponding author

10 ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7226-9402>

11

12 <sup>b</sup>Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management, University of South Alabama, USA;  
13 [knusair@southalabama.edu](mailto:knusair@southalabama.edu).

14 ORCID: <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-9545-3947>

15

16 <sup>c</sup>Rosen College of Hospitality Management, University of Central Florida, USA;  
17 [fevzi.Okumus@ucf.edu](mailto:fevzi.Okumus@ucf.edu).

18 ORCID: <http://orcid.org/0000-0001-8670-9720>

19

20 <sup>d</sup>Marketing Department, Oxford Brookes University, UK; [farhadn@brookes.ac.uk](mailto:farhadn@brookes.ac.uk).

21 ORCID: <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-0763-1900>

22 **Abstract**

23 This article proposes a structural framework for the joint estimation of tourists' daily personal  
24 expenditures (intensity) and length of stay (extensity). We reconceptualize commonly accepted  
25 exogeneous determinants of both outcomes into a set of exogenous antecedents pre-existing  
26 the travel decision and a set of endogenous mediators that capture the role of market exchange  
27 after the travel decision and corresponding choices are made. Findings reveal that the effects of  
28 some exogenous factors, such as gender, income and motives on total spending are fully  
29 mediated within the intensity and extensity components, absent of any direct impacts. Other  
30 factors, such as nationality, appear not to influence spending due to offsetting mediated effects.  
31 As these forces are difficult to discern via reduced-form modeling, the proposed structural  
32 framework provides tourism managers with deeper insight into the footprints of established  
33 expenditure determinants, potentially improving upon the efficacy of marketing strategies.

34

35 **Keywords:** Tourism expenditure; Length of stay; Structural equations; Modeling.

36 **JEL Classification:** C51; D11; D12; Z33.

## 37 **1. Introduction**

38 Inbound tourism expenditure at a destination is considered among the most important  
39 aggregates to tourism policy makers and marketers. Therefore, the determination of the  
40 expenditure decision has been widely investigated over the past four decades, where literature  
41 acknowledges tourists' socioeconomic characteristics, trip-specific choices and psychological  
42 attributes as viable proxies for their willingness and ability to pay (Mortazavi and Lundberg,  
43 2020), and therefore, as relevant predictors that exogenously determine subsequent tourism  
44 expenditure levels, see Marcussen (2011), Brida and Scuderi (2013) and Mehran and Olya (2019).  
45 Length of stay, among the most scrutinized trip-specific determinants of expenditure, is  
46 frequently found to be endogenously determined by the same family of antecedents that  
47 determine spending (Alegre et al., 2011; Gómez-Déniz and Pérez-Rodríguez, 2019; Vieira et al.,  
48 2021; and Jackman and Naitram, 2023), leading to concerns over the consistency and  
49 unbiasedness of coefficients estimated without regard to the potential endogeneity of this  
50 important decision. Accordingly, literature has taken potential endogeneity of length of stay into  
51 consideration via IV regression as in Thrane (2015) or by means of structural equation modeling  
52 as in the case of Seiler et al. (2003), Vetitnev (2015) and Štefko et al. (2022). Further, in a rather  
53 insightful exposition, Aguiló et al. (2017) propose a framework for jointly estimating tourists' daily  
54 expenditure (intensity) and their length of stay (extensity) via reduced-form models. A  
55 fundamental outcome of this process is the ability to disentangle the contributions of any  
56 exogenous determinant to tourists' daily spending and stay duration.

57

58 This paper contributes to the understanding of tourism expenditure in two main ways. First, we  
59 suggest a theoretical framework that reconceptualizes commonly accepted exogenous  
60 expenditure antecedents (i.e., socioeconomic, trip-specific and psychological) into an  
61 exogeneous set of variables that pre-exist the travel decision and a set of endogenous variables  
62 that are essential travel-related choices which would not exist if the travel decision and  
63 experience did not occur. The premise is that an exogenous aspect like income, a widely reported  
64 proxy for tourists' ability to pay, may not exert any direct impact on spending, rather a mediated

65 impact via some conceptually endogenous travel-related choice, such as booking an  
66 accommodation. Theoretically, this reconceptualization is justified because willingness and  
67 ability to pay can only result in de facto monetary outlays via market exchange. With the  
68 exception of some studies, such as those accounting for the endogeneity of length of stay, most  
69 literature models all determinants exogenously, where a host of proxies for tourists' willingness  
70 and ability to pay directly determine expenditure in reduced-form regressions, see Marcussen  
71 (2011), Brida and Scuderi (2013) and Mehran and Olya (2019).

72

73 Second, we extend Aguiló et al. (2017)'s joint estimation of expenditure intensity and extensity  
74 into a structural process, using our framework that captures the aforementioned  
75 reconceptualization. Whilst maintaining their articulation that total tourism expenditure is the  
76 product of daily spending and length of stay, our framework identifies structural paths in the  
77 determination of the corresponding intensity and extensity components. For example, in Aguiló  
78 et al. (2017), the impact of, say tourists' nationalities, on total expenditure can be decomposed  
79 into direct effects on their daily spending and length of stay. Our proposed framework, on the  
80 other hand, shows how the impact of such a variable is more likely to be mediated by a number  
81 of endogenous travel-related choices. This, in turn, provides tourism marketers with additional  
82 information on the footprints of expenditure determinants that could underlie the design of  
83 more targeted and better-informed tourism products and packages.

84

85 As exogenous variables, we include a well-established group of observed socioeconomic  
86 characteristics of tourists', namely age, gender, nationality, income and marital status, and a  
87 number of latent psychological travel motives extracted via principal component analysis, namely  
88 self-deployment and relationship, escape and relaxation, novelty and isolation and security,  
89 following Pearce and Lee (2005). Furthermore, we include the Legatum Prosperity Index™ for  
90 tourists' countries of residence as an additional proxy for their unobserved targeted utilities. The  
91 rationale is that a higher level of prosperity at the country of residence is associated positively  
92 with the level of utility targeted by an individual tourist, which is a latent variable. Higher targeted  
93 utility entails higher expenditures, ceteris paribus. Therefore, prosperity at the country of

94 residence can be considered an exogenous observed proxy for latent consumer preferences,  
95 which could be mediated via market exchange into tourism expenditure. For more details, please  
96 see Olya and Mehran (2017) and Alfarhan et al. (2022c).

97  
98 As for our endogenous travel-related choices and behaviors, we include the tourism planning  
99 horizon, purchase of a tourism package, transportation and accommodation choices and the  
100 number of sites visited. Results show notable asymmetries in the determination of tourists'  
101 expenditure intensity and extensity decisions, ones that could not be revealed by reduced-form  
102 models. For instance, reduced form least squares regression would conclude that our nationality  
103 variable affects total expenditures exclusively via its direct positive impact on the extensity  
104 component. Our structural framework, on the other hand, reveals fully mediated effects on  
105 expenditure intensity via tourists' transportation and accommodation choices, in addition to a  
106 partially mediated effect on expenditure extensity via the number of sites visited. Therefore, the  
107 results from this structural framework provide tourism marketers with deeper insights into the  
108 choices and behaviors of their tourist population, which are likely to increase the efficacy of  
109 subsequent marketing strategies in terms of revenue generation.

110  
111 In what follows, we review the literature and present our theoretical framework. We then  
112 provide a description of the employed data set and explain the implemented empirical method.  
113 Thereafter we discuss our results and conclude with a discussion of this article's implications and  
114 limitations, as well as some direction for future research.

115  
116 **2. Literature**  
117 Despite the relevance of tourism expenditure to industry development and growth from a  
118 macroeconomic perspective (Fleischer and Rivlin, 2009; Benkraiem et al., 2021), tourism  
119 consumption decisions, such as daily spending and length of stay originate at the microeconomic  
120 level. Therefore, reviews of the literature over the past four decades have concluded that most  
121 studies on the tourism expenditure decision and behavior are applied microeconomic analyses,  
122 fundamentally modeling expenditure determination (Wang and Davidson, 2010; Sainaghi, 2012;

123 Brida and Scuderi, 2013, Mudarra-Fernández et al., 2019; Štefko et al., 2020). For instance, in a  
124 seminal article, Marcussen (2011) examines 55 cross sectional studies published during the  
125 period of 1995 – 2009. The author highlights that tourism expenditure is defined into four  
126 combinations according to the level of aggregation (per person or per travel party) and time span  
127 (per night or per stay). These combinations are found to be confined to four expenditure types,  
128 namely transportation, accommodation, other local expenditures and total spending. As for the  
129 determination of spending, the author concludes 18 exogeneous socioeconomic and trip-specific  
130 determinants.

131  
132 Additionally, Brida and Scuderi (2013) review 86 publications during the period of 1977 – 2012,  
133 confirming that tourism expenditure has mostly been modeled using tourists' socioeconomic and  
134 trip-specific characteristics as exogenous determinants and highlighting the scarcity of studies  
135 incorporating psychological attributes. Consequently, relevant aspects such as satisfaction, travel  
136 motives and personality traits have more frequently been incorporated in recent contributions,  
137 (Lam-González et al., 2021; Perles-Ribes et al., 2021; Alfarhan et al., 2022a; Bernini and Galli 2022;  
138 Štefko et al., 2022). Their review also recognizes innovation in modeling as a challenging future  
139 direction, along with further attempts to support the theoretical assumptions underlying  
140 modeling exercises.

141  
142 Mehran and Olya (2019) introduce a shift in the paradigm of outbound tourism expenditure from  
143 an advocacy to a sustainability platform. In their narrative/systemic review of 52 articles during  
144 the period 2007 – 2017, they define the complexity of tourism expenditure in terms of  
145 determination, theoretical underpinnings, methods of analysis and context. Accordingly, they  
146 stress that the determination of expenditure is not limited to traditional socioeconomic, trip-  
147 specific and psychological factors, but extends to other pressing elements such as security,  
148 politics, prosperity and climate change. They highlight the significance of non-economic theories,  
149 such as social theories (Wong et al., 2016) and complexity theory that accounts for asymmetric  
150 relationships (Olya and Mehran, 2017) as valid frameworks. Despite their recognition of recent  
151 methodological innovation (Mehran and Olya, 2019), the authors seem to confirm that the

152 corpus of studies remains reliant on destination-specific, individual-level, cross-sectional,  
153 symmetric approaches such as linear and logistic regression analysis. According to Rosselló-Nadal  
154 (2022), however, it should be noted that due to prevalent differences in the measurement of  
155 tourism demand (e.g., expenditures, receipts and numbers of tourists), elasticity values from  
156 different models cannot be compared.

157

158 Middle Eastern destinations, such as Oman and other states of the Gulf Cooperation Council,  
159 attract little attention from scholars, see Mehran and Olya (2019). This is particularly true for  
160 microeconomic analyses, perhaps explained by the difficulty in obtaining disaggregated  
161 secondary data on the region. Saleh et al. (2020), who review 23 articles published during 2002  
162 – 2019 confirm that observation by concluding that articles on this region are mostly  
163 investigations of macroeconomic themes, where tourism planning and development is dominant.  
164 Tourism in Oman, despite the fastest growing sector in the GCC in terms of international arrivals  
165 during 1995 – 2019, has attracted the lowest share of attention. Only one article addresses this  
166 destination exclusively, by discussing the country's sea turtle tourism (Busaidi et al., 2019).  
167 Hence, this article further contributes to the discussion on tourism development in Oman with a  
168 microeconomic perspective.

169

170 When it comes to empirical literature on modeling the tourism expenditure decision, reduced-  
171 form, linear regression is a common approach, likely due to its practicality and ease of  
172 interpretation. Such studies, nonetheless, vary in terms of how expenditure is defined. A  
173 significant number of authors prefer modeling total personal expenditure during the entire trip  
174 duration as outcome variable, see (Kozak, 2001; Downward and Lumsdon, 2003; Laesser and  
175 Crouch, 2006; Santos and Vieira, 2012, Thrane and Farstad, 2012; Thrane, 2016; Massidda et al.,  
176 2022). Such studies handle expenditure intensity and extensity as one aggregated quantity.  
177 Others, such as Perez and Sampol (2000), Wang et al. (2006), Apostolakis and Jaffry (2009),  
178 Marrocu et al. (2015), Serra et al. (2015) use daily personal expenditure, thereby acknowledging  
179 that daily spending and length of stay are two different decisions, albeit interrelated. This, in turn,  
180 gives rise to the analysis of length of stay independently, such as the works of De Menezes et al.

181 (2008), Barros and Machado (2010), Thrane and Farstad (2012), Montaña et al. (2019), Vieira et  
182 al. (2021) and Atsız et al. (2022). Whether modeling daily spending or length of stay, literature  
183 repeatedly reports measures of tourists' socioeconomic characteristics, trip-specific choices and  
184 psychological attributes as valid exogenous determinants of both decisions, thereby lending  
185 collective support to reduced-form modeling of both decisions as one construct in the form of  
186 total expenditure, without disentangling potential asymmetries in the two processes. Therefore,  
187 this paper attempts to highlight such asymmetries in pursuit of a more detailed understanding  
188 of both decisions and, consequently, better-informed marketing strategies.

189

190 From an empirical perspective, Thrane (2014) demonstrates via data drawn from Norwegian  
191 domestic tourists that best-practice econometrics implies expressing total expenditure in  
192 logarithmic form, thereby mitigating heteroscedasticity and reducing the effect of outliers.  
193 Moreover, it is a matter of good modeling to pay sufficient attention to potential nonlinearities  
194 and the endogeneity of, for example, length of stay (Thrane and Farstad, 2011; Thrane, 2015).  
195 Recently, studies increasingly revert to methods other than traditional ordinary least squares  
196 estimation, accounting for considerations including endogeneity, heterogeneity, mediation and  
197 the types of outcome variables' distributions. For example, Nicolau and Mas (2005), Engström  
198 and Kipperberg (2015), Aguiló et al. (2017) and Gómez-Déniz et al. (2020) employ two-stage least  
199 squares, weighted least squares, robust least squares and maximum likelihood models in the  
200 estimation of total personal expenditure data. Also, Pouta et al. (2006), Alegre et al. (2011), Wu  
201 et al. (2013) and Baño Tovar (2021) use logistic regression, skewed logistic and multivariate tobit  
202 modeling to account for the non-normality in the distribution of expenditures. In that realm,  
203 Gómez-Déniz et al. (2021) address the non-normality concern by proposing a reparameterization  
204 of the three-parameter log-skew normal distribution for modeling tourists' expenditure at the  
205 country of origin, destination, and total expenditure in a tourism setting. They find the proposed  
206 model well suited to capture possible skewness and kurtosis, as well as the likely long tail to the  
207 right in expenditure distributions. Furthermore, Baños-Pino et al. (2022) employ a tobit model  
208 with an inverse hyperbolic sine transformation of the dependent variable, also to address  
209 concerns about the normality and extreme values of the expenditure distribution. They find that

210 atmospheric conditions, measured by the Tourism Climate Index and the Psychologically  
211 Equivalent Temperature, influence onshore expenditures of cruise ship passengers positively.

212

213 Additionally, Santos and Vieira (2012), Almeida and Garrod (2017), Sharma et al. (2020), Park  
214 (2020) and Pérez-Rodríguez and Ladesma-Rodríguez (2021) use conditional and unconditional  
215 quantile regression analysis to handle heteroscedasticity and non-normally distributed outcome  
216 variables. To control for heteroscedasticity in the presence of endogeneity, Bernini and Galli  
217 (2022) implement IV quantile regression to estimate the effect of satisfaction on the  
218 expenditures of Italian tourists traveling abroad. They find evidence on satisfaction having a  
219 nonlinear impact on expenditures, with relevant differences across different recession periods.  
220 Alfarhan et al. (2022b) and Alfarhan and Nusair (2022), on the other hand, introduce conditional  
221 counterfactual quantile decomposition analysis to the tourism literature, for the purpose of  
222 identifying the effects of noncompetitive market structures and information asymmetry on  
223 expenditure patterns and differentials.

224

225 With respect to literature considering personal daily spending, Marrocu (2015) employs  
226 conditional quantile regression on data from Italy, Eugenio-Martin and Inchausti-Sintes (2016)  
227 and Correia et al. (2018) implement 3SLS, GMM and binary logistic models with Spanish and  
228 Portuguese data, and Mortazavi and Lundberg (2020) employ finite fixed mixtures modeling to  
229 analyze expenditure data from the Italian tourism industry. It is fair to say that regardless of the  
230 modeling strategy and tourism market, a tourist's nationality, income, travel experience, party  
231 size, accommodation and transportation choice, length of stay, types of activities and  
232 psychological antecedents such as satisfaction and motivation are established exogenous  
233 determinants of tourism spending.

234

235 Other exploratory methods for analyzing tourism expenditure data are imbedded in machine  
236 learning. For example, Díaz-Pérez et al. (2005) and Svensson et al. (2011) use decision trees in  
237 exploring expenditure patterns at mature tourism destinations in Spain, to identify the  
238 antecedents and niches associated with higher levels of spending. Alternatively, Abbruzzo et al.



239 (2014) introduce decomposable graphical log-linear models that synthesize and visualize the  
240 relationships between tourism expenditure and its potential antecedents within large data sets  
241 using information on international tourists to Uruguay. Furthermore, Brida et al. (2018) employ  
242 parametric techniques with Lasso penalty and nonparametric techniques such as Random Forest,  
243 indicating that the latter is most robust in terms of predicting total tourism expenditures. Lasso  
244 regression is also employed by Almeida and Garrod (2022) to determine which expenditure  
245 determinants mostly overlap over five tourism events in Madeira. They argue that Lasso is  
246 appropriate for handling high-dimensional models with censored data, as expenditures at a  
247 destination are necessarily non-zero. They find that income, length of stay and party size are  
248 significant determinants across all events. More recently, Rubina Nava et al. (2023) implement a  
249 two-step process using macro-level data to identify the highest-spending European leisure and  
250 business travelers over time. In the first step, the Country Product Dummy is used to analyze  
251 leisure and business travel expenditures, aggregated by tourists' countries of origin. In the second  
252 step, and based on the Ward's method and the Country Product Dummies estimated before, a  
253 hierarchical cluster analysis is performed, due to the reduced number of observations and the  
254 authors' interest in studying the agglomeration process. Their results reveal travelers from  
255 Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Ireland, Luxemburg and Switzerland as top leisure  
256 travel spenders. For business travel, the Netherlands joins the aforementioned group of  
257 countries.

258

259 Given the complexity of the relationships between tourism expenditure and its determinants,  
260 Brida et al. (2022) employ compositional data analysis and Dirichlet regression to account for the  
261 interactions between covariates in the context of modeling tourism expenditure allocation in  
262 Uruguay. Their results show that the pattern of tourism expenditures on major categories, such  
263 as food and accommodation, depends on destination-specific attributes, such as season,  
264 accommodation type, tourists' typologies and nationalities. Furthermore, by means of  
265 hierarchical spatial modeling, Artal-Tur et al. (2022) highlight that destination-specific contextual  
266 and local neighborhood effects account for about one-half of the variance in tourists'  
267 expenditures at developed Spanish destinations.

268

269 Literature that investigates the potential direct and indirect impacts is also found to employ  
270 structural equation modeling and path analysis. In that realm, using data from the Taiwanese  
271 market, Seiler et al. (2003) find that length of stay mediates the effects of household income,  
272 travel party size and travel purpose on total tourism expenditure, while directly causing  
273 expenditures to increase. Vetitnev (2015) also finds that length of stay mediates the effects of  
274 source of payment, satisfaction, income, accommodation and resort type on total personal  
275 tourism expenditure, whereas travel distance, party size and holiday organization mode only  
276 exert direct effects on spending in the Russian resort industry. Also, Štefko et al. (2022)  
277 investigate the impact of psychological characteristics on expenditure levels using data on  
278 outbound Slovak tourists. The authors find that attributes such as spending propensity, tightwad  
279 and thrift do not influence expenditure levels directly, and that length of stay mediates the effect  
280 of tightwad, at best, weakly.

281

282 This article falls within the category of papers that employ structural equation modeling. But  
283 instead of considering length of stay as an endogenous mediator within the determination of  
284 total expenditures, we join Aguiló et al. (2017) by thinking of both daily spending and length of  
285 stay as endogenous outcome variables. Yet, we propose that the determination of daily spending  
286 and length of stay is contingent on the direct and mediated effects of antecedents that pre-exist  
287 the travel experience, thereby exclusively defined as exogenous. The proposed modeling process  
288 reveals structural asymmetries in the determination of expenditure intensity and extensity that  
289 cannot be assessed via reduced-form estimation.

290

### 291 **3. Theoretical framework**

292 In contrast with the theoretical foundations to the empirical estimation of tourism expenditures  
293 in most literature, where tourists' socioeconomic characteristics, trip-specific choices and  
294 psychological attributes are used as exogenous proxies for their latent preferences (Marcussen,  
295 2011; Brida and Scuderi, 2013; Mehran and Olya; 2019, Štefko et al., 2020), we distinguish  
296 between variables such as a tourist's age, gender, income, nationality, motivations and

297 prosperity, which pre-exist the travel decision and actual travel engagement, and variables that  
298 only exist because a decision to travel has been made and pursued, such as purchase of a tourism  
299 package, the choice of transportation mode, accommodation and the number of sites visited at  
300 the destination. Accordingly, we confine the approximation of tourists' latent exogenous  
301 preferences to the former set of variables and consider the latter a set of mediating behavioral  
302 and market-related choices that transform the effect of their willingness and ability to pay into  
303 de facto daily monetary outlays and days spent at the destination.

304  
305 As shown in Figure 1, our theoretical framework provides the flexibility of uncovering potential  
306 asymmetries in the structural processes of determining expenditure intensity (upper left-hand  
307 circle) and expenditure extensity (upper right-hand circle), whilst allowing for the verification of  
308 the internal consistency of these two processes by estimating the aggregate exogenous and  
309 mediated effects on total personal expenditure (lower circle). For example, the sum of the direct  
310 effects of income on daily expenditure and length of stay must equal the direct effect of income  
311 on total expenditure. Likewise, the sum of the indirect effects of income on daily expenditure  
312 and length of stay as mediated by, say accommodation choice, must equal the indirect effect of  
313 income on total expenditure as mediated by accommodation choice.

314  
315 **INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE**

316  
317 **4. Data**

318 This article combines primary survey data collected from 1174 international tourists to Oman  
319 during January to March of 2019, with the Legatum Prosperity Index<sup>TM1</sup>. We do so by merging  
320 the Legatum Prosperity Index<sup>TM</sup> of 2019 with our data set via the tourist's self-reported country  
321 of residence. This enables us to account for the complex aspect of tourists' prosperity levels as a  
322 proxy for their preferences, instead of relying exclusively on self-reported socioeconomic  
323 characteristics. That is because prosperity at the country of residence is more likely to form an

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<sup>1</sup> Visit <https://www.prosperity.com/about/resources> for the **2021 Full Data Set – Legatum Prosperity Index**. Last accessed on May 22<sup>nd</sup>, 2023.

324 individual's consumption environment and choices, hence expectations and behavior, than a  
325 simple construct such as nationality. Our nationality variable is an identifier of a tourist being of  
326 European origin, given that most tourists to Oman are either Britons, French or Germans who  
327 belong to the highest internationally in terms of outbound expenditure, see Alfarhan et al.  
328 (2022b). It is also intended to capture effects that prosperity at the country of residence would  
329 not be able to, such as the historical ties with the UK, or the large tourism flows between Oman  
330 and Germany.

331  
332 International inbound tourists were surveyed at the exit gates of Oman's main airport, Muscat  
333 International Airport (MCT), before departure. As mentioned by Aguiló et al. (2017), airport  
334 surveys in this type of research are suitable as tourists may still have a good recall of their tourism  
335 experience and expenditures and are more likely to have the time to thoroughly respond to  
336 survey questions while waiting for departure. In the context of tourism in Oman, MCT is the  
337 country's main entry and exit point for international travelers, which contributes to the  
338 representativeness of our collected data. For a more detailed discussion of this aspect, see  
339 Alfarhan et al. (2022a).

340

#### 341 **4.1. Tourists' pre-travel motives**

342 As a first step, we follow Pearce and Lee (2005) to construct measurements for tourists' latent  
343 travel motives by applying a principal component analysis of their responses to the question: "In  
344 considering your current trip to Oman, how important was it to you that you [item]" for each of  
345 the 15 items shown in Table 1 on a five-points Likert scale. Items 1 – 3 loaded on escape and  
346 relaxation with an interim Cronbach's alpha of 0.83 and an eigenvalue of 5.03. Items 4 – 8 loaded  
347 on self-deployment and relationship with an interim Cronbach's alpha of 0.85 and an eigenvalue  
348 of 2.12. Items 9 – 12 loaded on novelty and isolation with an interim Cronbach's alpha of 0.72  
349 and an eigenvalue of 1.54 and items 13 – 15 loaded on security with an interim Cronbach's alpha  
350 of 0.68 and an eigenvalue of 1.08. The analysis rendered a fraction of explained variance of 65.2%,  
351 a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin statistic for sampling adequacy of 0.84 and an overall scale reliability  
352 coefficient of 0.85, all within statistically acceptable ranges. Although Pearce and Lee (2005) only

353 retain factor loadings that are equal to, or higher than 0.40, we decided to keep the two items of  
354 “visiting historical sites” and “experience solitude and privacy” with loadings of 0.351 and 0.353  
355 for two main reasons. First, these loadings remain above the threshold of 0.30 as defined by Hair  
356 et al. (2009) for larger sample sizes. Second, perhaps more importantly, the two items loaded  
357 consistently with Pearce and Lee’s (2005) components of self-deployment (host-site  
358 involvement) and isolation, respectively, from a qualitative perspective.

359

360 **INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE**

361

362 We next restrict our sample to individuals who reported leisure tourism as their travel purpose,  
363 stayed for a period between three to fourteen days to exclude unreasonably lengthy stays within  
364 a traditional tourism context, and stated spending within budget a priority to account for tourists’  
365 mental budgeting and expenditure minimization behaviors. Consequently, 888 observations are  
366 retained.

367

#### 368 **4.2. Descriptive statistics**

369 Expenditure intensity is defined by a tourist’s daily expenditure including airfare in US\$ ( $Y_i^I$ ) and  
370 extensity by length of stay in days ( $Y_i^E$ ). In addition, we consider total personal trip expenditures  
371 in US\$ ( $Y_i^T$ ) as an outcome variable that combines the intensity and extensity aspects. As shown  
372 in Table 2, tourists spend on average \$338.6 per day and stay for an average of 7 days. Our  
373 exogenous variables ( $X_{ki}$ ) can be grouped into five typical socioeconomic variables, four travel  
374 motives and prosperity at the tourist’s country of origin. The average respondent is 45 years old,  
375 about 49% are males and 79% are European nationals. Further, about 76% of tourists are married  
376 individuals and 26% earn an annual income higher than the U.S. median household income of  
377 \$68.7 thousand in 2019, (Semega, 2020).

378

379 Considering tourists’ travel motives, the average scale measures for security and for self-  
380 deployment and relationship are 4.24 and 4.22 out of five, respectively. Considering Oman an  
381 emerging tourist destination in the Middle East, tourists appear reasonably motivated by physical

382 and financial security considerations and by the acquisition and sharing of new experiences with  
383 family and friends. Additionally, given that the sample is restricted to leisure tourists, the scale  
384 measures for escape and relaxation, 4.01, and for novelty and isolation, 3.63, are relatively high  
385 as well. Moreover, within this sample, the average Legatum Prosperity Index for tourists'  
386 countries of residence is 75.85. For context, international Legatum Prosperity Indices in 2019  
387 ranged from 11.3 (Eritrea) to 97.1 (Denmark) with a standard deviation of 17.4 points. Hence,  
388 leisure tourists to Oman reside in relatively highly prosperous countries.

389

390 **INSERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE**

391

392 For our endogenous, behavioral and market-related mediators ( $M_{it}$ ), we employ five common  
393 trip-specific characteristics, namely the tourists' planning horizon, purchase of a tourism  
394 package, travel mode, accommodation choice and the number of sites visited at the destination.  
395 As a behavioral aspect, we distinguish between tourists who plan for a relatively longer time  
396 horizon and those who do not, using a two-months period as threshold, see Zalatan (1996) and  
397 Kozak (2001). About 47% of tourists planned two months or longer for their trip and 22%  
398 purchased an all-inclusive tourism package. Over 90% of them used economy-class, chartered  
399 flights and about 74% booked either four- or five-star hotels. Finally, tourists in this sample visited  
400 on average five sites.

401

402 In contrast with the majority of the literature on tourism expenditures, where socioeconomic,  
403 trip-specific and psychological variables are modeled as exogenous, we stipulate that trip-specific  
404 characteristics mediate the effects of tourists' exogenous socioeconomic and psychological  
405 attributes on expenditure intensity and extensity, albeit asymmetrically.

406

## 407 **5. Method**

408 We extend the decomposition structure proposed by Aguiló et al. (2017) to be estimated via  
409 maximum-likelihood, structural equation modeling. As highlighted by Loehlin and Beaujean  
410 (2017), structural equation analysis comes in forms when all variables are observed and also

411 when some are not. In our case, travel motives are latent constructs, principally linear composites  
 412 of observed survey items, which underlie and explain the observed correlations. The advantages  
 413 of this methodological exercise are two-fold. First, it provides more insight into the footprints of  
 414 estimated effects, and second, it better accommodates the nature and roles of different  
 415 expenditure determinants as exogenous or endogenous mediators, conceptually and empirically.  
 416 Thereby, this approach may provide further intuition into subsequent policy making.

417  
 418 Aguiló et al. (2017) propose the reduced-form decomposition of total tourism expenditure into  
 419 the following intensity and extensity components:

$$420 \ln Y_i^T = \ln Y_i^I + \ln Y_i^E \quad \forall i \in N \quad (1),$$

421 where:

$$422 \ln Y_i^I = \gamma_0^I + \sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_k^I X_{ki} + z_i \quad \forall i \in N \quad (2),$$

$$423 \ln Y_i^E = \gamma_0^E + \sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_k^E X_{ki} + v_i \quad \forall i \in N \quad (3),$$

$$424 \ln Y_i^T = \gamma_0^T + \sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_k^T X_{ki} + u_i \quad \forall i \in N \quad (4).$$

425  
 426 In Eq. (2) and Eq. (3) above,  $Y_i^I$  measures personal daily tourism expenditure and  $Y_i^E$  measures  
 427 length of stay. The vector of all-exogenous antecedents  $X_{ki}$  includes tourists' incomes as a  
 428 measurement of their ability to spend, along with a group of socioeconomic characteristics  
 429 approximating tastes, hence their willingness to spend. The parameters  $\gamma_0^I$  and  $\gamma_0^E$  are the  
 430 regressions' constants and  $\alpha_k^I$  and  $\alpha_k^E$  are the expenditure intensity and extensity propensities,  
 431 respectively. Finally,  $z_i$  and  $v_i$  denote the robust least squares error terms with zero means and  
 432 constant variances. Aguiló et al. (2017) demonstrate that  $\gamma_0^I + \gamma_0^E = \gamma_0^T$  and  $\alpha_k^I + \alpha_k^E = \alpha_k^T \forall k \in$   
 433  $K$ . These equalities imply that for any given exogenous expenditure determinant  $k$ , such as  
 434 income, the total effect can be decomposed into an exclusively direct effect on the average  
 435 tourist's daily expenditure and length of stay as two independent tourism-related decisions.

436  
 437 Intuitively, a tourist's ability and willingness to spend can only materialize into de facto monetary  
 438 outlays and days spent at a given destination after they decide to travel and act upon this decision  
 439 via engagement in various markets for tourism products. Estimating this structural process in

440 reduced form collapses it into a single set of direct effects, which is perhaps an oversimplification.  
 441 Instead, we propose structural equation modeling as a simple alternative, where the ability and  
 442 willingness to spend are approximated by tourists' exogenous socioeconomic characteristics,  
 443 travel motives and prosperity ( $X_{ki}$ ) and where the trip-specific, market-related choices ( $M_{li}$ )  
 444 endogenously mediate the effects of ability and willingness onto expenditure intensity ( $\ln Y_i^I$ )  
 445 and extensity ( $\ln Y_i^E$ ).

446

447 Accordingly, Eq. (2), Eq. (3) and Eq. (4) may be rewritten as:

$$448 \quad M_{li} = \gamma_{0l} + \sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_{kl} X_{ki} + e_i \quad \forall i \in N \text{ and } l \in L \quad (5),$$

$$449 \quad \ln Y_i^I = \gamma_0^I + \sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_k^I X_{ki} + \sum_{l=1}^L \beta_l^I M_{li} + z_i \quad \forall i \in N \quad (6),$$

$$450 \quad \ln Y_i^E = \gamma_0^E + \sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_k^E X_{ki} + \sum_{l=1}^L \beta_l^E M_{li} + v_i \quad \forall i \in N \quad (7),$$

$$451 \quad \ln Y_i^T = \gamma_0^T + \sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_k^T X_{ki} + \sum_{l=1}^L \beta_l^T M_{li} + u_i \quad \forall i \in N \quad (8),$$

452 where:

$$453 \quad \gamma_0^T = \gamma_0^I + \gamma_0^E \quad (9),$$

$$454 \quad \alpha_k^T = \alpha_k^I + \alpha_k^E \quad \forall k \in K \quad (10),$$

$$455 \quad \beta_l^T = \beta_l^I + \beta_l^E \quad \forall l \in L \quad (11),$$

456 and

$$457 \quad \sum_{l=1}^L \gamma_{0l} \beta_l^T = \sum_{l=1}^L \gamma_{0l} \beta_l^I + \sum_{l=1}^L \gamma_{0l} \beta_l^E \quad (12),$$

$$458 \quad \sum_{l=1}^L \alpha_{kl} \beta_l^T = \sum_{l=1}^L \alpha_{kl} \beta_l^I + \sum_{l=1}^L \alpha_{kl} \beta_l^E \quad \forall k \in K \quad (13).$$

459

460 Eq. (5) estimates the direct effects of the exogenous variables on each of the endogenous  
 461 mediators and Eq. (6), Eq. (7) and Eq. (8) are the structural equivalents to Eq. (2), Eq. (3) and Eq.  
 462 (4), respectively. Analogously to Aguiló et al. (2017), Eq. (9) to Eq. (11) express the decomposition  
 463 of the direct effects, whereas Eq. (12) and Eq (13) represent the decomposition of the mediated  
 464 effects that the previous authors do not account for. Hence, we extend their framework such  
 465 that for any given exogenous determinant  $k$ , e.g., income, the total effect can be decomposed  
 466 into a direct and an indirect effect on the average tourist's daily expenditure and length of stay  
 467 as two independent tourism-related decisions.

468



## 469 6. Empirical results

470 The following discussion is based on the structural estimation results reported in Table 3.  
471 Unshaded cells report the matrix of parameter estimates ( $\alpha_{kl}$ ) for all  $k \in K$  and  $l \in L$ , along  
472 with their corresponding observed information matrix (OIM) standard errors -in parentheses- of  
473 Eq. (5). Shaded cells on right-hand-side of the table report the parameter estimates ( $\alpha_k^g$ ) and  
474 ( $\beta_l^g$ ) where ( $g = I, E, T$ ) and their corresponding standard errors of Eq. (6), Eq. (7) and Eq. (8),  
475 respectively.

476  
477 Whereas the additive properties described by Eq. (9) to Eq. (12) hold in aggregate, the  
478 subsequent discussion is based exclusively on the bolded statistically significant parameters.  
479 With this in mind, the percentage contribution of the mediated-to-total effect of any given  
480 exogenous variable  $k$  is calculated as  $\left[ \left( \frac{\sum_{l=1}^L \alpha_{kl} \beta_l^g}{\sum_{l=1}^L \alpha_{kl} \beta_l^g + \alpha_k^g} \right) \cdot 100\% \right]$  where ( $g = I, E, T$ ), whereas the

481 percentage contribution of the direct-to-total effect is calculated as  $\left[ \left( \frac{\alpha_k^g}{\sum_{l=1}^L \alpha_{kl} \beta_l^g + \alpha_k^g} \right) \cdot 100\% \right]$ .

482 Further, the interpretation of the coefficients of dummy variables follows Halvorsen and  
483 Palmquist (1980), where the effect equals  $[(e^{coefficient} - 1) \cdot 100\%]$ .

484

### 485 6.1. Structural estimation of expenditure intensity

486 Transportation and accommodation constitute valid mediators for expenditure intensity. As  
487 reported in the bottom right corner of Table 3 under Eq. (6), results indicate that flying economy  
488 aboard chartered carriers reduces daily personal expenditures by 25.2%,  $[(e^{-0.29} - 1) \cdot 100\%]$   
489 and staying at a four- or five-star hotel increases daily expenditures by 35.9%,  $[(e^{0.307} - 1) \cdot$   
490  $100\%]$ . Given that older tourists are less likely to fly economy and more likely to stay at higher-  
491 starred accommodations, the statistically significant mediated effect of age accounts for 23.5%  
492 of the total effect and the direct effect accounts for 76.5%. Age has, nonetheless a negligible total  
493 impact of 1% on daily expenditures. Europeans are more likely to fly economy and stay at higher-  
494 starred hotels, leading the two mediating effects to offset each other. In the absence of any direct  
495 effect, belonging to the group of European tourists reduces daily expenditures by 1.2%, fully  
496 mediated via transportation and accommodation. Marital status is only mediated via

497 accommodation with a positive contribution of 17.4% that is offset by an overwhelming direct  
498 effect. Being married reduces daily personal expenditures by 17.4%. Higher income, on the other  
499 hand, decreases the probability of flying economy and increases the probability of staying at a  
500 higher-starred hotel with no direct influence on daily expenditures. Consequently, the effect of  
501 earning higher than the median U.S. annual income is fully mediated, causing daily expenditures  
502 to increase by 5.5%.

503

504 With respect to tourists' motivations, self-deployment exerts only a direct effect, causing daily  
505 personal tourism expenditures to increase by 7.2%. The effect of escape and relaxation, on the  
506 other hand, is fully mediated via accommodation choice, leading to an increase in daily personal  
507 expenditure by a negligible 1.1%. Further, security decreases the likelihood of staying in a higher-  
508 starred hotel with no direct effect on expenditure intensity. Whereas this may sound  
509 counterintuitive at first, this motivational attribute includes the aspect of financial security and  
510 staying within budget. Given that four- and five-star hotels are the more expensive  
511 accommodation choice, this negative association is justified. Therefore, the fully mediated effect  
512 of security causes daily expenditures to fall by 1.6%. Finally, higher levels of overall prosperity at  
513 the country of residence decrease the likelihood of flying economy and increase the likelihood of  
514 staying in higher-starred hotels, whilst also exerting a positive direct impact on expenditure  
515 intensity. The contribution of the mediated effect of prosperity is 17.4% and the contribution of  
516 the direct effect is 82.6%, both causing daily expenditures to increase by 2.1%.

517

## 518 **6.2. Structural estimation of expenditure extensity**

519 Tourists' planning behavior and number of sites visited at the destination constitute valid  
520 mediators for expenditure extensity. As reported in the bottom right corner of [Table 3](#) under [Eq.](#)  
521 [\(7\)](#), results indicate that planning the trip for a period longer than two months increases the  
522 length of stay by 8.7% and each additional site visited increases the length of stay by 5.8%. Older  
523 tourists are more likely to exhibit a longer planning horizon, which leads to a mediated effect of  
524 age with a contribution of 12.7%. However, age directly and indirectly increases expenditure  
525 extensity by a negligible 0.5%. Men seem to be visiting more sites with no direct effect. Therefore,

526 the fully mediated effect of gender increases expenditure extensity by 1.5%. Further, European  
527 tourist appear to be visiting more sites and, *ceteris paribus*, stay longer at the destination. The  
528 mediated contribution of being European is 14.9% and the direct contribution is 85.1%, both  
529 leading expenditure extensity to increase by 40.8%. Married tourists plan longer for the trip but  
530 visit fewer sites, *ceteris paribus*, with no direct effect of marital status. Hence, the impact of  
531 marital status is fully mediated causing tourism extensity to decline by a negligible 0.4%. Unlike  
532 its impact on expenditure intensity, annual income has no effect on expenditure extensity in this  
533 case. This result indicates that tourists' higher/lower incomes lead to corresponding higher/lower  
534 daily spending without affecting the average decision on how long to stay at the destination.

535  
536 Moving to tourists' motivations, self-deployment and relationship is fully mediated via sites  
537 visited, causing length of stay to increase by 3.9%. Escape and relaxation is negatively mediated  
538 via sites visited with a contribution of 58.9%. This is, nonetheless, offset by an overwhelming  
539 direct positive contribution such that escape of relaxation causes expenditure extensity to  
540 increase by 1.8%. Novelty and isolation is fully mediated via planning horizon causing length of  
541 stay to decrease by 0.3%, and security is positively mediated via both planning horizon and sites  
542 visited, leading length of stay to increase by 1.8% with no direct impact. Finally, tourists residing  
543 in countries with higher prosperity levels appear to plan longer for the trip, leading to a fully  
544 mediated effect that increases length of stay by a negligible 0.1%.

545  
546 **INSERT TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE**

547  
548 Consistent with Aguiló et al. (2017), the sum of the parameter estimates reported under Eq. (6)  
549 and Eq. (7) in Table 3 are equal to the independently estimated propensities of Eq. (8). This, in  
550 turn, confirms that the total impact of any given exogenous determinant may be decomposed  
551 into an independent effect on each of expenditure intensity and extensity, leading to a better-  
552 informed tourism management process. We add to this effort by showing that the effects of a  
553 chosen set of exogenous determinants are asymmetrically mediated by another set of  
554 endogenous variables, typically considered as exogenous in their own merit. For instance,

555 according to Aguiló (2017), German tourists to the Balearic Islands incur 21% less out-of-  
556 accommodation expenditures daily but stay 6% longer at the destination, which explain the  
557 composition of a negative effect of 15% of being German compared the reference group. What  
558 this result does not explain, however, is the footprints leading to such effects on expenditure  
559 extensity and intensity, respectively. In contrast, we demonstrate that flying via chartered  
560 economy class to Oman reduces daily personal expenditures of European tourists at the  
561 destination by 3.7%,  $\left[ \left( e^{\alpha_{33}\beta_3^I} - 1 \right) \cdot 100\% \right]$ , and staying at a four- or five-star hotel increases  
562 daily spending by 2.5%,  $\left[ \left( e^{\alpha_{34}\beta_4^I} - 1 \right) \cdot 100\% \right]$ , leading to a fully mediated net negative impact  
563 of 1.2% on expenditure intensity. Additionally, the number of sites visited at the destination  
564 increases length of stay by 5.4%,  $\left[ \left( e^{\alpha_{35}\beta_5^E} - 1 \right) \cdot 100\% \right]$ , with a direct effect of 35.4%,  
565  $\left[ \left( e^{\alpha_3^E} - 1 \right) \cdot 100\% \right]$ . This, in turn, adds up to a partially mediated positive effect of 40.8% on  
566 expenditure extensity, as reported earlier.

567  
568 For additional comparison between our structural approach and an all-exogenous estimation  
569 output comparable to Aguiló et al. (2017), Eq. (6), Eq. (7) and Eq. (8) in Table 3 show that income  
570 would be concluded to have no effect on either outcome variable. The same holds for gender,  
571 novelty and isolation and security. Our structural process, on the other hand, reveals that the  
572 effect of gender is fully mediated by the number of sites visited, income is fully mediated by  
573 transportation and accommodation choices, novelty and isolation is fully mediated by tourists'  
574 planning behavior and security is fully mediated by planning, accommodation and sites visited.

575  
576 Also see Figure 2 for a more consolidated presentation of all statistically significant paths, where  
577 tourists' transportation and accommodation choices mediate exogenous effects on daily  
578 expenditures and where planning behavior and number of sites visited are shown to mediate  
579 various exogenous effects on length of stay, hence on total spending. The paths in this figure  
580 retain the color codes established by Figure 1. Namely, the grey arrows are the estimated effects  
581 of exogeneous variables on mediators, the black arrows are the estimated effects of mediators

582 on outcome variables and the green arrows are the direct effects of exogeneous variables on  
583 outcome variables.

584

585 **INSERT FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE**

586

## 587 **7. Concluding remarks**

### 588 **7.1. Discussion**

589 Over the last four decades, a considerable amount of literature has analyzed either tourism  
590 expenditure or length of stay as two distinct individual-level consumption decisions whose  
591 understanding is crucial to tourism managers and marketers in pursuit of higher sectoral  
592 revenues and overall economic growth. A contribution by Aguiló et al. (2017), however, suggests  
593 that analyzing these two decisions jointly provides deeper insight into the tourism consumption  
594 behavior, given the potential (dis)similarities in the determination of each. By means of reduced-  
595 form modeling, they demonstrate the possibility of tracing the causes of higher total  
596 expenditures, whether due to higher levels of daily spending or longer durations of stay, referring  
597 each to an identical set of all-exogenous socioeconomic, trip-specific and psychological  
598 antecedents.

599

600 In this article, we extend this work by reconceptualizing such antecedents into a group that  
601 approximates tourists' latent preferences and ability to pay and, importantly, pre-exists the travel  
602 decision. Thereby being conceptually exogenous to the expenditure determination. That in  
603 addition to another group that only exists as a consequence of the travel decision, hence  
604 conceptually endogenous variables that function as mediators in our proposed framework. These  
605 mediators constitute the paths through which latent preferences are transformed into de facto  
606 monetary outlays.

607

608 **Table 4** summarizes the asymmetries within mediation paths. For expenditure intensity,  
609 transportation mediates the effects of age, income and prosperity at the country of residence  
610 with a positive impact, whereas that of nationality with a negative impact. Furthermore,

611 accommodation mediates the effects of age, nationality, marital status, income, escape and  
612 relaxation and prosperity with a positive impact, whereas that of security with a negative impact.  
613 For expenditure extensity, planning horizon mediates the effects of age, marital status and  
614 security with a positive impact, whereas that of novelty and isolation with a negative impact.  
615 Additionally, the number of sites visited at the destination mediates the effects of gender,  
616 nationality, self-deployment and relation and security with a positive impact, whereas those of  
617 marital status and escape and relaxation with a negative impact.

618

619 **INSERT TABLE 4 ABOUT HERE**

620

621 ***7.2. Theoretical implications***

622 In contrast with the majority of previous literature that considers a host of individual  
623 characteristics and trip or destination-specific choices as direct arguments in tourists'  
624 expenditure functions, approximating their tastes, see Marcussen (2011) and Mortazavi and  
625 Lundberg (2020), our theoretical framework restricts preference-related proxies to factors that  
626 are conceptually exogeneous to the determination of expenditure and pre-exist the travel  
627 decision. Such factors include age, gender, motivations, prosperity in the country of residence  
628 and income that shape tourists' preferences and ability to pay but might not directly lead to de  
629 facto monetary outlays unless a decision to travel is made, followed by market exchange.  
630 Subsequently, our framework considers factors like tourists' transportation and accommodation  
631 choices, activities and sites visited at a destination or purchase of tourism packages conceptually  
632 endogenous antecedents that mediate the paths between latent preferences and ability to pay  
633 and tourism outcomes such as expenditure and stay durations.

634

635 Our proposed theoretical framework is sufficiently flexible to accommodate circumstantial  
636 changes in tourism dynamics or various tourism contexts, as long as the stipulated  
637 conceptualizations of exogeneity and endogeneity are preserved.

638

639

### 640 **7.3. Practical implications**

641 Our results carry important implications regarding the inconclusiveness found in the literature  
642 on the effects that several exogenous variables may have on tourism expenditure. For instance,  
643 Thrane (2002, 2015), given contextual differences between the two papers, report conflicting  
644 impacts of age while estimating the determination of tourism spending in Norway via reduced-  
645 form models. Estimating expenditure via structural modeling uncovers how effects are mediated  
646 and therefore mitigates potential confusions across contexts. In the current case, older tourists  
647 are less likely to fly economy class, and flying economy as opposed to business class decreases  
648 total spending inclusive airfare. They are also more likely to book five- or four-star  
649 accommodations that increase expenditures at the destination. Both paths explain how age  
650 affects tourism expenditure positively. Another example is the effect of gender. As reported by  
651 Brida and Scuderi (2013), 21.5% of the papers reviewed find that men incur higher expenditures,  
652 10.8% report the opposite and the rest find no relationship. Had we estimated the relationships  
653 in this paper in reduced form, we would conclude no effect of gender as per Eq. (6), Eq. (7) or Eq.  
654 (8). This would nonetheless be misleading, as our structural results imply that men visit more  
655 sites at the destination, which increases their length of stay, hence expenditures.

656

657 Other practical implications pertain to our findings on the influences of income, motives and  
658 prosperity. Income does not have a direct impact on spending. Given the consensus in the  
659 literature on the importance of income as an exogenous expenditure determinant, we find this  
660 result rather interesting. For, ability to pay is one aspect and actual payment is another. Our  
661 results imply that a tourists' ability to pay can only result in de facto monetary outlays if  
662 successfully mediated via market transactions. In our case, higher monthly earnings decrease the  
663 likelihood of flying economy, while higher earners are also more likely to book more expensive  
664 accommodations. Both fully mediated effects suggest a positive effect of income on  
665 expenditures.

666

667 Motives measure tourists' willingness to pay. Again, it is sensible that willingness to pay can only  
668 transmute into expenditure via market transactions and choices. In that regard, self-deployment

669 and relationship has a positive impact on expenditure through the extensity component that is  
670 fully mediated via the number of sites visited. Escape and relaxation exerts a positive impact on  
671 expenditure intensity, fully mediated via accommodation choices. Security considerations, on the  
672 other hand, lead to longer planning and more sites visited, which mediate a positive impact on  
673 expenditures via the extensity component. Given the evidence suggested by this structural  
674 framework on how the impacts of tourists' willingness and abilities to pay are mediated into  
675 expenditure intensity and extensity decisions, practitioners at the discussed destination, Oman,  
676 are encouraged to focus on tourism experiences that involve European visitors' choices regarding  
677 transportation, accommodation and number of sites to visit, as well as access to information that  
678 facilitate efficient planning.

679

#### 680 ***7.4. Limitations and future research***

681 Whereas the theoretical framework proposed in this article conceptualizes exogeneities and  
682 endogenous mediation paths, results may not be completely immune to other potential sources  
683 of endogeneity from a purely empirical standpoint. Testing structural models for potential  
684 endogeneities can, however, become challenging in terms of identifying appropriate instruments  
685 for different arguments. Additionally, the cross-sectional data set employed in this empirical  
686 exercise observes international inbound tourists at an emerging destination before the onset of  
687 the COVID-19 pandemic. Thereby, it does not allow controlling for the travel decision taken at  
688 the country of origin and produces results that may not be generalizable to a tourism context at  
689 a more mature destination in a post-pandemic world. Future research is encouraged to consider  
690 using household income and expenditure panel data on outbound tourists where the travel  
691 decision may be observed and where COVID-induced changes in the tourism consumption  
692 behavior can be addressed. Moreover, we suggest future contributions to explore the effects of  
693 other exogenous variables, such as travel experience, other channels of mediation, such as social  
694 media engagement, more disaggregated expenditure measures, or travel contexts other than  
695 leisure.

696

697



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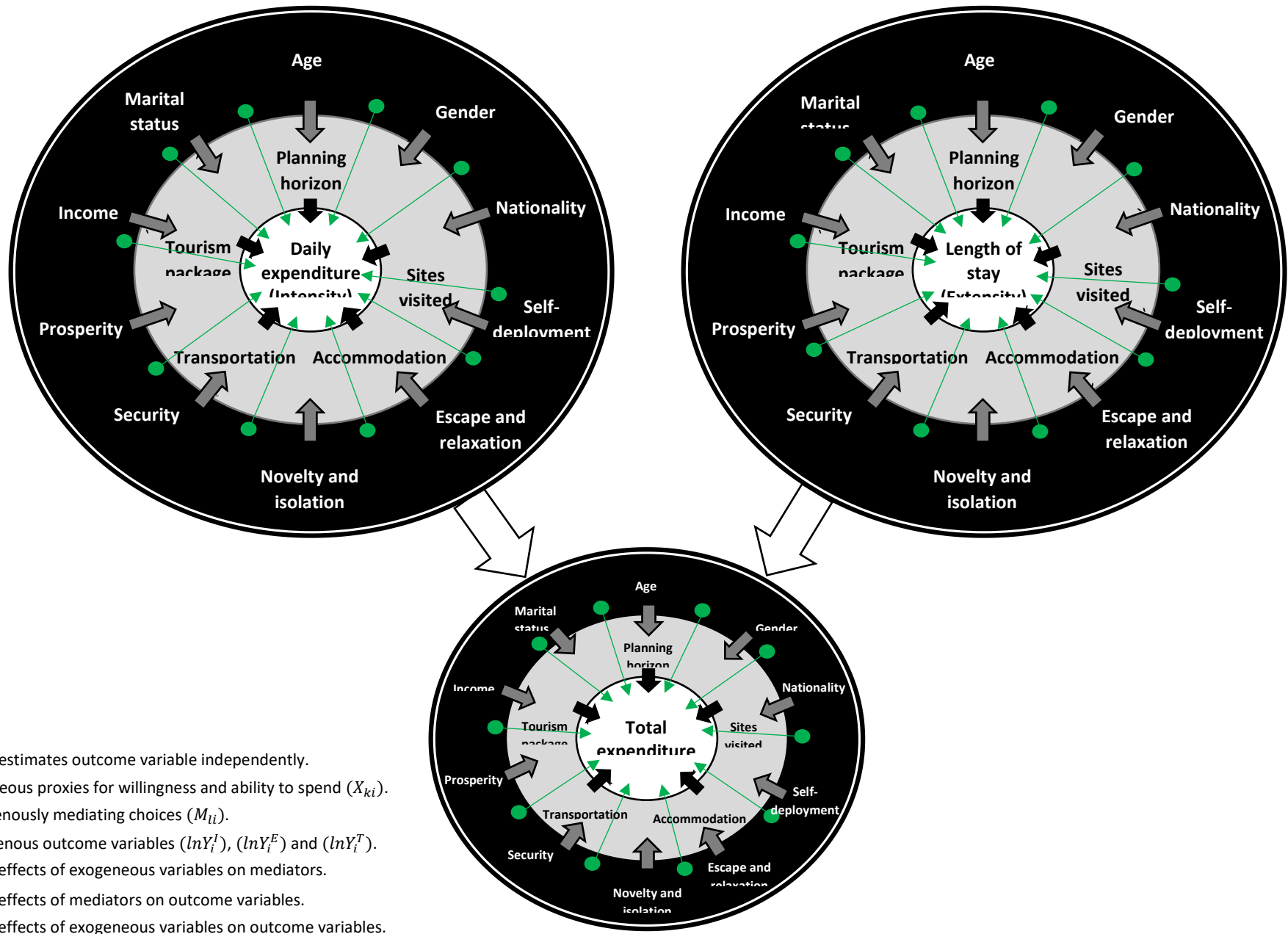
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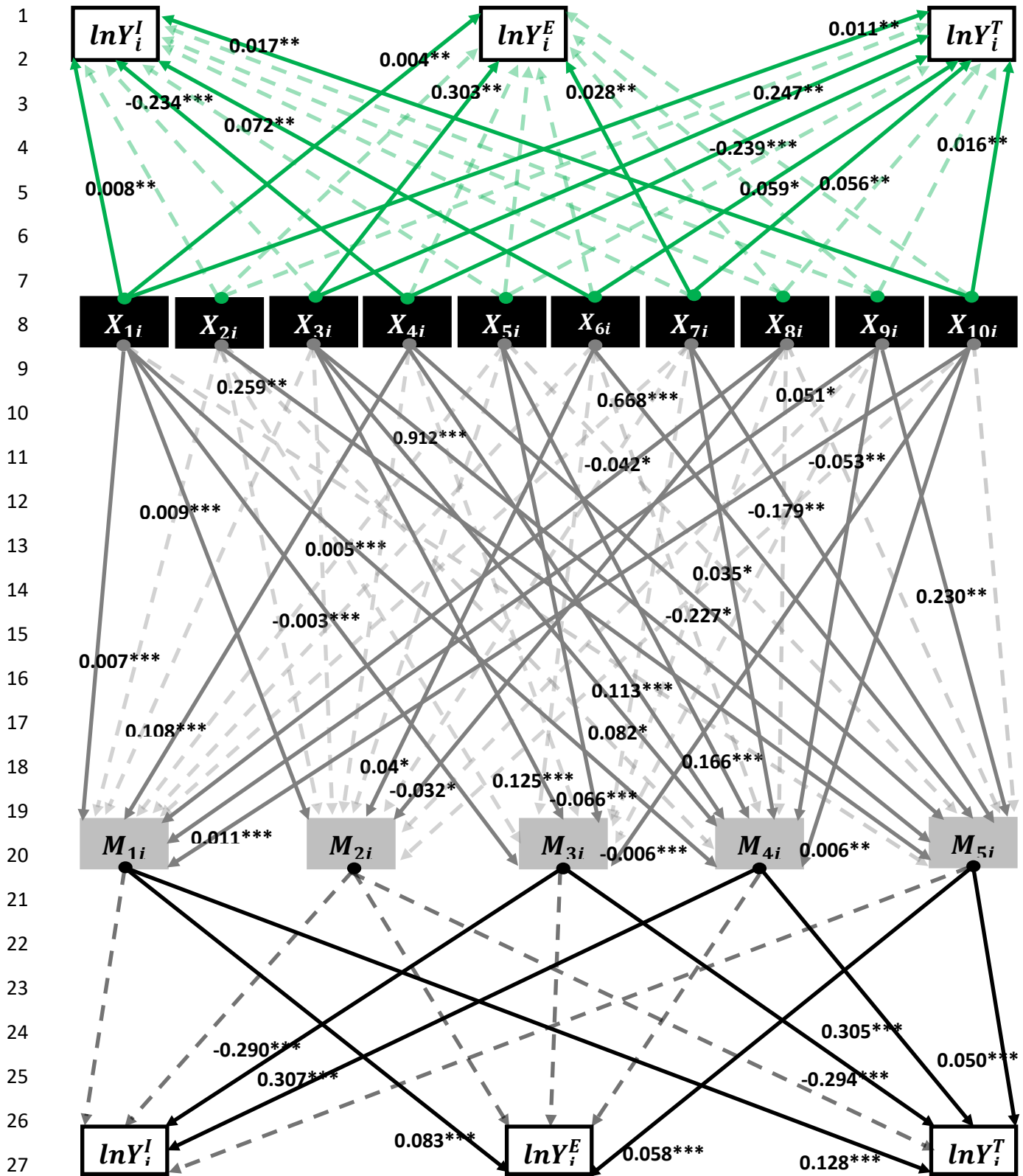
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**Figure 1.** The joint mediation of expenditure intensity ( $\ln Y_i^I$ ), extensity ( $\ln Y_i^E$ ) and total expenditure ( $\ln Y_i^T$ ).



28 **Figure 2.** Structural path diagram of expenditure intensity ( $\ln Y_i^I$ ), extensity ( $\ln Y_i^E$ ) and total expenditure  
 29 ( $\ln Y_i^T$ ).

**Table 1.** Principal component analysis of travel motives.

Item	Component	Mean (S.D.)	Loading	KMO	$\alpha$	Eigen- value	Unexplained variation
1. Get refreshed	Escape and relaxation	3.905 (1.112)	0.537	0.852	0.83	5.028	0.301
2. Relax away from the ordinary		4.082 (1.029)	0.566	0.81			0.22
3. Get rid of stress		3.868 (1.117)	0.531	0.862			0.283
4. Share new places with family and friends	Self-deployment and relationship	4.099 (1.081)	0.400	0.824	0.85	2.12	0.348
5. Visit new destinations with family and friends		4.229 (1.047)	0.465	0.811			0.278
6. Gain knowledge of something new		4.246 (0.93)	0.471	0.85			0.299
7. Experience new and different lifestyles		4.21 (0.947)	0.454	0.853			0.329
8. Visit historical sites		3.961 (1.061)	0.351	0.914			0.494
9. Experience solitude and privacy	Novelty and isolation	3.339 (1.313)	0.353	0.826	0.72	1.539	0.489
10. Indulge in luxury		3.254 (1.32)	0.494	0.82			0.412
11. Do exciting things		3.846 (1.056)	0.544	0.837			0.325
12. Have fun and be entertained		3.738 (1.109)	0.534	0.819			0.372
13. Find adequate services	Security	3.974 (1.025)	0.553	0.837	0.68	1.079	0.352
14. Feel safe		4.496 (0.741)	0.578	0.838			0.347
15. Stay within budget		3.906 (1.008)	0.546	0.838			0.386
<b><math>\rho</math></b>				0.652			
<b>Overall KMO</b>				0.838			
<b>Overall <math>\alpha</math></b>				0.853			
<b>Number of observations</b>				1174			

Component loadings are estimated via the varimax rotation method.

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**Table 2.** Descriptive statistics.

<b>Outcome variables (<math>Y_i</math>):</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Dev.</b>	<b>Min.</b>	<b>Max.</b>
$Y_i^I$ : Daily expenditures per person (US\$)	338.6	254.756	20.8	1833.3
$Y_i^E$ : Length of stay (Days)	6.9	2.413	3	14
$Y_i^T$ : Total expenditures per person (US\$)	2163.4	1402.252	166.7	5500
<b>Socioeconomic characteristics (<math>X_{ki}</math>):</b>				
$X_{1i}$ : Age	45.3	9.79	25	56
$X_{2i}$ : Gender (Male = 1)	0.492	0.5	0	1
$X_{3i}$ : Nationality (European = 1)	0.789	0.408	0	1
$X_{4i}$ : Married (Yes = 1)	0.761	0.427	0	1
$X_{5i}$ : Annual income higher than US median (Yes = 1)	0.258	0.438	0	1
<b>Travel motives and prosperity</b>				
$X_{6i}$ : Self-deployment and relationship	4.224	0.691	1	5
$X_{7i}$ : Escape and relaxation	4.007	0.888	1	5
$X_{8i}$ : Novelty and isolation	3.63	0.831	1	5
$X_{9i}$ : Security	4.24	0.613	1	5
$X_{10i}$ : Prosperity of country of residence	75.851	6.697	42.6	83.4
<b>Trip-specific attributes (<math>M_{li}</math>)</b>				
$M_{1i}$ : Planned for longer than two months (Yes = 1)	0.469	0.499	0	1
$M_{2i}$ : Purchased an all-inclusive tourism package (Yes = 1)	0.221	0.415	0	1
$M_{3i}$ : Booked an economy flight (Yes = 1)	0.909	0.287	0	1
$M_{4i}$ : Booked a five- or four-star hotel (Yes = 1)	0.737	0.441	0	1
$M_{5i}$ : Number of sites visited	4.956	1.74	2	11
<b>Number of observations (<math>i</math>)</b>	888			

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**Table 3.** Structural estimations of expenditure intensity ( $\ln Y_i^I$ ), extensity ( $\ln Y_i^E$ ) and total ( $\ln Y_i^T$ ).

Equation	Eq. (5)					Eq. (6)	Eq. (7)	Eq. (8)
Endogenous	$M_{1i}$	$M_{2i}$	$M_{3i}$	$M_{4i}$	$M_{5i}$	$\ln Y_i^I$	$\ln Y_i^E$	$\ln Y_i^T$
	$\gamma_{01}$	$\gamma_{02}$	$\gamma_{03}$	$\gamma_{04}$	$\gamma_{05}$	$\gamma_0^I$	$\gamma_0^E$	$\gamma_0^T$
Constant	<b>-0.812***</b> (0.258)	-0.278 (0.214)	<b>1.545***</b> (0.150)	0.055 (0.226)	<b>1.792**</b> (0.870)	<b>4.010***</b> (0.366)	<b>1.221***</b> (0.183)	<b>5.231***</b> (0.338)
$X_{ki}$	$\alpha_{k1}$	$\alpha_{k2}$	$\alpha_{k3}$	$\alpha_{k4}$	$\alpha_{k5}$	$\alpha_k^I$	$\alpha_k^E$	$\alpha_k^T$
Age ( $k = 1$ )	<b>0.007***</b> (0.002)	<b>0.009***</b> (0.001)	<b>-0.003***</b> (0.001)	<b>0.005***</b> (0.002)	0.009 (0.006)	<b>0.008***</b> (0.002)	<b>0.004***</b> (0.001)	<b>0.011***</b> (0.002)
Gender ( $k = 2$ )	-0.008 (0.033)	-0.03 (0.028)	0.018 (0.019)	-0.039 (0.029)	<b>0.259**</b> (0.113)	-0.01 (0.044)	-0.036 (0.022)	-0.046 (0.041)
Nationality ( $k = 3$ )	-0.073 (0.05)	0.02 (0.041)	<b>0.125***</b> (0.029)	<b>0.082*</b> (0.043)	<b>0.912***</b> (0.167)	-0.057 (0.068)	<b>0.303***</b> (0.034)	<b>0.247***</b> (0.063)
Married ( $k = 4$ )	<b>0.108***</b> (0.04)	-0.024 (0.033)	-0.023 (0.023)	<b>0.113***</b> (0.035)	<b>-0.227*</b> (0.135)	<b>-0.234***</b> (0.054)	-0.005 (0.027)	<b>-0.239***</b> (0.05)
Income ( $k = 5$ )	0.009 (0.038)	-0.04 (0.031)	<b>-0.066***</b> (0.022)	<b>0.116***</b> (0.033)	0.022 (0.128)	0.018 (0.051)	0.031 (0.025)	0.049 (0.047)
Self-depl. & relationship ( $k = 6$ )	0.038 (0.026)	<b>0.04*</b> (0.021)	-0.01 (0.015)	-0.036 (0.022)	<b>0.668***</b> (0.086)	<b>0.072**</b> (0.035)	-0.013 (0.018)	<b>0.059*</b> (0.033)
Escape & relaxation ( $k = 7$ )	-0.032 (0.021)	-0.025 (0.017)	-0.005 (0.012)	<b>0.035*</b> (0.018)	<b>-0.179**</b> (0.07)	0.027 (0.028)	<b>0.028**</b> (0.014)	<b>0.056**</b> (0.026)
Novelty & isolation ( $k = 8$ )	<b>-0.042*</b> (0.023)	<b>-0.032*</b> (0.019)	-0.021 (0.013)	0.029 (0.02)	-0.105 (0.077)	-0.007 (0.031)	-0.01 (0.015)	-0.016 (0.028)
Security ( $k = 9$ )	<b>0.051*</b> (0.031)	0.013 (0.026)	0.004 (0.018)	<b>-0.053**</b> (0.027)	<b>0.23**</b> (0.104)	-0.034 (0.041)	-0.007 (0.021)	-0.041 (0.038)
Prosperity ( $k = 10$ )	<b>0.011***</b> (0.003)	0.001 (0.002)	<b>-0.006***</b> (0.002)	<b>0.006**</b> (0.003)	-0.008 (0.01)	<b>0.017***</b> (0.004)	-0.001 (0.002)	<b>0.016***</b> (0.004)
Post-estimation tests for expenditure intensity ( $\ln Y_i^I$ )					$M_{li}$	$\beta_i^I$	$\beta_i^E$	$\beta_i^T$
$\chi^2(9) = 11.63, Prob > \chi^2 = 0.235$ $CFI = 0.994$ $RMSEA = 0.018$					Planning ( $l = 1$ )	0.045 (0.045)	<b>0.083***</b> (0.022)	<b>0.128***</b> (0.041)
Post-estimation tests for expenditure extensity ( $\ln Y_i^E$ )					Package ( $l = 2$ )	0.018 (0.054)	-0.019 (0.027)	-0.001 (0.05)
$\chi^2(9) = 11.63, Prob > \chi^2 = 0.235$ $CFI = 0.996$ $RMSEA = 0.018$					Transp. ( $l = 3$ )	<b>-0.29***</b> (0.077)	-0.004 (0.038)	<b>-0.294***</b> (0.071)
Post-estimation tests for total expenditure ( $\ln Y_i^T$ )					Accom. ( $l = 4$ )	<b>0.307***</b> (0.051)	-0.002 (0.025)	<b>0.305***</b> (0.047)
$\chi^2(9) = 11.63, Prob > \chi^2 = 0.235$ $CFI = 0.996$ $RMSEA = 0.018$					Sites visited ( $l = 5$ )	-0.008 (0.013)	<b>0.058***</b> (0.007)	<b>0.05***</b> (0.012)
					$R^2$	0.133	0.263	0.272

Values in parathesis are the OIM standard errors.

\*, \*\*, \*\*\* parameter is significant at 10%, 5% and 1% probability.

46 For example, in the case of age ( $k = 1$ ):  $(\alpha_1^I + \sum_{i=1}^5 \alpha_{1i} \beta_i^I) + (\alpha_1^E + \sum_{i=1}^5 \alpha_{1i} \beta_i^E) = (\alpha_1^E + \sum_{i=1}^5 \alpha_{1i} \beta_i^E) = 0.01 + 0.005 = 0.015$ .

**Table 4.** Statistically significant mediation paths within expenditure intensity, extensity and total.

<b>Exogenous variable</b>	<b>Mediation within expenditure intensity</b>	<b>Mediation within expenditure extensity</b>	<b>Mediation within total personal expenditure</b>
<b>Age</b>	Partially via transportation (+) & accommodation (+)	Partially via planning (+)	Partially via planning (+), transportation (+) & accommodation (+)
<b>Gender</b>	None	Fully via sites visited (+)	Fully via sites visited (+)
<b>Nationality</b>	Fully via transportation (-) & accommodation (+)	Partial via sites visited (+)	Partially via transportation (-), accommodation (+) & sites visited (+)
<b>Married</b>	Partially via accommodation (+)	Fully via planning (+) & sites visited (-)	Partially via planning (+), accommodation (+) & sites visited (-)
<b>Income</b>	Fully via transportation (+) & accommodation (+)	None	Fully via transportation (+) & accommodation (+)
<b>Self-depl. &amp; relation.</b>	None	Fully via sites visited (+)	Partially via sites visited (+)
<b>Escape &amp; relaxation</b>	Fully via accommodation (+)	Partially via sites visited (-)	Partially via accommodation (+) & sites visited (-)
<b>Novelty &amp; isolation</b>	None	Fully via planning (-)	Fully via planning (-)
<b>Security</b>	Fully via accommodation (-)	Fully via planning (+) & sites visited (+)	Fully via planning (+), accommodation (-) & sites visited (+)
<b>Prosperity</b>	Partially via transportation (+) & accommodation (+)	Fully via planning (+)	Partially via planning (+), transportation (+) & accommodation (+)

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