Length of stay for tourists' inland trips

Abstract

This paper addresses the problems of scant research on the Province of Malaga's interior and heterogeneous results of research on length of stay. Based on a negative binomial regression model and data from 675 surveys, the results suggest that two different patterns coexist simultaneously regarding variables' impacts on the length of stay of national versus foreign tourists. For domestic tourists, their reasons for travelling condition length of stay, whereas, for international tourists, satisfaction has the most significant impact on length of stay. In addition, this paper confirms a negative relationship between income and length of stay. Implications for the tourism industry at the destination in question and possible future research are discussed.

Keywords: Caminito del Rey; Malaga; inland tourism; length of stay; negative binomial model; slow tourism.

1. Introduction[1]

Length of stay (LOS) is a core factor for tourism research and both destination (Barros, Butler & Correia, 2010; Barros & Machado, 2010; Martínez-García & Raya, 2008; Prebensen, Altin & Uysal, 2015) and hospitality management (Barros & Machado, 2010; Peypoch, Randriamboarison, Rasoamananjara & Solonandrasana, 2012). The importance of this factor in tourism research is merited since LOS is one of the most significant variables in visitors' decision-making processes (Decrop & Snelders, 2004). It can have important repercussions for tourism destinations' occupancy rates and final incomes (Alegre & Pou, 2006), affecting total and daily expenditure (Cannon & Ford, 2002; Downward & Lumsdon, 2000; Kastenholz, 2005) and post-consumption variables such as satisfaction and loyalty (Pérez-Cabañero, Cervera-Taulet & Schlesinger, 2017). In the case of hotels, LOS can also affect to revenue and thereby Weatherford (1995) among other scholars recommended its incorporation into the revenue management system. Consequently, LOS is a key aspect of destination planning (Alegre & Pou, 2006; Salmasi, Celidoni & Procidano, 2012), so much so that LOS can alter the structure and design of destinations, businesses and policies (Prebensen et al., 2015).

As a result of this importance, LOS research has focused on different destinations, such as Virginia Beach (Silberman, 1985), the Balearic Islands (Alegre, Mateo & Pou, 2011; Alegre & Pou, 2006), the Azores (Menezes, Moniz & Vieira, 2008), Madeira (Barros & Machado, 2010; Machado, 2010), Norway (Prebensen et al., 2015; Thrane & Farstad, 2012) and Madagascar (Peypoch et al., 2012). Researchers have also concentrated on different customer groups, including senior tourists (Alén, Nicolau, Losada & Domínguez, 2014), student tourists (Thrane, 2016), golf tourists in the Algarve (Barros et al., 2010), low-cost tourism in the Spanish region of Girona (Martínez-García & Raya, 2008; Raya-Vilchez & Martínez-Garcia, 2011), cross-country skiing trips in the United States (Uysal, McDonald & O'Leary, 1988) and Portuguese tourists in Latin America (Barros, Correia & Crouch, 2008). However, as Alén et al. (2014) suggest, different destinations may reveal different behaviour in terms of LOS. One of the most obvious differences occur in the case of tourist spending, where some researchers such as Mules (1998) in Australia and Spotts and Mahoney (1991) in rural region of

[1] Abbreviations: Length of stay (LOS)

Michigan found a positive relationship between LOS and tourists' expenditures while Mok and Iverson (2000) found the opposite relationship for Taiwanese tourists on the island of Guam. Thus, some destinations that are making important decisions based on research conducted in other destinations may be making the wrong choices, leading destination managers to implement policies that, in the best case scenario, are not efficient. This may be the case for inland tourism, in particular.

Inland tourism focuses on a different market segment than coastal tourism does. Moreover, different kinds of tourists may even present variations in consumer preferences for each destination in regard to the same attributes (Hernández, Suárez-Vega & Santana-Jiménez, 2016).

Although inland tourism and rural tourism are sometimes confused with each other, Nicolau and Más (2008) found that inland tourism is on a scale well above nested, non-independent destinations in travel choice processes. However, these two subtypes of tourism appear to be related since, according to Hernández et al. (2016), inland tourism provides economic opportunities for rural tourism development. These, in turn, are associated with a reduction of seasonality and a decrease in pressures from the degradation of coastal areas.

The success of inland destinations is particularly important in Spain due to the strong seasonality of tourism in this country (Guzman-Parra, Quintana-García, Benavides-Velasco & Vila-Oblitas, 2015). In addition, these destinations help satisfy the need to change Spain's Fordist-tourism model, solve this country's environmental problems and revive old tourism destinations (Garcia, 2014). Finally, given that tourism trends are moving away from standardised tourism products, including those offered within cities, inland destinations are increasingly valuable as they can more easily offer individualised tourist experiences (Pawlusiński & Kubal, 2017).

Some researchers have already focused on inland destinations, as in Backer and Barry's (2013) study carried out in the Australian inland city of Ballarat, Jackson's (2006) research in inland China or Mei's (2014) study of inland Norway. Relevant research was also conducted in Spain by Burns and Sancho (2003), who evaluated local perceptions of plans to boost tourism in the inland village of Cuéllar. A study carried out by Sarrión-Gavilán, Benítez-Márquez and Mora-Rangel (2015) analysed tourism

flows and their impact on Andalusia, including differentiating between coastal, inland urban and rural interior destinations. The cited authors concluded that policymakers' efforts to promote sustainable development of inland destinations seek to correct the intense and unplanned development in coastal areas. This inland development has stimulated a large increase in tourist flows to both of the aforementioned inland areas, although coastal areas still remain the most important.

An analysis of these younger inland destinations, in which tourism patterns and offers have not yet been clearly defined, could provide more information about the formation of LOS, including how it conditions newer destinations' structures and offers as these destinations progress towards maturity or consolidation. However, as noted above, with the exception of Yi, Day and Cai (2011), who carried out an analysis of the LOS in rural areas of the United States, research on LOS has usually focused on top-tier, well-established destinations. As a result, little research has been done on second tier destinations, including on the Province of Malaga's inland areas. Located in the south of Spain, the Province of Malaga includes one of the three major tourism destinations available in Andalusia (Consejería de Turismo y Comercio, 2014) (see Figure 1).

Insert Figure 1 near here

Malaga's coast, the Costa del Sol, is an extremely important tourist destination (Fernández-Morales & Mayorga-Toledano, 2008). It has thus been the focus of extensive tourism research, while studies of tourism in the rest of this province are practically non-existent, with the single exception, in so far as we know, of research carried out by Soler and Gemar (2017). The Province of Malaga's inland comprises the regions of Antequera, Axarquia, Guadalteba, Nororma, Serranía de Ronda, Sierra de las Nieves and the Valle del Guadalhorce (Diputación de Málaga, 2016) (see Figure 2).

Insert Figure 2 near here

Tourism is growing in this destination, whose offer now surpasses the number of accommodations in other Andalusian provinces, with 12.86% of the total tourism offer in the Province of Malaga (Diputación de Málaga, 2014). The region attracted more than a million tourists in 2016 (Diputación de Málaga, 2016). According to the latter source, the core tourist profile is national visitors, especially Andalusian residents.

However, national tourism is decreasing compared to international flows, in which the British stand out, followed by French, German and Dutch tourists.

These tourists' most representative age range is between 40 and 49 years old, with an average age of 45.2 years old. According to the Diputación de Málaga (2016), 88.70% of tourists affirm travelling with others, while 61.80% report having no children with them. The average LOS is 7.45 days. In addition, this inland destination is most likely favoured by the comparative advantage of its proximity to a coastal tourism destination, as Hernández et al. (2016) found was the case for inland Catalonia.

The inland of the Province of Malaga's main attractions are the climate and cultural and natural heritage, but a large number of tourists visiting cities along the coast, such as Malaga or Nerja, come for a city break (Diputación de Málaga, 2016). Among the inland regions' most visited tourism attractions are the city of Ronda and the Caminito del Rey. The latter walkway has received numerous national and international awards, including the Europa Nostra, Bienal España de Arquitectura y Urbanism and Andalucía de Turismo (Celiento, 2017; El Mundo, 2016).

In addition to the above characteristics, Soler and Gemar (2017) found that the private sector has been a driver of the general increase in quality of the destination's offer. However, the cited authors point out that the destination still has much room for improvement. Given the success and growth of its tourism industry, this destination's managers could focus on short-term goals and bet on 'hard growth' or redirect tourism away from these conventional maxims, thereby contributing to more sustainable tourism offers (Timms & Conway, 2012). As suggested by Soler and Gemar (2017), the primary strategy could be maintaining the sustainability of the destination, as well as its future profitability, namely, a commitment to slow tourism.

Some researchers, such as Conway and Timms (2012), have argued for a distinction between slow travel and slow tourism. However, many experts do not differentiate between these terms, using them relatively interchangeably (Lumsdon & McGrath, 2011). Slow tourism can facilitate a more eco-friendly form of tourism, while simultaneously keeping economic benefits within local communities and providing meaningful, satisfying experiences to tourists (Caffyn, 2012). This movement seeks to foster tourists' attachment to particular places by giving them time to explore and

experience local cultures (Yurtseven & Kaya, 2011) and take in the sights, plunging visitors deeply into local landscapes (Meng & Choi, 2016). This approach naturally encourages longer stays (Ceron & Dubois, 2007).

The present study, therefore, sought to analyse the LOS factors for this destination that could provide guidelines for further sustainable destination planning. A fuller understanding of these factors, according to de Oliveira Santos, Ramos and Rey-Maquieira (2015), lets destination managers develop more efficient marketing strategies that improve the average LOS. Simultaneously, this research sought to delve into the question of how two visions of destinations, for example, fast growth and slow tourism, deal with prevalent LOS patterns. Another related question addressed was how two sub-destinations can coexist within the same destination – one for national tourists and another for foreign tourists – each shaping the destination through LOS.

This paper is organised as follows. After this introduction the following section provides a review of the literature about LOS, showing the main variables used in the literature and proposing the hypotheses. In section three, the database and the choice of method applied are presented. Section four, shows the results of the empirical analysis. The implications of these results are discussed in section five, while section six summarises the main conclusions.

2. LOS

The literature on LOS reports four types of variables at destinations (Alén et al., 2014). These are tourists' sociodemographic variables, which can largely explain LOS (Barros & Machado, 2010; Salmasi et al., 2012), lifecycle stage characteristics (Grigolon, Borgers, Kemperman & Timmermans, 2014), travel motivations (de Oliveira Santos et al., 2015; Yang, Wong & Zhang, 2011) and travel characteristics (Ferrer-Rosell, Martínez-Garcia & Coenders, 2014; Salmasi et al., 2012).

2.1 Socio-demographic variables

Sociodemographic variables may produce different patterns in LOS that depend on tourism nationality (Gokovali, Bahar & Kozac, 2007; Thrane & Farstad, 2012). This variation is usually associated with differences between domestic and foreign tourists with regard to the distances covered. A domestic tourist can make shorter trips, such as

weekend getaways, while foreign tourists tend to travel longer to compensate for higher travel costs. The literature also reports a positive relationship between tourists' age and LOS (Barros & Machado, 2010; Barros et al., 2010; Martínez-García & Raya, 2008; Wang, Little & DelHomme-Little, 2012). This is commonly attributed to a greater willingness to spend on journeys and a greater availability of time after a certain age. In addition, marital status has been found to be another determinant variable of LOS (Salmasi et al., 2012). Concerning gender, some researchers have found that men tend to go on longer trips than women do (Barros & Machado, 2010; Meng & Uysal, 2008). Therefore, the following hypotheses were proposed for the present study:

H1*: Foreign tourists tend to book longer stays than domestic tourists do.*

H2*: Age is positively related to LOS.*

H3*: Marital status determines LOS.*

H4*: LOS is longer for men's trips.*

2.2 Life cycle

With regard to lifecycle variables, tourists' household composition (Grigolon et al., 2014), employment status (Alén et al., 2014) and income (Gokovali et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2012) can be included as variables. In the first case, as Grigolon et al. (2014) and Scholtz et al. (2015) suggest, travelling with children tends to extend LOS. As to the other two variables, although they are interrelated to some extent, some authors associate tourists' employment situations with the time available for travel (e.g. Fleischer & Pizam, 2002). With regard to income, most of the literature suggests a direct relationship between this and LOS (Ferrer-Rosell et al., 2014; Fleischer & Pizam, 2002; Gokovali et al., 2007; Grigolon et al., 2014; Mak, Moncur & Yonamine, 1977; Mak & Nishimura, 1979; Peypoch et al., 2012; Salmasi et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012). Based on these findings, the following hypotheses were proposed:

H5*: Dependent children increase LOS.*

H6*: Employment status affects LOS.*

H7*: Monthly income is positively related with LOS.*

2.3 Motivation

From amongst the possible motivation variables and their relationship with LOS, it is possible to separate out motivation to go on trips, since trip purpose is a basic explanatory variable of LOS (de Oliveira Santos et al., 2015) and appears in almost all the literature. For example, Menezes et al. (2008) found that business trips have a negative relationship with LOS, and Hellström (2006) found longer LOS in those who travel to visit friends or relatives. Other motivation variables are the desire to travel (Thrane, 2012) and motivation to stay or return or, more specifically, travel satisfaction (Neal, 2003; Neal, Uysal & Sirgy, 2007). For these reasons, the following hypotheses were developed:

H8*: Trip purpose affects LOS.*

H9*: Perceived satisfaction with destination services affects LOS.*

H10*: Destination loyalty programmes affect LOS.*

2.4 Travel characteristics

Finally, travel characteristics comprises variables such as what type of accommodation or mode of transport is selected or whether tourists travel alone or in a group (Salmasi et al., 2012). To check these aspects of inland trips in the Province of Malaga, the following hypotheses were proposed:

H11*: LOS is determined by type of accommodation.*

H12*: Type of reservation determines LOS.*

H13*: Mode of transport determines LOS.*

H14*: LOS is determined by whether tourists travel alone or in groups.*

The particular nature of LOS (Ferrer-Rosell et al., 2014) has led to a variety of estimation methods (Thrane, 2012) and extensive discussion about which may be the best (see the methodology section below for a more detailed explanation). This debate is connected to the heterogeneity of the destinations studied, which are usually mature, well-known destinations. These heterogeneous results have prompted some managers

and politicians to implement unsuitable strategies in the hope of increasing LOS in less developed, newer destinations. This study is the first to focus exclusively on a young, growing destination, so it may provide results useful for similar destinations, which could provide guidelines for decision making. Moreover, this paper seeks to contribute to the literature on LOS by avoiding the use of a survival model by applying negative binomial regression.

3. Methodology

3.1 Database

Data for all the above variables were collected with a survey questionnaire organised into three parts. The first included questions about personal and demographic data such as nationality, age and gender. The second part sought to identify the respondents' type of trip and its particularities (e.g. LOS, motivations, type of accommodation and reservation and mode of transport, as well as whether respondents were travelling alone or in a group) based on the core items identified in the LOS literature. The third section asked about the respondents' degree of satisfaction with their accommodations, leisure facilities and food and beverage businesses, using a 10-point scale for responses. Table 1 is a compilation of the details of the sample's composition. A total of 675 on-the-ground surveys were conducted during the first half of 2016. One questionnaire had to be discarded because it was incomplete, leaving 674 from which data were collected for further analysis.

Insert Table 1 near here

3.2 Econometric analysis

Limited dependent variables that are both integers and positive have presented a challenge in terms of estimating equations (Ferrer-Rosell et al., 2014). This has led to three main methods that coexist in the literature on LOS. A survival model was used in some studies, such as Barros et al. (2008); Barros and Machado (2010); Gokovali et al. (2007); Hong and Jang (2005); Martínez-Garcia and Raya (2008); Menezes et al. (2008) and Peypoch et al. (2012). An ordinary least squares model (OLS) was preferred by Lee, Alexander and Kim (2014); Scholtz, Kruker and Saayman (2015); Thrane (2012) and Thrane and Farstad (2012). A count model (i.e. Poisson or negative binomial

model) was used by Alegre et al. (2011); Alén et al. (2014); Brida, Meleddu and Pulina (2013); Prebensen et al. (2015) and Salmasi et al. (2012). Yi et al. (2011) used and compared these conventional models (i.e. ordinary least squares, Poisson, negative binomial and survival models) to finally opt for the duration models. Still other studies have used an ordered logit model, as was the case for Ferrer-Rosell et al. (2014) and Yang et al. (2011); a binomial logit model, like Alegre and Pou (2006); a latent class model, as in Alegre et al. (2011); or a dynamic mixed multinomial logit model, which was Grigolon et al.'s (2014) choice.

The debate about which is the best model to use in LOS research has been extensive. Whilst some researchers, such as Wang et al. (2012) or Yi et al. (2011), declare that survival models are a good fit for LOS research, others, like Thrane (2012), conclude that the benefits of using such a complex model rather than better-known OLS models may be worthwhile only in longitudinal studies. Several approaches are available for survival models that vary from non-parametric to parametric (Gémar, Moniche & Morales, 2016), although Thrane (2012) argues that only a parametric survival model may be better under the research conditions in question. In contrast, Prebensen et al. (2015) asserts that the violation of even one of the dependent variable assumptions prevents the use of an OLS model, which makes a count model the best suited to the nature of LOS data. Although these models are not without criticism, e.g. Thrane (2015) suggest that OLS model is better than count models, given these findings, the model used in this study was a count model, more specifically, a negative binomial model. This choice of negative binomial model among the count models is due to the assumption of the same value for both variance and the mean in the Poisson model, which as Prebensen et al. (2015) declared is rarely produced with real data.

4. Results

An analysis of the data collected for the present study produced similar results to those extracted from the report on tourism in the Province of Malaga's inland areas published by the Diputación de Málaga (2016). The largest age group was respondents between 40 and 49 years old (31.9%), followed by the group of those between 30 and 39 years old (24.6%). The majority of those surveyed were men (54.6%), with the predominant nationality being Spanish (43.6%), although the number of foreign tourists (56.4%) exceeded nationals. With respect to travel characteristics, the main travel motivation

was a holiday (92.3%), hotels were the main type of accommodation, travel groups were usually a couple and the average LOS was 7.65 days. In terms of satisfaction levels, accommodations are the highest rated with 8.34 out of 10, while the lowest score went to leisure facilities with a 7.97 out of 10. However, the data presented significant differences according to whether the respondents were Spanish or foreign tourists, including variations in their LOS.

First, foreigners tend to value tourism businesses more highly than domestic tourists do. These differences are significant for both leisure facilities and food and beverage providers. Second, notable differences appear in the mode of transport and the type of accommodation selected. That is, while Spanish tourists tend to travel to the destination in their own vehicle, foreigner visitors use airplanes. Despite foreign tourists' greater preference for hotels as compared with national visitors, no significant difference was found in the value given to accommodations. Although the main travel motivation for both groups is holidaying, the percentage of domestic tourists visiting family and friends is large enough to be considered significant.

Last, differences between these two groups also exist regarding their level of income. While the domestic tourists' income falls mostly between 1,000 and 2,000 euros, the largest percentage of foreign tourists have a higher monthly income, with the modal class interval reporting an income of between 3,500 and 4,500 euros. Full details about the sample profile are presented in Table 1 above, while Table 2 below presents the results for LOS determinant factors. In addition, Table 3 lists the disaggregated results according to whether the respondents are domestic or foreign.

Insert Table 2 near here

Insert Table 3 near here

5. Discussion

The validation or rejection of the proposed hypotheses is summarised in Table 4, which uses two sets of symbols to show whether the hypotheses were confirmed or rejected. The first set consists of acceptance symbols used to differentiate between hypotheses that were entirely accepted from those hypotheses in which only one modality of the variable has a significant impact on LOS. The second set of symbols shows all rejected

hypotheses but highlights those rejected as a consequence of having the opposite sign to the one initially expected.

Insert Table 4 near here

In the global model developed for the destination under study, neither trip purpose – except for an educational purpose – nor satisfaction levels appear to have a significant impact on LOS. This result differs with regard to the present findings for travel motivations of Spanish tourists and the results usual reported in the literature on LOS.

For example, Alén et al.'s (2014) findings indicate a positive relationship exists between visiting friends or relatives and LOS. The cited results are similar to Menezes and Moniz's (2011) findings for the Azores and de Oliveira et al.'s (2015) findings of a significant relationship between LOS and a wide range of trip purposes. This is also true for Thrane and Farstad (2012) and Yang et al.'s (2011) results with regard to the relationship between satisfaction and LOS. Regarding the latter study, the findings suggest that only satisfaction with accommodations (i.e. negatively) and food and beverage (i.e. positively) affect foreign tourists' LOS.

Therefore, in the present study, H8 could be accepted in the case of education purposes, while H9 had to be rejected. Furthermore, neither loyalty programmes nor employment status affect LOS, so H6 and H10 also had to be rejected. However, once the sample was divided, H8 could be accepted for Spanish tourists, while H9 and H10 could be accepted for foreign tourists.

The present findings are in line with the previous literature regarding the association between type of accommodation and LOS, confirming H11 on both a general and individual level. As in the study carried out by Martínez-García and Raya (2008), the cheapest accommodations, including tourism apartments, camping sites, country houses/lodges, rented houses, second houses or homes of friends and family, can affect LOS in a positive way, with second homes having the greatest impact in this way. In contrast, hotel and hostel accommodations do not show either a positive or negative relationship with LOS. In addition, the only type of reservation that affects LOS includes half board in the package, as compared with room only, so H12 can be accepted. This could be similar to the results of Alegre and Pou (2006), who compared room-alone accommodations with full-board hotels and found a significant relationship

with LOS. This is true for the sample overall and for foreign tourists, but the domestic tourist sample revealed no significant results in this regard, so H12 was rejected.

With regard to H13 or the form of transportation, the results suggest, as do Salmasi et al.'s (2012) findings, that travelling by ship, train and plane has a positive relationship with LOS. In addition, this paper shows other significant modes of transport, such as campers, private cars and motorbikes, especially in the case of national tourists. With respect to whether tourists travel alone or in groups, the present results suggest that travelling with couple or family tends to be associated with shorter stays than travelling alone. This was true for both the general and domestic tourist models, while travelling with friends is significant for foreign tourists, so H14 could be accepted in all cases, thereby confirming Alén et al.'s (2014) findings.

This also appears to be in line with Nicolau and Más's (2009) results with respect to a shorter trip duration's association with household size. However, the present study found that having dependent children increases the chances of increasing LOS, thereby validating H5, as do Grigolon et al. (2014) and Scholtz et al.'s (2015) findings. As the latter authors suggest, this may be due to the need for more detailed trip planning.

For the destination in question, the global model suggests that tourists' place of origin does not affect trip duration, and, therefore, H1 must be rejected. This confirms Alén et al.'s (2014) results for senior tourists. However, the level of significance (i.e. 0.101), the t-tests and the differences found between the segregated models may mean that breaking up the sample by nationality could identify some nationalities with more significant values. This result was obtained in other research by Gokovali et al. (2007), Martínez-García and Raya (2008) and Peypoch et al. (2012).

Notably, the present study found that divorced tourists take shorter trips than single tourists do, with no significant differences found for other groups. This finding contrasts with Salmasi et al.'s (2012) results, in which a positive association exists between being single or widowed/widowered and LOS, as compared with being married. Based on the current results, H3 was accepted as valid, but the significance of this variable disappears for the segregated models, which means this hypothesis needs further investigation.

The present study further shows similar results on the age variable to most of the literature on LOS (de Oliveira Santos et al., 2015). These findings suggest that age

positively affects LOS, resulting in the validation of H2. The group with longer stays is those over 65 years old for the overall and Spanish tourist models, followed by visitors between 40 and 49 years old and tourists between 50 and 59 years old for the same models, respectively. This result may be due to the greater availability of time and stronger possibility that these tourists will direct their resources to activities such as travel. However, this explanation is not applicable to international tourists. In this case, because these travellers need organised trips, their modes of transport could condition LOS more than the availability of time does.

In addition, the results for this destination's overall and foreign tourist models show that women tend to take longer trips than men do. This finding confirms Menezes and Moniz's (2011) results but differs from Barros and Machado (2010), Meng and Uysal (2008), Peypoch et al. (2012), Prebensen et al. (2015) and Wang et al.'s (2012) findings. The present study, therefore, rejected H4.

Notably, with respect to H7, a negative relationship was found between income and LOS, which led to the rejection of this hypothesis. The negative significance was more pronounced for the foreign tourist and overall models. These results are, in general, contrary to the literature, which reports a positive relationship between income and LOS (Ferrer-Rosell et al., 2014; Fleischer & Pizam, 2002; Gokovali, Bahar & Kozac, 2007; Grigolon et al., 2014; Mak et al., 1977; Mak & Nishimura, 1979; Peypoch et al., 2012; Salmasi et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012).

The present findings also contradict the assumption of a relationship between age and income, as expressed by Martínez-García and Raya (2008), among others. However, precedents already exist of confirmation of this negative relationship, such as Blaine, Mohammad and Var's (1993) results in rural tourism research focused on the United States. Similarly, Brida et al.'s (2013) study found that tourists with an income equal to or less than €20,000 are more likely to increase LOS in South Tyrol than are visitors with an income of between €40,000 and €70,000.

The current results could validate Fleischer, Peleg and Byk's (2011) findings, in which higher income appears to encourage a greater number of short trips, and Nicolau and Más's (2009) report that tourists with higher incomes prefer to take fewer but higher quality holidays. These results must be placed in context by comparing them to the

findings for the group with the lowest income. Overall, all groups are less likely to extend their LOS than the lowest income group. The latter group aside, it is reasonable to assume that the other income categories have the same level of impact on LOS.

Given the above results, tourism development in this young destination could be subject to two opposing forces. On the one hand, some providers may prefer to bet on conventional tourism. On the other hand, others may opt for a slow tourism approach more focused on environmental and cultural maintenance. The first tendency may explain the growth in the number of accommodation and lodging businesses in the destination (Diputación de Málaga, 2016). The second trend could be due to the Caminito del Rey, which is closely aligned with slow tourism.

Successfully managing a slow destination is complex because tourists' demands could easily exceed the tourism resources of the destination (Knox, 2005). Slow tourism requires constant research into new ways to harness local cultural, communal and/or familial knowledge. This has always existed in many overlooked forms and can serve the purpose of creating valuable experiences for slow tourists (Timms & Conway, 2012), thus explaining the need for improved leisure activities in the destination identified by Soler and Gemar's (2017) study.

The Province of Malaga's inland areas could follow the example of Krakow, Poland (Pawlusiński & Kubal, 2017), which has developed a mixture of slow tourism with more conventional offers in nearby areas and within the same destination. Nevertheless, this approach could compromise the authenticity of tourist experiences in inland Malaga. These could be a major building block around which to develop this destination's brand and a core asset for developing a slow destination (Meng & Choi, 2016). Overall, the present lack of clear destination positioning could explain the non-significant effect of travel motivations on LOS. This could also account for Soler and Gemar's (2017) results regarding the low average rating of leisure activities offered by the destination and these activities' important role in tourists' assessments of their inland Malaga experiences.

6. Conclusion

This study's objective was to analyse LOS in a young, growing destination, located near a quite well-investigated, consolidated destination. The results reported in this paper are

statistically significant and economically important for several reasons. First, after analysing the methodological options, a negative binomial regression model was chosen. This choice was guided by previous researchers' finding that count models are the best adapted to research on LOS. The Poisson model is also a particular case of negative binomial models in which the mean and variance are the same value (Gurmu & Trivedi, 1996). The use of a negative binomial model allowed the present research to check the basic assumption of the same mean and variance of the Poisson model, which is a quite uncommon procedure with real data (Prebensen et al., 2015). Therefore, this model facilitates the mandatory inclusion of implicit heterogeneity into models used in tourist behaviour research, as suggested Alén et al. (2014).

Second, the current results provide proof of the heterogeneity of destinations and the need for further study of LOS in a wide variety of destinations. More extensive destination analysis could help destination managers or policymakers make better decisions. This study's findings also contribute to the theoretical development of this field of research by proving that heterogeneity has clear implications within destinations for the overall formation of LOS patterns.

More specifically, the findings reveal two different profiles with regard to variables' impact on LOS: national tourists and foreign tourists. In general, at least in the short term, motivation and satisfaction do not affect trip duration, even though these variables can affect the volume of tourists. Trip duration is planned in advance and depends largely on socioeconomic conditions and the type of accommodation and transportation. However, these findings vary depending on the group of tourists since, for domestic tourists, the reasons for travelling condition LOS, whereas, for international tourists, satisfaction has the most significant impact on LOS.

Therefore, tourists' country of origin affects not only their choice of longer or shorter LOS but also the patterns that shape destinations' overall LOS. These results indicate that the disparate results found in the literature on the factors influencing the composition of LOS could be due specifically to differences in the composition of groups of tourists who visit each destination. This may be true either only for the tourists at the time research is carried out or, through an evolutionary and adaptive process, for all tourists who have visited a destination throughout its life cycle. Further studies are needed to confirm if this finding is correct for all destinations, as well as

how heterogeneity of LOS influences the attraction systems targeting national and foreign tourists.

In addition, the present results offer several other minor advances to the LOS literature. First, this research incorporated tourists' interest in loyalty programmes into the analyses, revealing a significant impact of this variable on the LOS of international tourists. To the best of our knowledge, this variable had not been used in previous studies of LOS. This finding highlights that, at least in the case of foreign tourists, loyalty programmes not only motivate visitors to return but also make their stays longer. This implies that LOS affects tourism loyalty (Pérez-Cabañero et al., 2017) and, conversely, that LOS may be influenced by the recognition and attraction of tourists with a greater propensity to enrol in loyalty programmes.

Second, the present results show that, while a positive relationship exists between LOS and age for the destination in question, a negative relationship with income is present. This suggests that the relationship between age and income is not a direct one and that both variables are not approximations of one another. This finding highlights a greater need for research on the behaviour of lifecycle variables. On the one hand, the variable of age may follow different patterns depending on if it is analysed as a monotonic or non-monotonic variable (de Oliveira Santos et al., 2015). On the other hand, a different configuration has been found for the relationship between household income and LOS. These variations must be due to some pattern that has so far not been detected.

Future research could seek an explanation for these varying results. For example, the most important conditions shaping LOS patterns could be the dominant tourist profile, or the duration of tourists' stay in this destination could be mainly due to place of origin factors. However, the varying results might also be due to the presence of a rent effect on destination choices, including luxury, normal and basic necessities destinations. The latter type of destination might be a less desirable target in tourism because of a negative income effect, since, at least for some groups of visitors, this effect would mean that consumers would choose other more luxurious destinations and reduce the number of days spent in basic necessities destinations.

Last, this is the first paper to focus on inland tourism in the Province of Malaga, with the goal of facilitating better decision-making processes for local destination managers,

policymakers and lodging managers. From a practical point of view, to increase LOS, destination managers need to identify the key characteristics of both foreign and domestic tourists and use marketing tools to attract and increase the trip duration of especially susceptible groups. Collaboration with other destinations, such as Costa del Sol; the development of attractive tourism resources; and the creation of events focused on the most receptive demographic groups may be good choices in terms of attracting and retaining visitors.

In addition, the results indicate that this destination could benefit from investing in slow tourism. This can progressively and comprehensively offset the unevenness of tourism-driven development projects that have often especially favoured urban and coastal spaces at the expense of rural and inland environments (Conway & Timms, 2012). Thus, further investigation of slow tourism's possible inclusion in domestic destinations and its influence on LOS could be strategically important.

This study has some limitations that need to be considered. The most significant is that this research selected only one of several possible methods because of its transversal character, which means further studies are needed to conduct longitudinal work using survival models. In addition, both the similarities and differences found are associated with the particular characteristics of the destination in question (Hernández et al., 2016). Therefore, these results can only be generalised or extrapolated to other destinations with extreme caution. LOS does not usually present homogeneous behaviour, so research results are normally associated with the particular destination under study (Alén et al., 2014). For this reason, researchers largely agree that LOS findings cannot be generalised and that an overall understanding of this phenomenon can only be based on the sum of individual studies.

References

Alegre, J., & Pou, L. L. (2006). The length of stay in the demand for tourism. *Tourism Management, 27*(6), 1343–1355.

Alegre, J., Mateo, S., & Pou, L. (2011). A latent class approach to tourists' length of stay. *Tourism Management*, *32*(3), 555–563.

Alén, E., Nicolau, J. L., Losada, N., & Domínguez, T. (2014). Determinant factors of senior tourists' length of stay. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *49*, 19–32.

Backer, E., & Barry, B. (2013). Empirical testing of the theory of partial industrialisation in tourism. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *20*, 43–58.

Barros, C. P., & Machado, L. P. (2010). The length of the stay in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *37*(3), 692–706.

Barros, C. P., Butler, R., & Correia, A. (2010). The length of stay of golf tourism: A survival analysis. *Tourism Management*, *31*(1), 13–21.

Barros, C. P., Correia, A., & Crouch, G. (2008). Determinants of the length of stay in Latin American tourism destinations. *Tourism Analysis*, *13*(4), 329–340.

Blaine, T. W., Mohammad, G., & Var, T. (1993). Demand for rural tourism: An exploratory study. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *20*(4), 770–773.

Brida, J. G., Meleddu, M., & Pulina, M. (2013). Factors influencing length of stay of cultural tourists. *Tourism Economics*, *19*(6), 1273–1292.

Burns, P. M., & Sancho, M. M. (2003). Local perceptions of tourism planning: The case of Cuellar, Spain. *Tourism Management*, *24*(3), 331–339.

Caffyn, A. (2012). Advocating and implementing slow tourism. *Tourism Recreation Research*, *37*(1), 77–80.

Cannon, T., & Ford, J. (2002). Relationship of demographic and trip characteristics to visitor spending: An analysis of sports travel visitors across time. *Tourism Economics*, *8*(3), 263–271.

Celiento, I. (2017, October 11). *Platform architecture and design*. Retrieved 11.02.2018 from: <http://www.platform-ad.com/renovation-of-the-caminito-del-rey-by-luis-machuca-asociados-arquitectos/>

Ceron, J. P., & Dubois, G. (2007). Limits to tourism? A backcasting scenario for sustainable tourism mobility in 2050. *Tourism and Hospitality Planning & Development*, *4*(3), 191–209.

Consejería de Turismo y Comercio. (2014). La oferta de alojamiento turístico en Andalucía: Año 2014 [Tourism accomodation offer in Andalucia: 2014]. Seville: Junta de Andalucía.

Conway, D., & Timms, B. F. (2012). Are slow travel and slow tourism misfits, compadres or different genres? *Tourism Recreation Research*, *37*(1), 71–76.

Decrop, A., & Snelders, D. (2004). Planning the summer vacation. An adaptable process. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *31*(4), 1008–1030.

de Oliveira Santos, G. E., Ramos, V., & Rey-Maquieira, J. (2015). Length of stay at multiple destinations of tourism trips in Brazil. *Journal of Travel Research*, *54*(6), 788–800.

Diputación de Málaga. (2014). *Observatorio turístico del interior en la provincia de Málaga 2014.* Malaga: Observatorio Turístico, Delegación de Turismo y Promoción del Territorio, Málaga. Retrieved 12.07.2017 from: <http://www.malaga.es/base/descargas/home.asp?cod=208013>

Diputación de Málaga. (2016). *Observatorio turístico del interior de la provincia de Málaga 2016*. Malaga: Observatorio Turístico, Delegación de Medio Ambiente y Promoción del Territorio, Málaga. Retrieved 28.09.2017 from: <https://www.costadelsolmalaga.org/base/descargas/275862/observatorio-turistico-interior-2016>

Downward, P., & Lumsdon, L. (2000). The demand for day-visits: An analysis of visitor spending. *Tourism Economics*, *6*(3), 251–261.

El Mundo. (2016, May 25). *El mundo*. Retrieved 11.02.2018 from: <http://www.elmundo.es/andalucia/malaga/2016/05/25/5745e84cca474184788b4593.html>

Fernández-Morales, A., & Mayorga-Toledano, M. C. (2008). Seasonal concentration of the hotel demand in Costa del Sol: A decomposition by nationalities. *Tourism Management*, *29*(5), 940–949.

Ferrer-Rosell, B., Martínez-Garcia, E., & Coenders, G. (2014). Package and no-frills air carriers as moderators of length of stay. *Tourism Management*, *42*, 114–122.

Fleischer, A., & Pizam, A. (2002). Tourism constraints among Israeli seniors. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *29*(1), 106–123.

Fleischer, A., Peleg, G., & Byk, J. R. (2011). The impact of changes in household vacation expenditures on the travel and hospitality industries. *Tourism Management*, *32*(4), 815–821.

Garcia, F. A. (2014). A comparative study of the evolution of tourism policy in Spain and Portugal. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *11*, 34–50.

Gémar, G., Moniche, L., & Morales, A. J. (2016). Survival analysis of the Spanish hotel industry. *Tourism Management*, *54*, 428–438.

Gokovali, U., Bahar, O., & Kozak, M. (2007). Determinants of length of stay: A practical use of survival analysis. *Tourism Management*, *28*(3), 736–746.

Grigolon, A. B., Borgers, A. W., Kemperman, A. D., & Timmermans, H. J. (2014). Vacation length choice: A dynamic mixed multinomial logit model. *Tourism Management*, *41*, 158–167.

Gurmu, S. & Trivedi, P. K. (1996). Excess zeros in count models for recreational trips. *Journal of Business & Economic Statistics, 14*(4), 469–477.

Guzman-Parra, V. F., Quintana-García, C., Benavides-Velasco, C. A., & Vila-Oblitas, J. A. (2015). Trends and seasonal variation of tourist demand in Spain: The role of rural tourism. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *16*, 123–128.

Hellström, J. (2006). A bivariate count data model for household tourism demand. *Journal of Applied Econometrics*, *21*(2), 213–226.

Hernández, J. M., Suárez-Vega, R., & Santana-Jiménez, Y. (2016). The inter-relationship between rural and mass tourism: The case of Catalonia, Spain. *Tourism Management*, *54*, 43–57.

Hong, S. K., & Jang, H. (2005). Factors influencing purchasing time of a new casino product and its managerial implications: An exploratory study. *Journal of Travel Research*, *43*(4), 395–403.

Jackson, J. (2006). Developing regional tourism in China: The potential for activating business clusters in a socialist market economy. *Tourism Management*, *27*(4), 695–706.

Kastenholz, E. (2005). Analysing determinants of visitor spending for the rural tourist market in North Portugal. *Tourism Economics*, *11*(4), 555–569.

Knox, P. L. (2005). Creating ordinary places: Slow cities in a fast world. *Journal of Urban Design*, *10*(1), 1–11.

Lee, K. H., Alexander, A. C., & Kim, D. Y. (2014). A study of geographical distance groups on length of visitors' stay at local food festival destinations. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *20*(2), 125–136.

Lumsdon, L. M., & McGrath, P. (2011). Developing a conceptual framework for slow travel: A grounded theory approach. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *19*(3), 265–279.

Machado, L. P. (2010). Does destination image influence the length of stay in a tourism destination? *Tourism Economics*, *16*(2), 443–456.

Mak, J., & Nishimura, E. (1979). The economics of a hotel room tax. *Journal of Travel Research*, *17*(4), 2–6.

Mak, J., Moncur, J., & Yonamine, D. (1977). Determinants of visitor expenditures and visitor lengths of stay: A cross-section analysis of US visitors to Hawaii. *Journal of Travel Research*, *15*(3), 5–8.

Martínez-García, E., & Raya, J. M. (2008). Length of stay for low-cost tourism. *Tourism Management*, *29*(6)1064–1075.

Mei, X. Y. (2014). Boring and expensive: The challenge of developing experience-based tourism in the inland region, Norway. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *12*, 71–80.

Menezes, A. G., & Moniz, A. (2011). Determinants of length of stay – A parametric survival analysis. *Tourism Analysis*, *16*(5), 509–524.

Menezes, A. G., Moniz, A., & Vieira, J. C. (2008). The determinants of length of stay of tourists in the Azores. *Tourism Economics*, *14*(1), 205–222.

Meng, B., & Choi, K. (2016). The role of authenticity in forming slow tourists' intentions: Developing an extended model of goal-directed behavior. *Tourism Management*, *57*, 397–410.

Meng, F., & Uysal, M. (2008). Effects of gender differences on perceptions of destination attributes, motivations, and travel values: An examination of a nature-based resort destination. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *16*(4), 445–466.

Mok, C., & Iverson, T. J. (2000). Expenditure-based segmentation: Taiwanese tourists to Guam. *Tourism Management*, *21*(3), 299–305.

Mules, T. (1998). Decomposition of Australian tourist expenditure. *Tourism Management*, *19*(3), 267–271.

Neal, J. D. (2004). The effect of length of stay on travelers' perceived satisfaction with service quality. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, *4*(3/4), 167–176.

Neal, J. D., Uysal, M., & Sirgy, M. J. (2007). The effect of tourism services on travelers' quality of life. *Journal of Travel Research*, *46*(2), 154–163.

Nicolau, J. L., & Más, F. J. (2008). Sequential choice behavior: Going on vacation and type of destination. *Tourism Management*, *29*(5), 1023–1034.

Nicolau, J. L., & Más, F. J. (2009). Simultaneous analysis of whether and how long to go on holidays. *The Service Industries Journal*, *29*(8), 1077–1092.

Pawlusiński, R., & Kubal, M. (2017). A new take on an old structure? Creative and slow tourism in Krakow (Poland). *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, *June*, 1–21. https://doi.org/10.1080/14766825.2017.1330338

Pérez-Cabañero, C., Cervera-Taulet, A., & Schlesinger, W. (2017). Analysis of the impact of length of stay on the quality of service experience, satisfaction and loyalty. *International Review on Public and Nonprofit Marketing*, *14*(2), 253–268.

Peypoch, N., Randriamboarison, R., Rasoamananjara, F., & Solonandrasana, B. (2012). The length of stay of tourists in Madagascar. *Tourism Management*, *33*(5), 1230–1235.

Prebensen, N. K., Altin, M., & Uysal, M. (2015). Length of stay: A case of northern Norway. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, *15*(Sup1), 28–47.

Raya-Vilchez, J. M., & Martínez-Garcia, E. (2011). Nationality and low-cost trip duration. A microeconometric analysis. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, *17*(3), 168–174.

Salmasi, L., Celidoni, M., & Procidano, I. (2012). Length of stay: Price and income semi-elasticities at different destinations in Italy. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *14*(6), 515–530.

Sarrión-Gavilán, M. D., Benítez-Márquez, M. D., & Mora-Rangel, E. O. (2015). Spatial distribution of tourism supply in Andalusia. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *15*, 29–45.

Scholtz, M., Kruger, M., & Saayman, M. (2015). Determinants of visitor length of stay at three coastal national parks in South Africa. *Journal of Ecotourism*, *14*(1), 21–47.

Silberman, J. (1985). A demand function for length of stay: The evidence from Virginia Beach. *Journal of Travel Research*, *23*(4), 16–23.

Soler, I. P., & Gemar, G. (2017). A measure of tourist experience quality: The case of inland tourism in Malaga. *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, *September*, 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1080/14783363.2017.1372185

Spotts, D. M., & Mahoney, E. M. (1991). Segmenting visitors to a destination region based on the volume of their expenditures. *Journal of Travel Research*, *29*(4), 24–31.

Thrane, C. (2012). Analyzing tourists' length of stay at destinations with survival models: A constructive critique based on a case study. *Tourism Management*, *33*(1), 126–132.

Thrane, C. (2015). Research note: The determinants of tourists' length of stay: Some further modelling issues. *Tourism Economics*, *21*(5), 1087–1093.

Thrane, C. (2016). Students' summer tourism: Determinants of length of stay (LOS). *Tourism Management*, *54*, 178–184.

Thrane, C., & Farstad, E. (2012). Tourists' length of stay: The case of international summer visitors to Norway. *Tourism Economics*, *18*(5), 1069–1082.

Timms, B. F., & Conway, D. (2012). Slow tourism at the Caribbean's geographical margins. *Tourism Geographies*, *14*(3), 396–418.

Uysal, M., McDonald, C. D., & O'Leary, J. T. (1988). Length of stay: A macro analysis for cross-country skiing trips. *Journal of Travel Research*, *26*(3), 29–31.

Wang, E., Little, B. B., & DelHomme-Little, B. A. (2012). Factors contributing to tourists' length of stay in Dalian northeastern China – A survival model analysis. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *4*, 67–72.

Weatherford, L. R. (1995). Length of stay heuristics: Do they really make a difference? *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, *36*(6), 70–79.

Yang, Y., Wong, K. K., & Zhang, J. (2011). Determinants of length of stay for domestic tourists: Case study of Yixing. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *16*(6), 619–633.

Yi, S., Day, J., & Cai, L. A. (2011). Rural tourism demand: Duration modeling for drive tourists' length of stay in rural areas of the United States. *Tourism Challenges and Trends*, *4*(1), 147–168.

Yurtseven, H. R., & Kaya, O. (2011). Slow tourists: A comparative research based on Cittaslow principles. *American International Journal of Contemporary Research*, *1*(2), 91–98.

Table 1: Description of sample

Variables		Mean or %	Spanish mean or %	Foreign mean or %
Motivation[a, b]	Holiday	92.3	83.7	96.6
	Business*	0.6	2.2	0.5
	Education	0.4	0.8	0.2
	Visiting friends or relatives	6.7	13.2	2.7
Type of Accommodation[a, b]	Four-star hotel	12.8	7.2	16.7
	Three-star hotel	35.8	30.0	34.7
	Two-star hotel	12.5	12.1	12.6
	One-star hotel	0.4	0.3	0.5
	Hostel	6.8	7.7	7.3
	Tourism apartment	7.7	5.8	7.8
	Rented house	3.3	2.2	5.5
	Second residence	3.0	4.1	3.2
	Family/friend's house	9.2	19.6	4.3
	Camping site	2.1	1.7	2.3
	Country house/lodge	4.7	6.6	4.1
	Shelter	0.4	1.1	0.2
	Other accommodations*	1.3	1.7	0.9
Type of Reservation[a, b]	No hotel/hostel*	31.8	42.7	28.3
	All-inclusive	1.0	0.6	1.4
	Full board	4.9	5.5	4.3
	Half board	12.0	8.0	14.6
	Breakfast included	42.6	37.5	42.2
	Accommodation only*	7.7	5.8	9.1
Mode of Transport[a, b]	Ship	1.0	1.7	0.5
	Train	1.9	4.1	0.0
	Camper	2.5	2.2	3.0
	Airplane	48.1	2.2	83.6
	Motorbike	1.2	0.6	1.4
	Coach	2.5	5.0	0.5
	Own car	42.1	84.0	10.5
	Rental car*	0.6	0.3	0.7
Travelling Group[a]	Friends	5.6	8.5	5.5
	Family	17.1	16.3	16.0
	Couple	70.2	64.2	72.1
	Alone*	7.1	11.0	6.2
Nationality	Foreign	56.4	–	–
	Spain*	43.6	–	–
Employment Status[a, b]	Employee*	79.1	72.2	84.2
	Unemployed	3.9	7.4	0.5
	Student	7.7	11.8	5.0
	Retired	9.1	8.0	10.0

	Housework	0.3	0.6	0.2
Marital Status[a]	Single*	8.9	13.2	8.2
	Married	88.3	81.8	89.7
	Widowed/Widowered	1.9	2.8	1.8
	Divorced	0.9	2.2	0.2
Dependent Children[a, b]	Yes	20.4	24.0	17.4
	No*	76.6	76.0	82.6
Age[a, b]	18–29*	12.9	16.3	11.6
	30–39	24.6	26.4	23.3
	40–49	31.9	35.5	29.2
	50–59	17.8	12.7	20.5
	60–64	4.3	3.6	5.0
	≥ 65	8.5	5.5	10.3
Gender	Male	54.6	53.2	54.6
	Female*	45.4	46.8	45.4
Mean Monthly Income[b]	≤ €500	0.7	0.8	0.7
	€501–1,000*	2.5	5.0	0.0
	€1,001–1,500	9.6	15.4	3.0
	€1,501–2,000	8.6	11.0	5.7
	€2,001–2,500	7.1	6.9	7.3
	€2,501–3,000	8.8	5.8	10.5
	€3,001–3,500	9.6	8.8	9.8
	€3,501–4,500	12.6	9.6	15.3
	€4,500–6,000	10.1	5.8	12.8
	≥ €6,000	5.0	0.6	8.4
	N/A*	25.2	30.3	26.5
Interested in Loyalty Programmes	Yes	8.0	8.8	9.1
	No	92.0	91.2	90.9
LOS[a, b]		7.65	6.78	9.30
Accommodation[a]		8.34	8.32	8.39
Leisure[a, b]		7.97	7.87	8.05
Food and Beverage[a, b]		8.13	8.02	8.22

[a] Levene's test was used to find differences in the variances between the national and foreign subsamples.
[b] The respective t-tests were used to find differences in the means between the national and foreign subsamples.
* Reference alternative

Table 2: Results for LOS determinant factors

Variable			Coefficient	Standard Error	Wald Chi-Square	Sig	Exp. (B)
Motivation	(Interception)	**	1.163	0.5789	4.04	0.044	3.201
	Visit Friends or Relatives		0.249	0.3538	0.496	0.481	1.283
	Holiday		0.218	0.3229	0.455	0.5	1.243
	Education	***	2.86	0.43	44.236	0.000	17.465
	Business		0a	–	–	–	1
Type of Accommodation	Four-Star Hotel		0.098	0.2434	0.163	0.687	1.103
	Three-Star Hotel		-0.034	0.2399	0.02	0.887	0.967
	Two-Star Hotel		-0.021	0.2423	0.008	0.931	0.979
	One-Star Hotel		-0.656	0.4133	2.522	0.112	0.519
	Hostel		-0.008	0.2443	0.001	0.973	0.992
	Tourism Apartment	***	0.67	0.2327	8.278	0.004	1.953
	Rented House	***	1.452	0.2555	32.295	0.000	4.272
	Second Residence	***	2.516	0.2557	96.874	0.000	12.383
	Family/Friend's House	***	0.899	0.2453	13.441	0.000	2.458
	Camping Site	**	0.46	0.2284	4.062	0.044	1.584
	Country House/Lodge	**	0.525	0.2439	4.631	0.031	1.69
	Shelters		0.062	0.3885	0.025	0.874	1.064
	Others		0a	–	–	–	1
	No Hotel/Hostel		0a	–	–	–	1
Type of Reservation	All-Inclusive		0.098	0.2245	0.191	0.662	1.103
	Full Board		0.201	0.1307	2.36	0.124	1.222
	Half Board	*	0.184	0.1072	2.931	0.087	1.201
	Breakfast Included		-0.059	0.0908	0.419	0.518	0.943
	Accommodation Only		0a	–	–	–	1
Mode of Transport	Ship	**	0.76	0.3595	4.475	0.034	2.139
	Train	**	0.732	0.3339	4.801	0.028	2.078
	Camper	***	1.13	0.3468	10.608	0.001	3.095
	Airplane	**	0.693	0.2934	5.584	0.018	2
	Motorbike	**	0.789	0.351	5.05	0.025	2.201
	Coach		0.222	0.3383	0.431	0.511	1.249
	Own Car	**	0.662	0.297	4.971	0.026	1.939
	Rental Car		0a	–	–	–	1
Travelling Group	Friends		0.041	0.1287	0.101	0.751	1.042
	Family	**	-0.296	0.1303	5.178	0.023	0.743
	Couple	*	-0.218	0.1128	3.749	0.053	0.804
	Alone		0a	–	–	–	1
Nationality	Foreign		0.132	0.0802	2.695	0.101	1.141
	Spanish		0a	–	–	–	1
Employment Status	Homeworker		-0.434	0.377	1.326	0.25	0.648
	Retired		0.065	0.1554	0.173	0.678	1.067

	Student		0.087	0.1157	0.56	0.454	1.09
	Unemployed		-0.208	0.1456	2.041	0.153	0.812
	Employee		0a	–	–	–	1
Marital Status	Divorced	**	-0.531	0.2572	4.265	0.039	0.588
	Widowed/Widowered		0.08	0.179	0.202	0.653	1.084
	Married		0.103	0.1038	0.982	0.322	1.108
	Single		0a	–	–	–	1
Dependent Children	Dependent Children: Yes	***	0.231	0.0723	10.207	0.001	1.26
	Dependent Children: No		0a	–	–	–	1
Age	≥ 65	**	0.462	0.182	6.445	0.011	1.587
	60–64		0.218	0.139	2.463	0.117	1.244
	50–59	**	0.231	0.1028	5.04	0.025	1.259
	40–49	***	0.285	0.0973	8.546	0.003	1.329
	30–39	*	0.185	0.0961	3.69	0.055	1.203
	18–29		0a	–	–	–	1
Gender	Female	*	0.083	0.044	3.593	0.058	1.087
	Male		0a	–	–	–	1
Mean Monthly Income	N/A	***	-1.101	0.2577	18.233	0.000	0.333
	≥ €6,000	***	-1.068	0.2746	15.13	0.000	0.344
	€4,500–6,000	***	-1.162	0.2642	19.341	0.000	0.313
	€3,501–4,500	***	-1.261	0.2632	22.961	0.000	0.283
	€3,001–3,500	***	-1.123	0.2628	18.26	0.000	0.325
	€2,501–3,000	***	-1.29	0.2634	23.982	0.000	0.275
	€2,001–2,500	***	-1.232	0.2653	21.565	0.000	0.292
	€1,501–2,000	***	-1.296	0.2657	23.802	0.000	0.274
	€1,001–1500	***	-1.293	0.2615	24.455	0.000	0.274
	€501–1,000	***	-1.251	0.2875	18.918	0.000	0.286
	≤ €500		0a	–	–	–	1
Interested in Loyalty Programmes	Loyalty: Yes		0.123	0.0816	2.27	0.132	1.131
	Loyalty: No		0a	–	–	–	1
Satisfaction	Accommodation		-0.04	0.0252	2.506	0.113	0.961
	Food & beverage		0.038	0.0296	1.652	0.199	1.039
	Leisure		0.024	0.0287	0.696	0.404	1.024
Scale			0.226				
Deviance			139.095				
Scaled Deviance			615				
Pearson's Chi-square			180.098				
Scaled Pearson's Chi-square			796.291				
Log-Likelihood			-1845.848				
Adjusted Log-Likelihood			-8161.28				
Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)			3809.696				
Adjusted Akaike Information Criterion (AICc)			3821.227				
Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC)			4075.977				

Note: Sig = significance levels: *** 1%, ** 5% and * 10%

Table 3: Results for LOS determinant factors for Spanish and foreign tourists

Variable		Spanish Tourists			Foreign Tourists		
		Sig	Coefficient	Exp. (B)	Sig	Coefficient	Exp. (B)
Motivation	(Interception)		-0.561	0.571	***	2.365	10.648
	Visit Friends or Relatives	*	0.774	2.168		1.113	3.044
	Holiday	**	0.859	2.36		0.961	2.613
	Education	***	3.912	50.018	***	4.192	66.163
	Business		0[a]	1		0[a]	1
Type of Accommodation	Four-Star Hotel		0.182	1.2		0.104	1.11
	Three-Star Hotel		0.088	1.092		-0.004	0.996
	Two-Star Hotel		0.201	1.223		-0.127	0.881
	One-Star Hotel		-0.433	0.648		-0.707	0.493
	Hostel		0.291	1.338		-0.245	0.783
	Tourism Apartment	**	0.798	2.222	*	0.621	1.861
	Rented House	**	0.843	2.323	***	1.58	4.854
	Second Residence	***	2.124	8.364	***	3.011	20.299
	Family/Friend's House	***	1.066	2.904	**	0.816	2.261
	Camping Site		0.442	1.556		0.504	1.655
	Country House/Lodge	*	0.572	1.772		0.557	1.746
	Shelters		-0.287	0.751		0.397	1.487
	Others		0[a]	1		0[a]	1
Type of Reservation	No Hotel/Hostel		0[a]	1		0[a]	1
	All-Inclusive		-0.514	0.598		0.424	1.528
	Full Board		0.19	1.21		0.276	1.318
	Half Board		-0.072	0.931	*	0.264	1.303
	Breakfast Included		-0.067	0.936		-0.04	0.961
	Accommodation Only		0[a]	1		0[a]	1
Mode of Transport	Ship	**	1.242	3.463		-0.085	0.919
	Train	**	1.323	3.753		0.483	1.622
	Camper	***	1.785	5.958			
	Airplane	**	1.382	3.981		0.07	1.072
	Motorbike		0.978	2.66		0.325	1.384
	Coach		0.857	2.355		-0.126	0.882
	Own Car	**	1.091	2.976		0.094	1.098
	Rental Car		0[a]	1		0[a]	1
Travelling Group	Friends		-0.175	0.839	**	0.465	1.591
	Family	**	-0.381	0.683		-0.191	0.826
	Couple	**	-0.335	0.715		-0.026	0.974
	Alone		0[a]	1		0[a]	1
Employment Status	Homeworker		-0.558	0.572		-0.459	0.632
	Retired		-0.244	0.784		0.283	1.327
	Student	*	0.281	1.324	**	-0.397	0.672
	Unemployed		-0.191	0.826	***	-2.275	0.103
	Employee		0[a]	1		0[a]	1
Marital Status	Divorced		-0.226	0.797		0.389	1.475
	Widowed/Widowered		-0.309	0.734		0.122	1.13

	Married		0.14	1.151		0.018	1.018
	Single		0[a]	1		0[a]	1
Dependent Children	Dependent Children: Yes	***	0.294	1.342	*	0.181	1.198
	Dependent Children: No		0[a]	1		0[a]	1
	≥ 65	*	0.586	1.797		0.162	1.176
	60–64		0.21	1.234		0.101	1.106
Age	50–59	**	0.336	1.399		0.114	1.121
	40–49	**	0.32	1.377		0.14	1.15
	30–39	*	0.26	1.297		-0.036	0.965
	18–29		0[a]	1		0[a]	1
Gender	Female		-0.037	0.964	***	0.238	1.268
	Male		0[a]	1		0[a]	1
	N/A		-0.383	0.682	***	-2.081	0.125
	≥ €6,000		-0.297	0.743	***	-2.105	0.122
	€4,500–6,000		-0.503	0.605	***	-2.134	0.118
	€3,501–4,500		-0.442	0.643	***	-2.254	0.105
	€3,001–3,500		-0.406	0.667	***	-2.154	0.116
Mean Monthly Income	€2,501–3,000		-0.525	0.592	***	-2.372	0.093
	€2,001–2,500	*	-0.653	0.521	***	-2.298	0.1
	€1,501–2,000		-0.542	0.581	***	-2.428	0.088
	€1,001–1500		-0.561	0.571	***	-2.491	0.083
	€501–1,000		-0.488	0.614			
	≤ €500		0[a]	1		0[a]	1
Interested in Loyalty Programmes	Loyalty: Yes		-0.03	0.97	**	0.274	1.316
	Loyalty: No		0[a]	1		0[a]	1
	Accommodation		0.034	1.034	***	-0.149	0.862
Satisfaction	Food & beverage		-0.024	0.976	**	0.088	1.092
	Leisure		-0.002	0.998		0.056	1.057
Scale			0.172			0.224	
Deviance			40.564			72.602	
Scaled Deviance			236			324	
Pearson's Chi-square			39.258			92.658	
Scaled Pearson's Chi-square			228.401			413.5	
Log-Likelihood			-778.875			-1054.009	
Adjusted Log-Likelihood			-4531.484			-4703.688	
Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)			1673.749			2220.018	
Adjusted Akaike Information Criterion (AICc)			1702.873			2239.783	
Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC)			1887.397			2440.668	

Note: Sig = significance levels: *** 1%, ** 5% and * 10%

Table 4: Summary of hypothesis validation

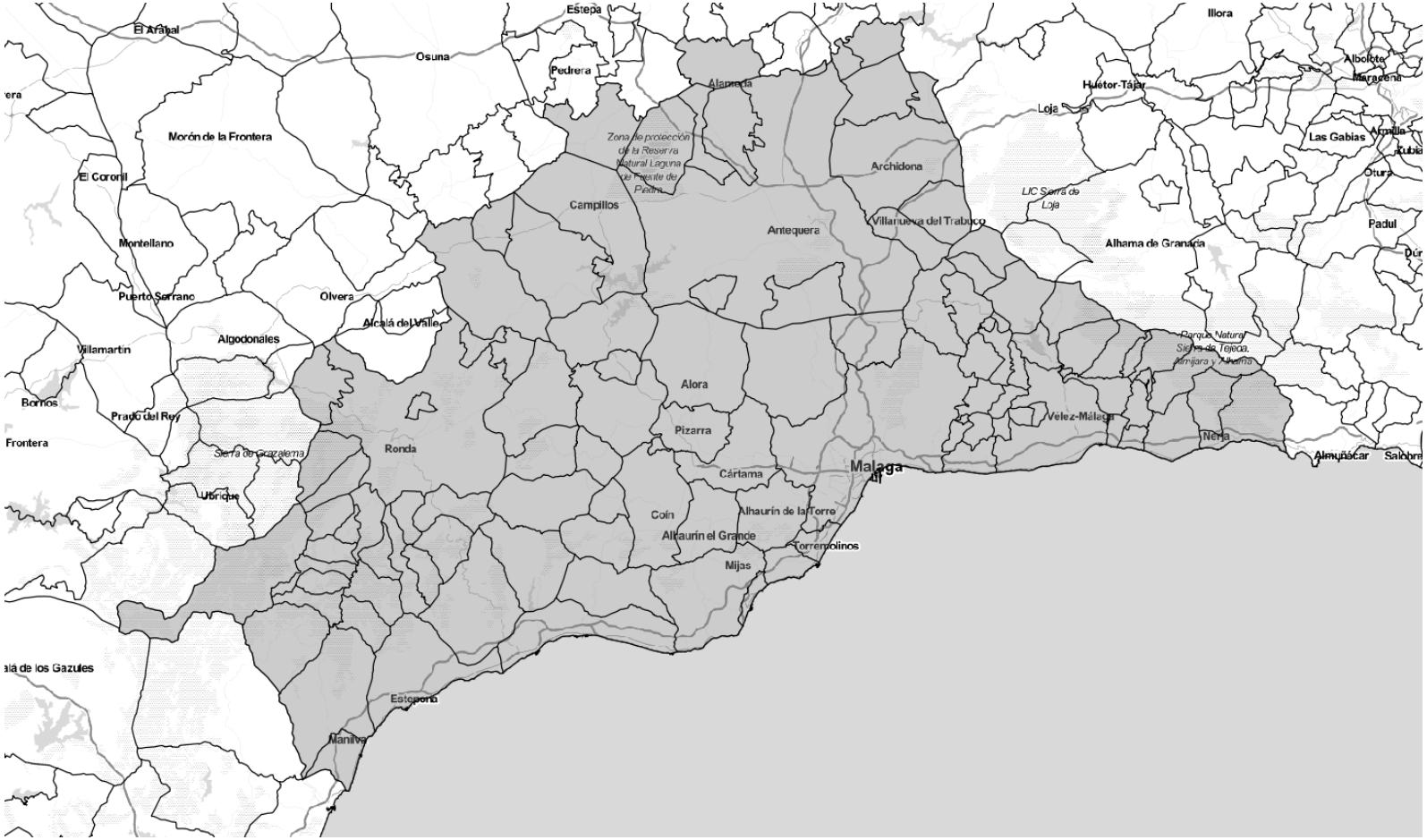
Hypothesis	Overall Model	Spanish Tourist Model	Foreign Tourist Model
***H1**: Foreign tourists tend to book longer stays than domestic tourists do.*	×	–	–
***H2**: Age is positively related to LOS.*	✓	✓	✓
***H3**: Marital status determines LOS.*	☑	×	×
***H4**: LOS is longer for men's trips.*	☒	×	☒
***H5**: Dependent children increase LOS.*	✓	✓	✓
***H6**: Employment status affects LOS.*	×	☑	✓
***H7**: Monthly income is positively related with LOS.*	☒	☒	☒
***H8**: Trip purpose affects LOS.*	☑	✓	☑
***H9**: Perceived satisfaction with destination services affects LOS.*	×	×	✓
***H10**: Destination loyalty programmes affect LOS.*	×	×	✓
***H11**: LOS is determined by type of accommodation.*	✓	✓	✓
***H12**: Type of reservation determines LOS.*	☑	×	☑
***H13**: Mode of transport determines LOS.*	✓	✓	✓
***H14**: LOS is determined by whether tourists travel alone or in groups.*	✓	✓	☑

Notes: ✓ Hypothesis accepted; ☑ Hypothesis accepted but just one category significant; × Hypothesis rejected; ☒ Hypothesis rejected with opposite sign

Figure 1: Malaga's location in Spain

Source: Adapted from Instituto de Estadística y Cartografía de Andalucía (2017) and Stamen Toner Lite/OSM using QGIS 2.18 Software

Figure 2: Detailed view of Malaga's regions



Source: Adapted from Instituto de Estadística y Cartografía de Andalucía (2017) and Stamen Toner Lite/OSM using QGIS 2.18 Software