Exploring the Dynamics of Ego Involvement Among Canadian Backpackers:
An Achievement Goal Interpretation

by

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AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

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ABSTRACT

Among outdoor adventure activities, backpacking has grown in popularity among travelers, marketers, and academia in recent years. However, to date research focusing on Canadian backpacker characteristics and motivations is very limited. To address this knowledge gap, this thesis aims to explore how different patterns of goals (validation-seeking and growth-seeking goals) are associated with ego involvement. The study will also investigate the mediating role of perceived competence along with perceived risk and core motivation factors of backpacking (knowledge and rest & relaxation factors) on the association between validation-seeking and growth-seeking goals with ego involvement. Self-administered questionnaires were made available online, through eSurv from April 1st to May 20th, 2015, 185 valid questionnaires were completed. Both univariate and multivariate analyses were conducted to analyze this quantitative data. The data indicated that Canadian backpackers are mostly growth seeker individuals who travel to learn new experiences as well as to self-improve their backpacking skills. It also revealed that growth-seeking backpackers are more ego involved compared to their validation-seeking counterparts. Analyzing the mediators revealed that it is general perceived competence, not specific perceived competence, which influences growth-seeking goals to enhance ego involvement among Canadian backpackers. Moreover, like other backpackers, Canadians showed low levels of perceived physical, functional, and health risk. Only functional risk related to accommodations negatively influenced on their level of ego involvement. Nevertheless, perceived risk, does not influence as a mediator to enhance ego involvement through growth-seeking goals. It was also found that among the core motivations of knowledge and relaxation, only knowledge-seeking influences growth-seeking goals to augment ego involvement and experienced seeking backpackers are less concerned about relaxation.

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DEDICATION

For my spouse, Mr. Hamidreza Khoushzaher, I would not be here without your love, confidence,

and reassurance. Thank you for putting up with me through the good and the bad over the last 18

years of our marriage. Thank you for encouraging me to pursue my dreams, no matter what.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Outdoor adventure tourism has recently become popular as a niche form of tourism (Swarbrook, 2003). In Canada, about 45 percent of Canadians engage in a sort of outdoor adventure activity and it is considered as the second most popular type of travel behavior following visiting family and friends (VFR) according to Destination Canada (2011). Backpacking as one of the oldest types of land-based adventure tourism has grown in popularity among travelers, marketers, and academia in recent years (Ateljevic, Doorne, Richards, & Wilson, 2004).

Although Deakin (2007) did a qualitative research to examine identity of female Canadian backpackers, to date research focusing on Canadian backpacker characteristics and motivations is non-existent. Specifically, the foundations of the pattern of beliefs (goals) that undergird the differing involvement levels to backpacking among Canadians have not been studied yet.

However, there is evidence that enduring activity-based ego involvement may result from relationships between personal goals and attributions of the activity (Celsi & Oslon, 1988). Therefore in this study, with data from a self-administered questionnaire, the association between personal goals (being validation-seeking or growth-seeking) and ego involvement among Canadian backpackers was examined. Drawing on theories from the field of adventure tourism (Carpenter & Priest, 1989; Priest, 1992), basic travel motivations (Paris &Teye, 2010), and achievement goal orientation (Dweck & Elliott, 1983), goals may enhance ego involvement through perceived competence and core motivation factors (knowledge-seeking and relaxation factor). To test these theories directly, the roles of perceived competence and core motivation

factors in explaining any association found between personal growth and ego involvement among Canadian backpackers were analyzed.

From the marketing perspective, over CAN $9.5 billion revenue annually generated by backpacking market as the Federation of International Youth Travel estimated (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2003) has stimulated a diverse infrastructure of services dedicated to backpackers' needs, such as; backpacker hostels, bus trip organizers, and backpacking guide books, e.g. Lonely Planet.

In academia, backpacking is also considered as one of the cultural symbols of restless patterns of mobility (Richards & Wilson, 2004a) with high level of involvement considering characteristics of duration of travel, contribution to self-development and self-identity, as well as the opportunities for socializations (Cohen,2011). Similarly, a growing literature related to backpacking activity provided insights into how backpackers separate themselves from other types of travellers (Cohen, 1973, 1982; Pearce, 1982, Ross, 1997). Moreover, some studies also focused on basic travel motivations of backpackers (Paris & Teye, 2010, Chen, Bao, & Huang, 2014), and destination choice (Reichel, Fuchs, & Uriely, 2009). There is also an extent psychology research related to backpackers in domains of self-change and identity (Noy, 2004), self-improvement (Larsen, Øgaard, & Brun, 2011), self-actualization in the form of self-cognition or self-testing and self-reflection (Chen, Bao, & Huang, 2013a), sensation seeking (Fuchs, 2013), and personal development (Chen, Bao, & Huang, 2013b). However, there is little ego involvement research related to adventure tourism specifically backpacking, except for Akatay, Çakici, & Harman's (2013) quantitative study about backpackers' involvement visiting Turkey, as well as a couple of qualitative studies focused implicitly on identity (Elsrud, 2001) and on personal development

among Chinese backpackers (Chen et al.'s, 2013b), backpacking involvement has not been quantitatively studied in Canada to date.

Moreover, in most studies, ego involvement was considered as a predictor to find out its influence on activities, such as skating and ice hockey (Wiley, Shaw, & Havitz, 2000); rugby players and skiers (Beaton, Funk, & Alexandris, 2009); fitness activities (Havitz, Kaczynski, & Mannell, 2013), as well as some other older studies, i.e., tennis and golf players (Backman & Crompton, 1989); ice hockey players (Wiley, 1995); wave surfing (Lankford, Hetzler, & Kitajima, 1996), and soccer (Green & Chalip, 1997), there was, though, a dearth of research considering ego involvement as an outcome to answer what psychological factors enhance ego involvement in non-competitive adventure activities, specifically backpacking.

It should also be noted that none of the studies on tourism has yet employed achievement goal orientation (personal growth and approval goals which were called growth-seeking and validation-seeking goals respectively by Dykman, 1998) to compare backpackers' behaviors, in spite of implicitly implying the concept of self-development specified among backpackers. Self-developing was considered as an important element when Loker-Murphy (1996) divided backpackers into four subgroups of Escapers/Relaxers, Social/Excitement seekers, Self-developers, and Achievers. Riley (1988) also argued that backpackers are motivated either by hedonistic considerations and perceive their trip as a period of recreation, or they are interested in meaningful experiences for self-development in addition to a large body of research about the association of goals with various types of achievement-related outcomes (Dweck, 1986, 1996; Elliott & Dweck, 1988).

To overcome the gap, the present study addressed backpackers' goal orientations (defined as backpackers' reasons and goals for approaching backpacking) and ego involvement (defined as

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their emotional attachment to backpacking activity). In other words, the effectiveness or extent of the cognitive linkage between the self or stimulus activity (defined as an activity's relatedness, connection, and engagement) and individual's self-concept, needs, and values (Kyle, Absher, Norman, Hammitt, & Jodice, 2007) among backpackers has not been studied yet.

As Celsi and Oslon (1988) suggested, when a recreationist considers an activity personally relevant, he or she perceived it to be self-related or to some extent instrumental in achieving his or her personal goals. The congruence between personal goals or values along with the attributes of an activity makes enduring (ego) involvement. Celsi and Oslon also stated that as long as personally relevant knowledge is activated in mind, a motivation state is aroused which is usually clearly seen in behavior. Havitz and Dimanche (1997) also suggested that this form of ego involvement is "an unobservable state of motivation, arousal, or interest toward a recreational activity… [which is] evoked by a particular stimulus and has drive properties" (p.246).

Building on the logic of Celsi and Oslon (1988), Havitz and Dimanche (1997), and Kyle et al. (2007), this research added information regarding the level of ego involvement among Canadian backpackers as well as revealing the association between personal growth (growth-seeking goals), and approval (validation-seeking goals) goals with ego involvement.

Although correlation is a necessary condition for demonstrating that two variables are casually related, it is not sufficient. Therefore, in order to clarify the association between achievement goal orientations and ego involvement, as Zanna and Fazio (1982) argued, there is a need to add a factor or factors to present under what conditions the variables are strongly or weakly associated. Preacher and Hayes (2008) also stated that it is more scientific to explain how or by what means a casual effect occurs. Therefore, among the factors influence any behavior in an adventure recreation experience, perceived competence was found to be crucial for any adventure

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activity. Iso-Ahola (1980) suggested that adventure experiences are under the influence of both situational risk and personal competence which was later supported by Carpenter and Priest (1989) who also argued that these two variables are negatively correlated. Secondly, perceived competence has been a central construct in the achievement motivation literature for many years (Bandura, 1977; Dweck, 1986) because it represents individuals' confidence in their ability to accomplish a task. Additionally, Priest and Bunting (1993) proposed that "adventures are a state of mind" (p.53), because each individual has a specific level of competence to an experience and each situation has a different level of inherent risk, so different people experience each activity differently. In a sentence "adventures are individually specific" (p.53). Overall, according to Deci and Ryan (1991) and Emmons (1989) competence along with safety and security are the most salient basic needs through which goals rise. Therefore, it seemed rational to test the influence of perceived risk along with perceived competence on the association between achievement goal orientation and ego involvement, considering theories of Dweck and colleagues (Dweck & Elliott, 1983; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Elliott & Dweck, 1988) and Nicholls (1984) who suggested that validation seekers often avoid challenging tasks in contrast to growth-seeking individuals searching for challenging opportunities more.

Moreover, Selin and Howard (1988) argued that ego involvement will be enhanced when important goals are expected from participating in leisure activities. Among the salient backpacker motivations, Paris and Teye (2010) stated that knowledge-seeking and relaxation factors are the core of backpacker motivations. These two variables showed no significant difference in relation to previous travel experience and age.

In sum, the study examined the association of growth-seeking and validation-seeking goals with ego involvement among Canadian backpackers and identified potential mediators of any

significant association. Guided by adventure researchers' theories and basic travel motivations, it was proposed that perceived competence, perceived risk, knowledge-seeking, and relaxation factors may be explanatory factors in the association between achievement goal orientations and ego involvement among Canadian backpackers.

The study will begin with the purpose statement and definitions of the key terms, followed by the history of backpacking and backpackers' characteristics. Second, research questions and hypotheses will be introduced. Then, the Independent Variable (Achievement Goal Orientation), Mediating variables (Perceived Competence, perceived risk, core motivations of knowledge and relaxation), and Dependent Variable (Ego Involvement) will be examined within existing literature. The method and the operationalization of variables will be presented in Chapter three, followed by analyzing the data through the self-administered questionnaire in chapter four. Finally, in Chapter five, the results will be discussed and some pathways for further research will be suggested.

Purpose Statement:

The main purpose of this study was threefold: 1) to explore the association between validation-seeking and/or growth-seeking goals and the level of ego involvement among Canadian backpackers, and 2) to investigate the mediating role of perceived competence, perceived risk, knowledge-seeking and relaxation factor on the association between validation-seeking and growth-seeking goals and ego involvement. Finally, this study revealed which factor(s) may have greater influence on this association.

The Independent variables, validation-seeking and growth-seeking goals, were defined as the variables that probably cause, influence, or affect outcomes. The Dependent variable, ego involvement, was defined as the outcome or result of the influence of the independent variables. The Mediating variables, perceived competence, perceived risk, knowledge-seeking, and relaxation factor were defined as variables that mediate the effects of the independent variables on the dependent variable.

This study was constructed based on the following conceptual framework, designed after consultation with thesis committee members to facilitate the paths of research to reach the goal.
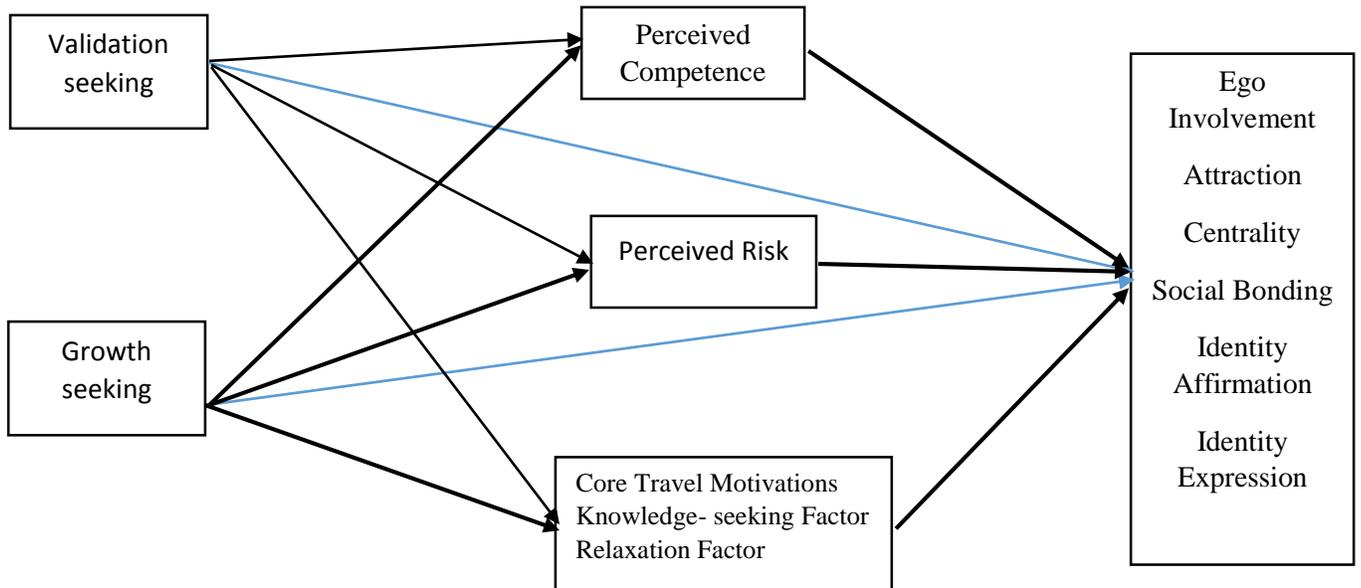
Figure 1: Proposed Structural Model of the Study

It should be added that because achievement goal orientation has neither been studied among backpackers nor in any tourism context up to now, therefore, as the very first step, it was decided to evaluate just the original and traditional dichotomous scheme of approval (validation-seeking) vs. personal growth (growth-seeking) goals with an implicit look at the probable influence of avoidance components in the domain of tourism in the following study.

1.2 Definition of Terms:

The following six key terms will be used in this study.

Backpackers: According to Loker-Murphy and Pearce (1995) backpackers are travelers with independently organized flexible itineraries who desire to visit different people, while staying overnight in budget accommodation for an extended period of time, and welcome any opportunity for recreation activities. It should also be added that both urban and back country backpackers will be considered in this study.

Validation seeking individuals are those with a strong motivational need to prove their basic worth, competence, or likeability which lead them to evaluate challenging situations as major tests to measure their basic worth, competence, or likeability (Dykman, 1998).

Growth-seeking individuals, on contrary to validation seekers, are people with a strong motivational need to improve or grow as people through developing their capacities and realizing their potential. Growth-choices outweigh fear-choices for growth seekers, therefore, they are willing to consider challenging situations as opportunities for learning, growth, and self-improvement (Dykman, 1998).

Perceived Competence: According to Schunk and Pajares (2005), perceived competence can be defined as the individuals' perceptions of themselves and their abilities. Cury, Elliot, Dafonseca, and Moller (2006) also argued that "perceptions of competence are individuals' beliefs about what they can and cannot accomplish in competence-relevant settings (p.666)."

Perceived Risk: Perceived risk refers to the subjective assessment of the actual amount of risk done by an individual in an adventurous situation (Priest & Baillie, 1987). Mowen and Minor (1998) completed the definition by considering perceived risk as "a consumer's perception of the overall

negativity of a course of action based upon an assessment of the possible negative outcomes and the likelihood that those outcomes will occur (p.176)."

Knowledge and relaxation factor: or knowledge function (escapism) as Fodness (1994) argued. Knowledge factor describes vacationer's search for knowledge, organization, and consistency in the world, while relaxation refers to just rest and relax, which is an undirected form of escapism without any purpose.

Ego Involvement: Havitz and Dimanche (1997) defined ego involvement as "an unobservable state of motivation, arousal, or interest towards a recreational activity or associated product, evoked by a particular stimulus or situation, and which has drive properties (p. 246; adopted from Rothschild, 1984, p.216)"

1.3 History of Backpacking:

The origins of the modern backpacking traces back to seventeenth and eighteenth centuries when northern elite Europeans began to travel for pleasure by the name of the Grand Tour of young European aristocrats, visiting spas and historic sites in southern Europe, which was different from the religious or labor-related travel of the lower classes or the recreational and cultural travel of the privileged (Adler, 1985; Loker-Murphy & Pearce, 1995).

Adler (1985) identified the first group of nomadism as tramps, who were lower-class wanderers in search of employment in the pre-modern West. Although tramping system, contrary to the Grand Tour, was developed as an economic necessity, like the Grand tour, it was a ritual aid by providing opportunity for sightseeing, adventure, and education. The tramping system in Europe ended with World War I because of recession and consequent unemployment.

In the first academic classification of international tourists which dates back to 1972 Cohen called the adventure tourists as the "drifter" who was the most individualistic and the least institutionalized type in contrast to the organized mass tourists. Parenthetically, in 1993, Mo, Howard and Havitz developed an attitudinal scale to test both reliability and validity of Cohen's typology. According to their 20-item scale, the extent of novelty seeking on three dimensions of destination-oriented, travel service, and social contact were tested through three purposive samples which provided support for reliability and validity of the scale.

Cohen (1972) characterized the drifter as a tourist looking for unplanned experiences in the excitement of complete strangeness. However, a year later, in 1973, he completely changed his ideas and considered drifting as a counter-culture activity based on hedonistic and often anarchistic manners, some with strong connections to drugs. Later, in 1976, Vogt introduced adventure tourists as "wanderers", who were often students, college-age adventurers from middle-class backgrounds on a tight budget. In contrast to Cohen (1973), Vogt defined wanderers as a group in need for autonomy, independence, and a quest for personal growth who wanted to learn about themselves and other people and cultures. Vogt's (1976) idea was also the base of Riley's (1988) definition of drifters as "budget travelers" who wanted to extend their trip, faced with the necessity of living on a budget. Riley's budget travelers were different from Cohen's drifters. They did not drift aimlessly without concern for destinations, nor begged, nor got involved with drugs and sex. They were not more anarchist than other western tourists, either.

Vogt (1976) hypothesized that travelling would uncover the unknown aspects of the self for the wanderers, whereas the new environment offers a potential for personal growth. He also concluded that this depth of experience is related to the great risk and cultural immersion connected to this style of traveling. Elsrud (2001) demonstrated risk and adventure as central constructs to

build a backpacker identity. She also proposed that while some backpackers are attracted to a destination because of the associated risk, others equally avoid places with the same perception of risk. The idea was supported by Uriely, Yonay, and Simchai (2002) who asserted that even though backpackers have similarity on their identity because of their form of travel, they are not homogeneous related to attitudes and motivations.

Establishments of the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) and the Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA) in the mid-1800 in London, the first brand-name hostels in Europe, provided much cheaper accommodation as well as social activities to budget travelers as Loker-Murphy and Pearce (1995) stated. Later with development of cheap airfares and lodging opportunities, drifting expanded rapidly by growing numbers of Americans followed by increasing numbers of Canadians and Australians.

It was Cohen (2003) who suggested to call "the more recent youth travelers, following well-trodden paths in large numbers, *backpackers*" (p.96)." He also argued that major social and political unrests of the 1960s, The Student Revolution and the Vietnam War, caused massive movement of youths as contemporary backpackers to seek personal redemption elsewhere, away from home in less developed areas, to gain their lost social salvation.

Hecht and Martin (2006) stated that because backpacking is not about chronological age any more, and travel style choices matter, therefore, these years marketers focus on two different travel market areas of the "Peter Pan" travelers (Loker-Murphy & Pearce, 1995) and the "Baby Boomers" (Moschis, 2002), who are mainly 30 years and older. The notion of the "flashpacker" has also emerged to represent affluent older backpackers equipped with latest technology such as: laptops, smart phones, and flash drives in Western societies (Jarvis & Peel, 2004). This type of modern backpackers can afford to visit more "off the beaten track" locations and stay in luxurious

accommodations, while engaging with the mainstream backpacker culture. Nevertheless, backpacker tourism market is still dominated by many younger and less affluent tourists, "Peter Pan" travelers, who look for traditional enclaves.

1.4 Backpackers' Characteristics:

A characteristic which attract the attention among backpackers is their quest for freedom. Even backpackers of the new century try to follow the ideology of drifting (an adventurous lifestyle in an independent travelling which accredit a backpacker with knowledge and a stronger sense of identity) as Elsrud (2001) stated, however, most of them duplicate ordinary tourists by looking for diversity and leisure experience (Uriely et al., 2002). Cohen (2003) asserted that most young backpackers prefer different kinds of backpacker enclaves (the places where backpacking industry was developed and backpackers meet and spent most of their time together), although some of them include trekking, riding, or rafting trips, as well as tours or excursions to natural sights, ethnic communities, or remarkable events around the enclaves. Thus, there can be some similarities between backpackers and mass tourism as Cohen (2003) argued.

In contrast to mass tourists, backpackers prefer to travel alone or in pairs rather than in larger groups. They also tend to interact with other backpackers rather than local residents (Murphy, 2001). Cohen (2003) observed that although each backpacker tries to do his or her own thing, the majority do the same things. Therefore, like mass tourists, most backpackers follow ordinary life styles. They travel alone, but with the same familiar itineraries and in the same popular enclaves. However, the same as the earlier drifters, modern backpackers enjoy the unlimited permissiveness during the journey which enables them to follow the same enjoyment,

experimentation, and self-fulfillment under very simple circumstances. Lengkeek (2001) called this characteristic as "the state of liminality" (p. 179-180) which is the suspension of regular activities and permitting new activities to be engaged in. In other words, the norms of holiday behavior become very different from other patterns of behavior. It helps backpackers to obtain a new perspective toward their own society as well as reflecting their own identity (Noy & Cohen, 2005). Thus these two studies support the idea of Teas (1988) who considered backpacking as "a contemporary rite-de-passage" (p.40-41), that is, the connection between life-transitions and the backpacking trip. The idea was initially formulated by Van Gennep (1960) and later developed by Turner (1973, 1978). Young backpackers leave their ordinary life and their family to experience an unfamiliar situation to prove themselves by trying to solve the problems without the authority of parents. Their accomplishments lead to their competence in managing their affairs independently and later reunite them to the society as adults.

1.5 Research Questions and Hypotheses:

In line with the proposed structural model (Figure 1, p.7), the following five research questions and three directional hypotheses, based on the review of the literature, were developed to explore association between achievement goal orientation and level of ego involvement among Canadian backpackers. Using a convenience sample of backpackers drawn online from three outer and adventure organizations.

According to Kyle et al. (2007), most researchers have conceptualized ego involvement in terms of personal relevance. In other words, involvement refers to the connections or engagement between an object or activity and an individuals' self-concept, needs, and values. Furthermore,

enduring activity-based ego involvement may result from relationships between personal goals and the attributions of an activity (Celsi &Oslon, 1988). Moreover, as Hill, Hall, Appleton, and Murray (2010) argued "when athlete motivation is underpinned by validation-seeking, a maladaptive pattern of engagement may emerge because individuals feel compelled to maintain investment and gain the approval from others" (p.17). Dweck (1986) also argued that growth-seeking individuals have higher and more effective persistence in difficulties along with enhanced task enjoyment which is consistent with Havitz and Dimanche's (1999) conclusion that high levels of ego involvement are associated with higher levels of emotional attachment to an activity. Moreover, Dykman (1998) argued that growth-seeking people show more tendency to learn, seek growth, and self-development. Lock and Latham (1990) also proposed that goals may help individuals remain focused on an activity to discover the pleasurable aspects of it. All of the just mentioned tendencies are congruent with increased levels of ego involvement. Therefore, the following research question will be the foundation for the first hypothesis:

> *Research Question 1: Is achievement goal orientation (validation-seeking and growth-seeking) associated with ego involvement among Canadian backpackers?*
>
> > *Hypothesis 1: Backpackers with a concern of validating their competence would show less adaptive patterns of ego involvement in comparison to their growth-seeking peers.*

Previous research indicated that higher perceived competence leads to more experience and skills (Iso-Ahola, LaVerde, & Graefe, 1989; Priest, 1992). Furthermore, according to the literature related to ego involvement, the more experienced recreationists are, the more they get involved in an activity (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999). Elliot and Harackiewicz (1994) also argued that goals may enhance interest through perceived competence, therefore, there is enough evidence to support

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research questions 2 and 3 to cover the second hypothesis (considering hypothesis 1 will be accepted):

Research Question 2: Is perceived competence along with perceived risk associated with achievement goal orientation (validation-seeking and growth-seeking) and ego involvement among Canadian backpackers?

Research Question 3: Considering the association is significant, how perceived competence or perceived risk will influence on the association between achievement goal orientation (validation-seeking and growth-seeking) and ego involvement among Canadian backpackers?

Hypothesis 2: Under the influence of higher perceived competence and lower perceived risk, growth-seeking goals will enhance ego involvement among Canadian backpackers.

As Selin and Howard (1988) argued, ego involvement will be enhanced when important goals are expected from participating in leisure activities. Moreover, Paris and Teye (2010) proposed that knowledge-seeking and relaxation factors are the core of backpacker motivations. Thus, research question 4 will be the foundation for Hypothesis 3.

Research Question 4: Are knowledge-seeking and relaxation factors associated with achievement goal orientations (validation-seeking and growth-seeking goals) and ego involvement?

Research Question 5: Considering the association is significant, how knowledge-seeking or relaxation factor will influence on the association between achievement goal orientation

(validation-seeking and growth-seeking) and ego involvement among Canadian backpackers?

> *Hypothesis 3. Under the influence of knowledge-seeking and relaxation factors, growth-seeking goals will enhance ego involvement among Canadian backpackers.*

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter is organized into four sections: (1) independent variables, (2) mediating variables, (3) the dependent variable, and (4) the study rationale. In this study, the two independent variables are validation- seeking goal and growth- seeking goal. The mediating variables include perceived competence, perceived risk, along with core motivations of backpacking (knowledge and relaxation factors), while ego involvement will be considered a dependent variable.

2.1 INDEPENDENT VARIABLES:

2.1.1 Validation-seeking goals vs. Growth-seeking goals:

Ford (1992) stated that there are at least 32 theories of motivation with their own definition of the construct. However, according to Roberts, Treasure, and Conroy (2007), the motivation theory that has emerged as the most popular in sport and physical activity context is achievement goal theory.

Mitchell T.R (1982) defined motivation as "those psychological processes that cause the arousal, direction, and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal directed" (p.80). Moreover, because individuals have different goals, therefore, they approach a situation with different concerns, ask different questions, and seek different information (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). In other words, "for each individual, the data in the situation are interpreted in light of their focal concern and provide information relevant to their question" (p.260).

In order to understand personality, Dweck (1996) stated that we should follow goals "to detect and study coherent patterns of affect, cognition and behavior" (p.349). She also suggested that goals show the similarities and differences among people. Therefore, goals can explain the variations in behaviors. She explained goal as the concrete end that a person tries to achieve by following an activity. In other words, the different purposes a person tries to gain are based on the characteristic of the goal striving.

Before going further, it is necessary to clarify the meaning of "goal". Different researchers and theorists conceptualized goals in many different ways. Because this study is based on achievement goals, so only achievement goal theorists' definitions were considered. Bandura (1986) equated goals with standards for behavior. Dweck (1996) stated that goal is the purpose for which an individual is pursuing a behavior. Elliot and Fryer (2008) separated five basic features of goals. They stated that goals are (a) focused on an object, (b) used to direct or guide behavior, (c) focused on the future, (d) internally represented, and (e) something the organism is committed consciously to approach or avoid and defined goal as a "cognitive representation of a future object that the organism is committed to approach or avoid" (p.244).

Pintrich and Schunk (2002) argued that goal-directed is the basic factor of motivation process, but it was Nicholls and Dweck (1979) who first proposed that there are two major goals that individuals follow in achievement situations: (a) *Performance goals,* in which individuals look for positive judgments of their ability through proving, validating, and supporting. In a sentence individuals are not intended to discredit their ability at all. (b) *Learning goals,* in which individuals try to augment their ability through mastering new tasks. Parenthetically, achievement goals are the purpose (Maehr, 1989) or cognitive-dynamic focus (Elliot, 1997) of competence-relevant behavior.

Nicholls (1984), later, argued that if an individual prefers to judge his or her capacity, he or she should compare the effort and attainment of self and others in order to adopt a relatively external or social self-evaluative perspective. Therefore, he applied the term "ego involvement" to conditions where people seek to present their abilities in the differentiated sense (rather than performance goal) in social studies. On the other hand, if an individual's concern is to improve his or her mastery of tasks rather than his or her ability relative to others', this less differentiated notion leads to a less explicitly self-evaluative attitude which can be called "task involvement". However, the terms "performance goals" and "learning goals" became more popular among achievement goal theorists.

It was in 1983 that Dweck and Elliott conceptualized the goals and proposed that the goals individuals follow would create the framework within which they interpret and react to events. The question that why individuals in the same situation may follow different goals and what factors lead to learning and performance goal orientations prompted Bandura and Dweck (1985) and Leggett (1985) to test different theories about individuals' self. These achievement goal theorists asserted that *Entity theory* of intelligence, in which intelligence is a fixed and uncontrollable trait, leads individuals toward performance goals and *Incremental theory,* in which intelligence is a malleable, increasable, and controllable quality, orients people more toward learning goals.

Later, in 1986, Dweck called learning goals as mastery-oriented (adaptive) pattern in which individuals are characterized as challenge-seekers who have high and effective persistence in difficulties along with enhanced task enjoyment. In contrast, she named performance goals as helpless (maladaptive) pattern in which individuals avoid challenges because of their low persistence which leads to the withdrawal of effort in the face of failure and decreased task enjoyment. In 1988, Elliott and Dweck hypothesized that helpless and mastery-oriented

individuals follow different goals which lead to their different perception and reactions. Helpless individuals look at achievement situations as measures of competence where they seek to be judged as competent as others. In contrast, mastery-oriented individuals consider achievement situations as opportunities to augment their competence in order to acquire new skills. These researchers concluded that when performance goal is predominant, validation seeking individuals are striving for approval, acceptance, and liking. When learning goal is paramount, on the other hand, individuals tend to overcome failure through mastery-oriented response and more focus on effort and strategy. Elliott and Dweck went on to claim that these goals can also be called approval goals and personal growth goals respectively which were later renamed by Dykman (1998) as *validation-seeking goals* and *growth-seeking goals* in his goal-orientation model for explaining and predicting depression.

Dykman (1998) stated that approval goal or validation- seeking goal refers to individuals who tend to prove or establish their basic worth, competence, and likeability. These people evaluate challenging situations to test these traits in themselves. While positive outcomes validate their worth, competence, or likeability, negative consequences make them feel that he or she is lacking on these dimensions. He hypothesized that these different personal implications such as possessing or lacking self-worth lead to understand emotional and behavioral reactions of validation seeking people to challenging events.

Unlike validation-seeking individuals, growth-seeking people show an accompanying tendency to learn, growth, and self-improvement to gain their most completed potential. They look at challenging situations as opportunities for personal growth. Positive outcomes satisfy their growth needs, while negative outcomes provide information about the areas which need improvement as well as acquiring more skills for a better performance at some later time. In other

words, failure would be viewed as having instructional value. Failure gives them the opportunity to learn about themselves or the situation. To summarize, "growth-seekers make growth choices over fear choices" (Dykman, 1998, p.143).

Dykman also argued that people who are primarily validation-seeking show more anticipatory anxiety and fear of failure in contrary to growth-seekers who consider a negative outcome less threatening. Based on Dweck and Leggett's (1988) model for the achievement domain, Dykman proposed that validation-seeking and growth-seeking individuals would also differ in their emotional and behavioral reactions after a negative event. Validation-seekers tend more to discontinue a difficult and unmanageable task because of their self-judgments of incompetence rather than growth-seeking individuals. Although Dykman implicitly stated that validation seekers are less involved in an activity, there has been no research in the field of tourism based on the association between different classes of goal orientation and ego involvement.

In order to assess validation-seeking and growth-seeking, Dykman (1998) developed Goal Orientation Inventory (GOI) through modifying Dweck and Leggette's (1988) dichotomous achievement goal framework. Dykman mentioned that " in addition to being strongly influenced by Dweck and Leggett's (1988) conceptualization, the growth-seeking construct was also influenced by Bowlby's (1980) view of securely attached infants as engaging in more exploratory behavior and Maslow's (1987) view of self-actualized individuals as willing to take reasonable risks to reach their fullest potential" (p.143).

 Noted, Vandewalle (1997) argued that Dweck's early research considered goal orientation as a unidimensional facet, with strong performance and learning goal orientations at opposite ends of a single continuum, however, in a later research in 1992, Heyman and Dweck proposed that individuals may hold both performance and learning goal orientations. Button, Mathieu, and Zajac

(1996), Farr, Hofmann, and Ringenbach (1993), along with Nicholls, Cobb, Wood, Yackel, and Patashnick (1990) all argued that learning and performance goal orientations are separate dimensions and expanded the dichotomous scheme of mastery vs. performance goals.

In line with Dweck and Bempechat (1983) reasoning, that individuals with a performance goal and high competence perceptions try to demonstrate their competence relative to others in contrast to those with a performance goal and low competence perceptions who try to avoid demonstrating their lack of competence relative to others as well as Nicholls, Patashnick, and Nolen's (1985) observation that not all students in the classroom strive for competence, which leaded to introduce "work avoidance goals", Elliot and Harackiewicz (1996) proposed the Trichotomous Achievement Goal Framework, in which the conventional performance goal construct was partitioned into separate approach and avoidance orientations, that is performance-approach goal and performance-avoidance goal. Thus, a prove dimension (gaining favorable judgments) as well as an avoid dimension (avoiding critical and negative judgments) for a performance goal orientation were conceptualized. This distinction maintained that the adoption of performance-approach goals (the aim of demonstrating competence) and performance-avoidance goals (the aim of avoiding judgments of incompetence) would have different correlates and behavioral consequences. According to Elliot and Harackiewicz (1996), three achievement orientations were assumed: a mastery goal with a focus on the development of competence, a performance approach goal with a focus on favorable judgments of competence, and a performance avoidance goal with a focus on avoiding unfavorable judgments of competence.

In 1997, Elliot and Church expanded this trichotomous achievement goal framework to a hierarchical model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation which became the basis of

most studies (Elliot, 1999; Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Hulleman, Schrager, Bodmann, & Harackiewicz, 2010).

Later in 2001, Elliot and McGregor proposed that although some theorists considered mastery goals as equal as intrinsic motivation (the enjoyment of and interest in an activity for its own sake) and as the ideal form of competence-based regulation, it can also be partitioned into separate approach and avoidance orientations. They asserted that mastery-avoidance seekers are either perfectionists who strive to avoid making any mistakes or those in the second chance of their careers (athletes and businesspersons) or final stages of their lives (elderly people) who focus on not performing worse than before, not being inactive any more, or not losing their skills, abilities, or memory. Generally, in mastery-avoidance goal, the focus is on avoiding a negative possibility. Therefore, Elliot and McGregor (2001) introduced a multidimensional achievement goal framework, 2 x 2 Achievement Goal framework, comprising mastery-approach, mastery-avoidance, performance approach, and performance avoidance goals, in which both dimensions of competence (definition and valence) were measured.

Although the concept of competence will be discussed thoroughly in the "perceived competence" section, because of its effective role in understanding achievement goal orientation, the definition and valence of competence in achievement goal orientation contexts will be assessed very briefly. The definition of competence is related to three different standards in a performance evaluation: absolute, intrapersonal, and normative. According to Elliot and McGregor (2001), competence can be evaluated to see whether an individual has achieved a task (absolute), improved his or her skills (intrapersonal), or performed better than others (normative). Competence is also valenced in terms of a positive (success) or negative (failure) possibility.

From another perspective, Niemivirta (2002) classified mastery goals as mastery-intrinsic and mastery-extrinsic goal orientations. That is, in spite of the same general goal (to gain competence), some individuals use intrinsic criteria (the phenomenological feeling of knowing and understanding) for evaluating whether they will achieve mastery or not, while some others prefer extrinsic criteria (formal feedback and tangible outcome). Mastery-extrinsic or outcome goals (Grant & Dweck, 2003) was called as performance-related concerns or fear of failure by Tuominen-Soini, Salmela-Aro, and Niemivirta (2008). Individuals with these characteristics have low confidence in their ability and a strong fear that they will not succeed in spite of valuing challenges in contrary to performance-avoidance seekers whose main concern is to hide their lack of ability (Elliot & Church, 1997) and because of being afraid of looking stupid, they prefer to engage in the easiest tasks possible (Elliot & McGregor, 2001). In spite of different operationalization of goals, researchers still disagree on how to best define and operationalize the major classes of goals (Grant & Dweck, 2003).

It should be noted that some years before the conceptualization of goal orientation model, Packard (1972) proposed it is strongly possible that taking a trip in the very early adulthood (before the age of twenty-one) would mount a challenge to promote personal growth. Furthermore, Dweck and Elliott (1983) proposed that the way people interpret and respond to different situations is influenced by the goals they are pursuing. In other words, goals are the forces that derive, select, direct, and organize our behavior (Emmons, 1989; Ford, 1992; Pervin, 1983 as cited in Dweck, 1996). Ames and Archer (1988) also claimed that not only are goal orientations the reason behind the pursuits of individuals' achievement, they are also the motivations for the way people approach, experience, and react to achievement situations. Ewert (1989b) also proposed that adventure tourism related more to the accomplishment of self-imposed and personal goals rather

than the tangible outcomes of traditional forms of outdoor recreation. Earlier still, Hartmann (1939) also proposed that "adaption to reality-which include mastery of it- proceeds to a large extent from the ego and in particular from that part of the ego which is free from conflict; and it is directed by the organized structure of ego-functions (such as intelligence, perception, etc.) which exists in their own right and have an independent effect upon the solution of conflicts" (p.214). however, whether the degree of validation- seeking and growth- seeking goals has also an effective influence on the level of ego involvement among backpackers have remained a question needs to be answered.

It should be explained that achievement goal orientation has not been studied in any context of tourism yet and there is no finding to see whether performance-avoidance and mastery-avoidance goals are operative in optional and voluntary activities such as tourism specifically non-competitive activity of backpacking. Furthermore, according to the definition by Havitz and Dimanche (1997), ego involvement is an unobservable state of interest toward a specific kind of recreational activity and in line with Havitz and Mannell (2005), who suggested that high involvement is usually presented positively in the leisure literature despite some negative terms such as being addicted to a specific activity or the negative consequences (excessive participation or spending too much money) which are obviously different from negative aspects of mastery and performance goals, it was decided, therefore, to direct the study based on the traditional dichotomous model of achievement goal orientations to find the general reasoning and results. Thus, the avoidance components (both performance and mastery) are beyond the scope of this research although they will implicitly be studied to find out if they are operative in tourism contexts or not. Among the different conceptual models for measuring achievement goal orientation, Goal

Orientation Inventory (GOI), by Dykman (1998) was decided to be used to operationalize validation-seeking vs. growth-seeking goals.

2.2 MEDIATING VARIABLES:

As Iso-Ahola (1980) demonstrated, the interaction of situational risk and personal competence influence adventure experiences to the extent that behavior in an adventure recreation experience is based on perception of both risk and competence. According to Mitchell Jr (1983), in order to control the outcome, recreationalists should apply their competence to meet risk to manage the uncertainty in a successful manner which is called "Flow".

Flow was first conceptualized by Csikszentmihalyi (1975) as a way to examine optimal experiences. Studies about flow started when the question "Why do people perform time-consuming, difficult, and often dangerous activities for which they receive no discernible extrinsic rewards?" emerged (Csikzentmihalyi, Abuhamdeh, & Nakamura, 2005, p.600). Csikzentmihalyi and colleagues started to interview with diverse range of people such as: rock climbers, chess players, athletes, and artists. Interestingly, all the respondents had a similar subjective experience. All of them mentioned that they enjoyed the activity so much that they really wanted to experience it again. Retrieved from some of the respondents who used the metaphor of a current which carried them along effortlessly in describing their feeling, the researchers called the experience as "flow". Therefore, controlled risk added to the overall enjoyment of an experience (Johnston, 1989). Decloe, Kaczynski, and Havitz (2009) argued that flow is likely to improve self-esteem and motivate more participation in a physical activity. However, they also suggested that when there is no challenge, there is no opportunity to experience flow (watching TV or reading a book).

Rather than flow, Ewert (1989b) also argued that there is a positive correlation between the degree of risk-taking and the level of experience of an individual. After conceptualizing adventure experiences in different ways, Ewert (1989a) finally found two constructs: perceived risk and perceived competence. Ewert and Hollenhorst (1994) described adventure experiences as a "search for competence" (p.125) coupled with "the valuation of risk and danger" (p.127). Priest (1992) asserted that an incorrectly perceived risk or competence may cause an unexpected condition which may result in socially, mentally, or physically negative outcomes.

In 1997, Walle proposed that insight and knowledge underlie adventure tourism rather than risk. His primary study was based on Ewert and Hollenhorst's (1994) findings that "although adventurers seek out increasingly difficult and challenging opportunities, they paradoxically do not necessarily seek higher levels of risk'' (p.188). In other words, adventurers try to match their skills and competence with the situational risk. Csikszentmihalyi (1975) also concluded that people prefer to participate in adventure activities to gain intrinsic feelings of enjoyment, well-being, and competence. Therefore, Walle (1997) concluded that learning and gaining insight are integral parts of adventure tourism. Considering gaining insight as a motive for adventurers, Walle also asserted that ecotourism can even be considered as a sort of adventure tourism, irrespective of some activities, such as bird watching, which may not pose any risk, neither actual nor perceived, to an individual. Weber (2001) also suggested that it is more logical to consider both risk and gaining insight, in varying degrees, for an adventure to happen. Therefore, studying the perceived competence among adventurers especially backpackers may light another path to understand their behavior more.

To sum up, according to Deci and Ryan (1991) and also Emmons (1989), among the different basic needs, competence along with safety and security are the most prominently feature

from which goals rise. Therefore, it is important to study how competence and safety would affect different goals to influence on people's behavior.

2.2.1 Perceived Competence:

Priest (1992) defined competence as "a combination of skill, knowledge, attitude, behavior, confidence, and experience" (p.128). He concluded the higher competence is, the higher abilities and attitudes are. Bandura (1986) proposed that each person has some self-beliefs that make him/her do a measure of control over his/her thoughts, feelings, and actions.

Competence can also be defined as, according to Elliot and Dweck (2005), a quality of effectiveness, ability, sufficiency or success. As Schunk and Pajares (2005) argued, the individuals' perceptions of themselves and their abilities are necessary elements for the success or failure of an achievement. It should also be mentioned that in earlier years Iso-Ahola et al. (1989) and Priest (1992) asserted that successful experiences increase sense of competence. They concluded that more experiences affect higher perceived competence. Recently, Law, Elliot, and Murayama (2012) argued that "perceived competence represents individuals' confidence that they have ability or will be able to accomplish the task at hand (p.808)".

Furthermore, Ewert and Hollenhorst (1989) stated that developing perceived competence through adventure activities leads to the development of experience, skill, knowledge, control, mastery, efficacy, and self-sufficiency which should be interacted by constructs such as fear, anxiety, uncertainty, danger, challenge, and perceived risk. Williams and Balaz (2013) asserted that considering experience as an aspect of competence would increase the tendency to take risk. However, based on the type of risk, as Lepp and Gibson's (2008) study clarified, acquired

competence and knowledge would make participants more not less cautious. According to their studies, more experienced tourists, irrespective of being organized mass tourists or drifters, consider cultural barriers as important risks.

Iso-Ahola (1980) stated that participating in activities that provide high feelings of competence and control are the most enjoyable activities. In other words, people feel more positive while they are able to achieve goals and satisfy their needs (Emmons, Diener, & Larsen, 1986). Locke (1967) also claimed successful experiences augment good feelings. All these findings show that people who participate in adventure activities expect to feel good about themselves, to have more qualified competence, and achieve more skills during the activities and immediately afterwards. To summarise, Bandura (1986) stated that the basis of all motivations, well-beings, and accomplishments is on the beliefs of an individual rather than what is objectively true.

It was Iso-Ahola and colleague (1989) who were pioneered to classify perceived competence in travel contexts as general perceived competence and specific perceived competence. General perceived competence is "a function of accumulative experiences over the years, not readily influenced by one specific experience, while specific perceived competence refers to a sense of competence specific to a recent experience" (p.34). Therefore Iso-Ahola et al. concluded that the more experiences one has, likely the higher is his or her general perceived competence. Similarly, a successful specific experience lead to a higher sense of personal competence and consequently higher level of self-esteem. However, since the study was only done among rock climbers, it is unclear whether the results are generalizable to participants in other adventure activities or not.

In contrast, Williams and Balaz (2013) studied perceived competence from behavioral economist perspective. They postulated that variability in perceived competence may cause

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different reactions toward different domains of risk which lead to manage risks differently. They clarified the situation by the following example: "an individual who has a high risk tolerance general trait, may participate in risky forms of tourism but be highly unwilling to take risks with his/her personal savings and investments, reflecting different competences in these two domains" (p.212). Williams and Balaz also argued that the optimistic view of individuals toward their competences make them choose positive information about their desired destination in respect of tourism risk.

In spite of paucity of research about risk-related competences in tourism, there have been some studies about tourist knowledge. Slevitch and Sharma (2008) proposed the connections between the qualities of information and perceptions of specific types of risks. Pearce and Foster (2007) exclusively studied the learning capacity of backpackers and the related skills and attributes. Wong and Yeh (2009) also argued that despite hesitation in decision making among tourists after perception of risk, knowledge may mediate this effect.

As mentioned earlier, perceived competence was once used as a mediator variable to show the effect of participation in rock climbing on self-esteem (Iso-Ahola et al., 1989). These researchers concluded successful experiences augment sense of specific competence among participants which consequently lead to higher self-esteem. In contrast, used as a moderator variable by Cury et al. (2006), perceived competence in achievement goal orientation contexts did not appear to moderate the relation between achievement goals and the outcome variables and acted as a predictor variable rather than a moderating one. However, in the recently done research by Law and his group (2012), it was documented that perceived competence moderates the degree to which performance-approach and performance-avoidance goals are interrelated.

Up to now, most of the research related to perceived competence was done to explain individual decision making across different risk domains, but there has been little systematic evaluation of the role of competence in relation to tourism risk. Therefore, apart from the role of mediating or moderating of perceived competence in a tourism-based context, there is still a paucity of research on the nature of individual competences and how these feed into managing risk especially among Canadian backpackers. Moreover, the effect of perceived competence on the level of ego involvement among backpackers have not been researched yet, although ego involvement literature shows that the experienced recreationists get more involved in an activity (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999), there has not been any study specifically about the role of and interrelation between perceived competence and the level of ego involvement among Canadian backpackers to date. Noted, from the time Iso-Ahola and his colleagues (1989) categorized perceived competence to general and specific perceived competence and analyzed each of them separately, there has been no study related to this aspect of perceived competence, therefore, in this study both aspect of general and specific perceived competence were examined to see which one has more influence on ego involvement.

2.2.2 Perceived Risk:

In spite of decreasing risk in actual life, risk-taking in leisure activities is growing (Cater, 2006) and the number of adventurous personality types are increasing (Plog, 1991). Mitchell Jr (1983) claimed that an element of uncertain outcome would change a leisure activity to be adventurous and Mortlock (1984) supported the idea by proposing risk would create uncertainty. Ewert (1989a) described adventure as "deliberate seeking of risk and uncertainty of outcome" (p.8), whereas Beedie and Hudson (2003) called activities with uncertain consequences as adventure tourism.

According to Allen and Meier (1982), adventurous activities play the role of an escape while there is lack of self-expression, mastery, or risk taking in the routine of life. McAvoy and Dustin (1990) also supported the idea by considering risk as a fundamental element for human growth and development. All these studies present that risk is the apparent attraction of adventure activities.

The satisfaction after risk-taking activities which contradict to the meaning of actual risk can be understood by Csikszentmihalyi's (1975) idea of "Flow", a balance between the required skills and the challenge in an activity which is a complete involvement of an individual in an activity. In contrast, Cater (2006) stated that sensation seeking (thrill and excitement) is more related to adventure tourism than risk because in commercial adventure tourism the consequence is known and individuals encounter risk just figuratively.

Among the different classification of travelers, Pearce (1982) classified tourists based on a multidimensional scale in terms of familiarity versus novelty seeking. Lee & Crompton (1992) used more detailed constructs related to novelty and they deconstructed novelty into Change of routine, escape, thrill, adventure, surprise, and boredom alleviation (p.735). The Surprise component refers to uncertainty which lead to risk.

According to psychologists, the tendency to take risk can be considered as a personality trait that varies among individuals. Keinan, Meir, and Gome-Nemirovsky (1984) considered the risk-taking trait as the propensity to select inherently dangerous actions. Robinson (1985) asserted that risk takers are seeking out stress-inducing conditions. Yates (1992), who reported the idea of deliberated and non-deliberated risk behavior, also demonstrated recreational risk behavior as a conscious decision in which possible benefits outweigh potential losses. Similarly, Ewert and

Hollenhorst (1994) also claimed that personality predisposition motivated people to take risk in a recreational environment.

In the domain of tourism, Pizam et al. (2004) questioned if "there is a general tendency to engage in risk behaviors, or whether individuals vary in the types of risk behavior in which they engage?" (p.252). It should be mentioned that the base of Pizam and his group's argument was on the research of Yates (1992) and psychographics rather than behavioral economists or sociological perspective of Cohen (1972). Likewise, Plog (1974) widely cited classification of leisure tourist was on the same base which stimulated other researchers to study the relationship between risk-taking and tourist behavior. He classified leisure tourists into two main personality types: *allocentrics* and *psychocentrics*. Unlike allocentrics who are adventurous and intellectually curious to novelty as well as moderate risk takers, psychocentrics who are low risk takers prefer familiar tourist destinations as well as non-active life styles, critiqued by Smith (1990a, 1990b) who argued that this model is not universally applicable to all societies and cultures. However, it seems logical to consider that risk takers have special behavioral traits that will affect their preferred tourist activities. Despite the diversity of personality trait and risk taking research in the context of tourism (Fluker & Turner, 2000; Fuchs, 2013; Lee & Crompton, 1992; Pizam et al., 2004; Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992), as well as a large body of challenging tasks-related literature in achievement goal orientation (Dweck & Elliott, 1983; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Nicholls, 1984), there has been no research on the influence of validation-seeking and growth-seeking goals on Canadian risk takers who had already been studied (Brannan, Condello, Stuckum, Vissers, & Priest, 1992; Cheron & Ritchie, 1982).

From another perspective, Williams and Balaz (2013) emphasized that behavioral economist researchers are always seeking to know whether risk taking behavior is the result of a

general risk trait which can be found in every body or there are domain- specific traits in areas such as drinking, driving, and tourism. Scrutinizing the related literature shows that risk permeates all aspects of life, however, some research was done related to specific traits such as: demonstrating significant correlations between risk-aversion and risky behaviors like drinking and lack of health insurance in USA, they did not consider tourist behavior, though (Barsky, Kimball, Juster, & Shapiro, 1997) or exploring strong correlations between general risk-tolerance and some risky behaviors in Germany like driving, financial matters, and sport, but again tourism was ignored (Dohmen et al., 2005). Briefly, studies show although a general risk trait exists, there is always a need for domain-specific measures of risk tolerance.

Generally, risk involves two main perspectives: risk attitudes and risk perceptions. Williams and Balaz (2013) argued that the focus of tourism researchers are more on perceptions. Risk was defined as what is perceived and experienced by tourists during purchasing and consuming tourism services at the destination (Sheng-Hshiung, Gwo-Hshiung, & Kuo-Ching, 1997). Recent research has also indicated that, for many, actual risk is not an important element influencing participation in commercial activities (Cater, 2006; Weber, 2001). In a research done on adventure tourists in Queenstown (New Zealand) in 2006, Cater found those engaging in adventure tourism activities were seeking the experience of fear and thrills (perceived risk) rather than actual risk and an uncertain outcome. Furthermore, Reichel, Fuchs, and Uriely (2007) stated that the existence and tangibility of risk is not as significant as its perception by consumers. In other words, it is the perceived risk that encourage or deter a consumer to behave in a certain way rather than the actual risk.

The label of perceived risk was originally suggested by Bauer (1960), who used it whenever he referred to risk reduction. He proposed that individuals can manage risk whenever

they are able to perceive it subjectively. He concluded that even if risk exists in the real world, as long as individuals are not able to perceive it, they cannot be influenced. On the other hand, Bauer (1960) stated that "[she] He may reduce perceived risk by means which have no effect on affairs in the real world" (p.395).

Priest and Baillie (1987) defined perceived risk as a subjective assessment of the actual amount of risk done by an individual in an adventurous situation. Mowen and Minor (1998) completed the definition by considering perceived risk as "a consumer's perception of the overall negativity of a course of action based upon an assessment of the possible negative outcomes and the likelihood that those outcomes will occur" (p.176). Silva, Reis, and Correia (2010) also defined risk perception as "how predetermined ideas influence the willingness of tourists to accept particular- negatively defined- risk" (p.334).

In general, risk perception in tourism is associated with a multiplicity of factors. Different types of risk were first reported in Cheron and Ritchie's (1982) research. They hypothesized that each of these elements may affect individuals' perceptions for the activity which may lead to reduce the overall combined risk. These components include:

Financial risk: possibility that activity will not provide value equal to the money spent

Functional risk: possibility of mechanical or technical failure

Physical risk: possibility of bodily harm or illness

Psychological risk: possibility that activity may alter an individual's perception of self

Social risk: possibility that activity may alter others' perceptions of individual

Time risk: possibility that activity may be too long or not worth the time taken

Satisfaction risk: possibility that activity will not live up to expectations or does not allow an individual to meet personal goals (p.145)

Although these seven types of risks were hypothesized for consumer behavior, Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) stated that these risks may have reasonable validity in the field of pleasure travel, too.

Schiffman and Kanuk (1991) argued that out of theses seven types of risks only financial, psychological, satisfaction, and time risks are most often associated with tourism. However, Sönmez and Graefe, later, did not reduce the Cheron and Ritchie's (1982) original list, but added health, political instability, and terrorism, mainly for international travels (1998b). The question which rises here is, how do different types of tourists perceive and respond to risks? Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) suggested that based on individuals' personality traits, their risk-taking tendencies would be different. On the same line, Lepp and Gibson (2003) mentioned, "what may be a source of fear for the organised mass tourist may be a source of excitement for the drifter" (p.617). Back to the typology of Cohen (1972), Lepp and Gibson (2003) postulated that tourists who seek familiarity likely consider unknown environments as more risky than tourists who search for novelty. In other words, the perception of risk is dissimilar among different tourists based on their need for novelty or familiarity.

Since Cohen's (1972) classification was not based on perceived risk, Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) categorized tourists based on their perception of risk: risk neutral, functional risk, and place risk. The risk neutral group does not consider tourism or destinations risky. The functional risk group regards the possibility of some sorts of risks (mechanical, equipment, or organizational). On the other side of the scale, there is the place risk group who perceives tourism so risky. This new typology shows the risk neutral group prefers to experience excitement and adventure as well as encountering uncertainty or risk as part of tourism. In relation to backpackers,

Elsrud, (2001) stated that in spite of considering both risk and adventure as the critical elements in the construction of backpackers' identities because of the diversity in this group, while some are attracted to a specific destination because of the associated risks, others may be repelled.

Additionally, Reichel et al. (2007) argued that perceived risk can influence a tourist even if there is no real risk, whereas unperceived risk will not affect an individual behavior even if it is real and tangible. Therefore, considering perceived risk as an effective construct seems logical. Although there are some studies related to backpacking and risk taking (Cohen, 1972; Elsrud, 2001; Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Vogt, 1976), few studies quantitatively measured levels of perceived risk among backpackers (Reichel et al. 2007, 2009).

Lepp and Gibson (2003) concluded that backpackers were ranked lower on a perceived risk scale than other types of tourists. They also asserted that what is a source of anxiety for ordinary tourists may be a source of excitement and thrill for drifters (backpackers). Despite Lepp and Gibson's (2003) findings, Reichel et al. (2007; 2009) stated that backpacking, from the perspective of perceived risk, cannot be considered as a homogeneous category of tourism. Reichel and colleagues (2007) also concluded that perceived risk among backpackers is a multi-dimensional phenomenon, which depends on gender, past backpacking experience, and preference for fellow travelers. They also argued that it seems backpackers' perceived risk is relatively similar to the perceptions of individual and organized mass tourists. Moreover, some scholars (Elsrud, 2001; Gibson & Jordan, 1998a, 1998b; Lepp & Gibson, 2003) indicated that travel risk is a central dimension in the construction of backpackers' identity.

This study is based on the support of an interactive and dynamic model, The Adventure Experience Paradigm, which was developed by Martin and Priest (1986) to present the role of both perceived risk and perceived competence in an adventurous experience.

2.2.3 The Adventure Experience Paradigm:

Martin and Priest (1986) designed a graphic model of the interaction of risk and competence which was developed from the works of Csikszentmihalyi (1975), Ellis (1973), and Mortlock (1984). According to Ellis's theory people prefer to do their best at most leisure activities to gain the optimal level of arousal for the maximal performance. That is why adventurers choose a level of situational risk which matches their personal competence. The Flow Model of Csikszentmihalyi (1975) charted "action opportunity against action capability" as Priest (1992) described (p.128). The Flow Model explained that the blend of this opportunity and capability provide expressions of boredom, anxiety or flow. The blend of situational risk and personal competence in The Adventure Experience Paradigm leads to five varying conditions of challenge which were expanded from Mortlock (1984)'s original four stages of an outdoor journey: play, adventure, frontier adventure, and misadventure which were the basis of the level of fear a participant would express.

As Figure 2 shows, risk and competence are negatively correlated. Carpenter and Priest (1989) argued when competence is high and risk is low, the condition is known as Exploration and Experimentation which is likely to result in boredom. The condition of Adventure is the result of increasing risk and/or decreasing competence. Whenever risk and competence are balanced, Peak adventure or, as Csikszentmihalyi (1975) proposed, flow occurs. Flow is the balance between the challenge and the necessary skills to do an activity. Decloe et al. (2009) proposed that flow is also connected to intense involvement, clarity of goals, and a belief that an experience is intrinsically valued. The time risk starts to exceed competence, the possibility of Misadventure is high. Devastation and Disaster is also possible when risk is high and competence is low which is seen as anxiety-producing. Having a correct perception of the risk and competence lead to avoid

Devastation and Disaster. Furthermore, the paradigm considers not only physical risk, but risks of all types: social, emotional, financial, and intellectual.
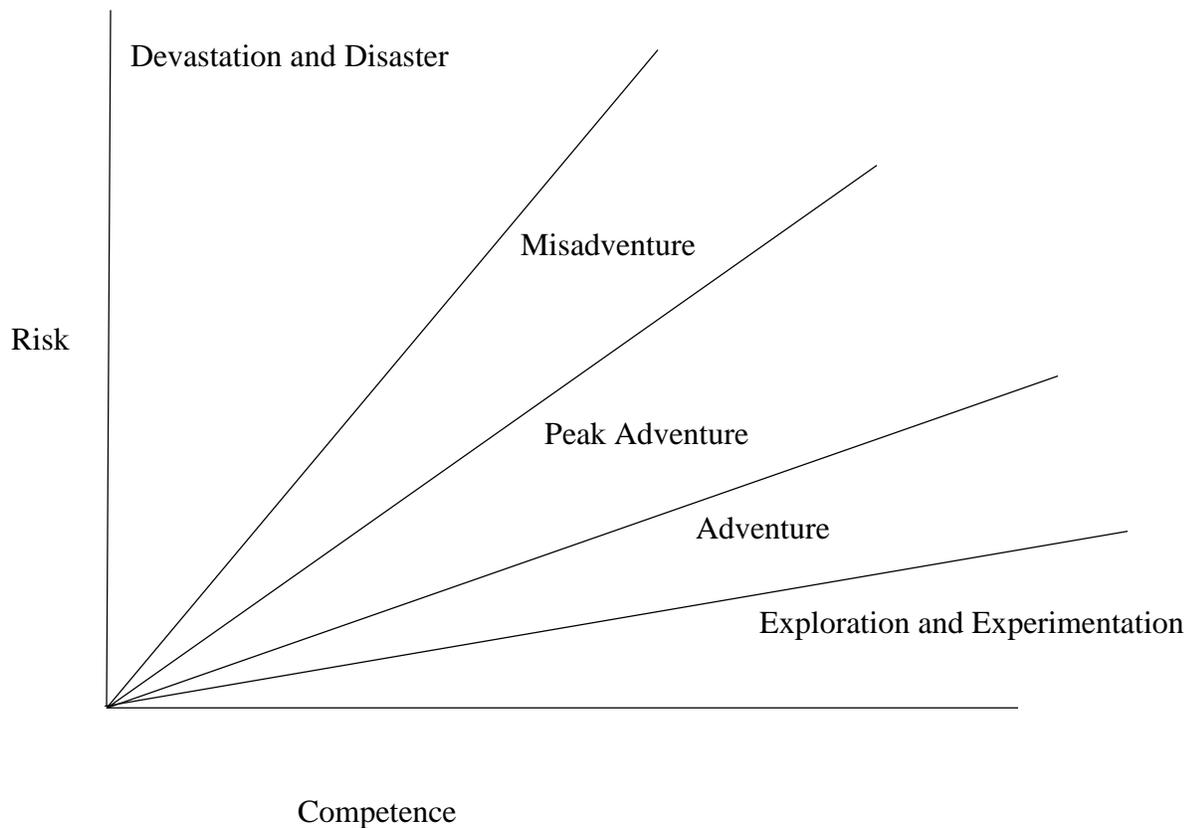
Figure 2: The Adventure Experience Paradigm (Carpenter & Priest, 1989)

Although this model seems to have a broad application related to individual participation in adventurous activities, Cater (2006) argued that because of the growth of commercial adventure activities, in which operators try to reduce the chance of actual risk to ensure long-term business sustainability to provide standardized adventure tourism products, this model would fail to explain risk thoroughly in an experience.

2.2.4 Basic Travel Motivations:

Motivation is commonly described as the driving force behind all actions (Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Fodness, 1994), however, in spite of diverse studies and growing related literature, there is still no widely agreed-on theoretical or conceptual framework as Pearce and Lee (2005) argued.

From marketing perspective, Fodness (1994) stated that motivation-based classification of tourists help to identify different types of travelers to generate different profiles of travel patterns to facilitate tourism marketing.

Among the different and diverse motivation theories, one of the earliest empirical one in the field of travel motivation belongs to Dann (1977) who identified two basic motivations of anomie (to escape) and ego enhancement (to re-establish ones ego). Later, in 1979, Crompton proposed the two-dimension model of pull factors (attraction of the destination), and push factors (internal (Gnoth, 1997) psychological needs), based on which Dann (1981) suggested push factors as temporarily antecedent to pull factor.

Parenthetically, the concept of push-pull dichotomy was criticized by Smith, S. L., although it was never published. According to the personal correspondence of the researcher with Dr. Smith (November, 2014), he explained that his discomfort with the concept of push-pull model began one Saturday at the St Jacob's Farmers' Market where he got into a conversation with a local farmer, while both were watching another farmer and his horse and buggy. The farmer asked Dr. Smith whether he thought the horse was pulling the buggy. He continued pointing that the horse's harness goes around the chest of the horse before it is attached the buggy. As a result, according to the farmer, the horse pushes against the harness, thus propelling the buggy. In other

words, the horse does not pull the buggy, but pushes against its harness. Academically, it raised the question of what constitutes "pulling" as opposed "pushing". Dr. Smith, through the conversation, compared it to Newton's Third Law of Motion that every force crudely generates an equal and opposite force. As he mentioned, pushing on a harness translates into pulling whatever the harness is attached to.

From the social-psychological perspective, Iso-Ahola (1982) stated that people are motivated to travel not only to escape from personal failure, but to improve their intrapersonal and interpersonal esteem and social status. Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) proposed the Travel Career Ladder (TCL) theory, based on Maslow's (1970) needs hierarchy theory of motivation, and described travel motivation through five hierarchical levels of motives (from below called, relaxation, safety/security, relationship, self-esteem/development, and fulfillment). Fodness (1994), looking for developing a motivation scale, classified travel motivations based on Katz's (1960) functional theory to four dimensions of knowledge function (positive pole: escape from daily routine toward some well-defined goals, negative pole: escapism without any purpose other than to rest and relax), social-adjustive function (social interactions), value-expressive function (symbolism and self-expression), and utilitarian function (having fun).

Later, Ryan and Glendon (1998) introduced another four types of travel motivators, based on Beard and Ragheb's (1983) Leisure Motivation Scale, consists of social (interpersonal relationship), relaxation (escapism), intellectual (to learn, explore, and discover), and competence mastery (achieve, challenge, master, and compete). Recently, Pearce and Lee (2005) as well as Pearce (2011) emphasized on the change of motivation patterns by classifying it to three layers of core motives (novelty, escape/relax, relationship), mid-layer motives (self-development/host site involvement, self-actualization), and outer-layer, less important, motives (recognition, isolation,

nostalgia). All these different studies suggest that different people might have varying motivating factors to satisfy their internal psychological needs or the reasons for an uncomfortable level of tension within minds and bodies as Crompton (1979) argued.

However, it should not be considered that backpackers have the same motivations as mass tourists do despite some similarities. In backpacking segment, motivation refers to what makes travelers choose backpacking as a way of travel, considering different backpackers may have varying motivations. Based on motivation-based typology literature, Cohen (1973) stated the difference between inward-orientated and outward-oriented drifters rooted in their motivation. Riley (1988) restated the same theory by arguing that backpackers are motivated by hedonism or more meaningful experiences for self-development. Loker-Murphy (1997) clustered backpackers into four types of escapers/relaxers, social/excitement seekers, achievers, and self-developers. Overall, Ateljevic and Doorne (2004) symbolized backpacking activity as an "umbrella" which covers different sub-segments: life style backpackers (Cohen, 2011), and short-term backpackers (Sørensen, 2003), in each of which their motivation might be different.

Recently, Paris and Teye (2010) classified backpackers based on Pearce and Lee's (2005) Travel Career Pattern (TCP) and suggested two factors of cultural knowledge and relaxation as the core of backpacker travel motivation and four dynamic motivations of independence, budget travel, experiential, and personal/social growth. They found core motivations showed no significant difference in relation to previous travel experience in contrast to dynamic motivations, which were influenced by both previous travel experience and age. Paris and Teye argued that cultural knowledge factor, included exploring other cultures, increasing knowledge, and interacting with the local people, is the most important factor for backpacking trips, contrary to relaxation as the least important motivational factor. Noted, relaxation factor was argued to be

central to both backpacker motivation (Richards & Wilson, 2004a) and general travel motivation (Pearce & Lee, 2005).

Considering the goals of this study, out of the six suggested motivation factors by Paris and Teye (2010), only core backpacker travel motivations will be analyzed. Instead, some other psychological factors relevant to facets of ego involvement such as; sociability and self-expression (Fodness, 1994) as well as host site involvement (Pearce & Lee, 2005) were measured to see if 1) they are correlated with achievement goal orientations and ego involvement, 2) which factor(s) will influence the association between achievement goal orientations and ego involvement. It should also be added that because of the overlapping of personal growth factor with achievement goal orientations, this factor will not be measured among the basic motivation factors.

2.3 DEPENDENT VARIABLE(S):

2.3.1 Ego Involvement:

Generally, the concept of involvement describes varying degrees of emotional attachment to specific goods, services, or ideas among contemporary consumers. In other words, involvement explains why consumers attach different levels of importance to specific items than others and consider some to be more relevant to their personal needs. Gross and Brown (2008) defined involvement as "the perceived personal importance and/or interest consumers attach to the acquisition, consumption, and disposition of goods, services, or ideas (p.1141)."

Because involvement includes both enduring and situational components, preventing from confusion, Havitz and Howard (1995) defined enduring involvement as a sustained level of concern with an activity or a product, while situational involvement indicates temporary feelings

of involvement to a specific situation. Later, Havitz and Mannell (2005) proposed that in contrast to enduring involvement which is rather stable, situational involvement changes depending on the situations. In relation to leisure studies, these two researchers asserted that enduring involvement can be understood as ego involvement or an individual's motivation to participate. On the other hand, Naylor (2006) suggested that in order to achieve a better understanding of how meaningful enduring and situational involvement are, these two constructs should be studied separately. Therefore, the base for this study was enduring involvement since what was important for the following research was the behavior of Canadian backpackers not the destination they travel to.

Among the different terminology of involvement in the domain of social psychology; ego involvement (M. Sherif & Cantril, 1947), commitment (Buchanan, 1985), Substitutability (Iso-Ahola, 1986), loyalty (Backman, 1991), enduring involvement (Havitz & Dimanche, 1990), and leisure involvement (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997), it was decided to use the concept of ego involvement for this study to be consistent with the frequent terminology used in different studies where the focus is on facets of personal relevance primarily continuing leisure preferences, sport, and tourism contexts.

Havitz and Dimanche (1997) defined ego involvement as "an unobservable state of motivation, arousal, or interest toward a recreational activity or associated product, evoked by a particular stimulus or situation, and which has drive properties (p. 246; adopted from Rothschild, 1984, p.216)"

Tracing the literature, it was Allport (1943) who implicitly stated ego involvement in his studies. He argued that individuals' behavior is quite different while they behave impersonally and neutrally under a routine situation from the time they are excitedly and seriously committed to a task which can be seen in most leisure research, irrespective of evident situational components,

which emphasize on the relationships between enduring characteristics of leisure activities and self or ego. Later, M. Sherif and Cantril (1947) used ego involvement to emphasize the personal and emotional nature of involvement. Ego was also defined as a system of attitude structures which "when aroused by on-going events, are revealed in more characteristic and less situation-specific behaviors toward objects or classes of objects (C. W. Sherif, Kelly, Rodgers Jr, Sarup, & Tittler, 1973, p.312). Kyle and Chick (2004) also clarified it in more detail by considering ego-attitudes as the representative of an individual's values, goals, standards or norms. Briefly, when a person perceives other individuals, institutions, services, or even activities in a self-related manner, his or her attitudes become personally involved and his or her interest for that specific person, institution, service, or activity will increase.

Havitz et al. (2013) asserted that most ego involvement research has been based on the development of social psychology in the 1940s, when the variable of involvement was initially proposed by M. Sherif and Cantril (1947) who believed that as long as any kind of social object is connected to the domain of the ego by a person, involvement exists or even earlier when Allport (1943) argued the different conceptions of the ego with the enumeration of eight senses of ego in the psychological literature and interpreted that the "whole theory of motivation is based upon the assumption of hedonistic self-interest (p.455)". He also stated that the existence or lack of ego involvement would change the human behavior to the extent that an individual who is excitedly and seriously committed to a specific goal would behave totally different from a neutral, routine situation. As cited in Havitz and Dimanche (1990), involvement as an influential construct can affect both on individuals' attitudes (Arora, 1985) as well as their behavior (Beatty & Smith, 1987; Slama & Tashchian, 1985) regarding an activity or product.

Despite of introducing ego involvement in the decade of 40s, it was not until four decades later when marketing theorists, Laurent and Kapferer (1985) and Zaichkowsky (1985), extended ego involvement research to different aspects of personal relevance which became later the origin of research in noncompetitive recreation, sport, and tourism.

While measuring the state of involvement, consumer researchers brought two different perspectives. Zaichkowsky (1985) argued that involvement was one-dimensional, and called it Personal Involvement Inventory (PII), while Laurent and Kapferer (1985) claimed that this construct was multi-dimensional and proposed Consumer Involvement Profile (CIP) scale, the first contemporary multi-dimensional scale to measure involvement in consumer behavior. CIP scale was consistent with Allport (1943) who argued that "the ego of which we are aware is variable in its dimensions. Sometimes it includes less than the body and sometimes more (p.454)". Laurent and Kapferer identified four elements of involvement as; 1: the interest or the perceived importance of the product (personal meaning) 2: the pleasure value (the hedonic value of the product) 3: the sign value (the attribution of the consumer to the product) and 4: the perceived risk with two sub dimensions of risk consequences (the perceived importance of negative consequences in case of poor choice) and risk probability (the perceived probability of making such a mistake), in contrast to the one-dimensional involvement scale by Zaichkowsky (1985) which was only based on the facet of importance.

In 1986, Bloch, Sherrell, and Ridgway introduced another unidimensional scale, called Enduring Involvement Index (EII), focused on interest and importance together, received multiple use in leisure research. However, it was Watkins (1987) who first proposed a specific scale for leisure activities by making some changes to the CIP in his doctoral dissertation. He suggested to add centrality facet and drop risk factors. Later, Zaichkowsky (1987) and McQuarrie and Munson

(1987) revised Zaichkowsky's (1985) scale and indicated that involvement is probably multi-dimensional. McQuarrie and Munson (1987) proposed a multifaceted compromise between PII and CIP, called Revised Personal Involvement Inventory (RPII).

As Havitz and Dimanche (1990) argued, different researchers (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975; Gunter & Gunter, 1980; Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1980; Neulinger, 1974; Unger & Kernan, 1983) claimed that involvement is central to the leisure activities, but it was not until 1988 that Selin and Howard hypothesized that ego involvement can be used as a variable to explain individuals' attachments to leisure activities. According to the theoretical explanation of Selin and Howard (1988), leisure involvement is considered as: "the state of identification existing between an individual and a recreational activity, at one point in time, characterized by some level of enjoyment and self-expression being achieved through the activity (p.237)". In other words, the authors argued that involvement in a specific activity continues only if an individual identifies himself or herself through the activity. Thus, the experience that an individual achieved from an activity should be the same as his or her values and norms. Later, leisure researchers began to use involvement construct to explore the level of emotional attachment and behavioral loyalty of different individuals to specific leisure pursuits (McIntyre, 1989; McIntyre & Pigram, 1992).

Selin and Howard continued by arguing that there are five sub-components which collectively illustrate ego involvement. The model they developed was Watkin's (1987) scale, in which centrality (lifestyle choices and personal investments made by an individual to support his/her continued association with an activity) was already added, and the two risk factors were dropped. Selin and Howard considered self-expression, consistent with Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) notion of sign, as the final dimension of ego involvement along with interest, importance, and pleasure. Shortly after, Laurent and Kapferer (1989 as cited in Havitz & Dimanche, 1990)

proposed that the two sub dimensions of risk element, i.e., risk probability and risk consequence, should not only be kept, but also be considered as separate elements, so these two researchers changed the four elements of involvement by Laurent and Kapferer (1985) into a five element scale. A year later in 1990, a new definition of involvement was first proposed by Havitz and Dimanche: "Involvement is a psychological state of motivation, arousal, or interest between an individual and recreational activities, tourist destinations, or related equipment, at one point in time, characterized by the perception of the following elements: importance, pleasure value, sign value, risk probability, and risk consequences (p.184)".

The *importance* facet represented the harmony between consumers' goals and the extent to which a specific product meets these goals. The *pleasure value* facet represented how much pleasure a consumer receives from a product. The *sign value* facet represented the harmony between the perceived identity of a product and the individuals' own identity. In other words, the congruence between social identity (presentation of self to others) and personal identity (self-expression), as Dimanche and Samdahl (1994) argued. Finally, the *risk probability* facet represented the perceived probability of making a poor choice, while the *risk consequence* facet represented the importance of negative consequences in case of a poor choice.

Afterwards, McIntyre (1989) replaced the two risk items with centrality to measure lifestyle choices and personal investments (both financial and social). He also argued that self-expression was a more practical dimension than Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) concept of sign. McIntyre and Pigram (1992) made some remarkable modification to their scale, based on factor analysis, by decreasing the involvement facets to three dimensions of attraction, self-expression, and centrality which was the base of several studies related to leisure (Kyle & Chick, 2002; Kyle, Bricker, Graefe, & Wickham, 2004; Kyle & Mowen, 2005).

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In the next decade, Ragheb (1996) proposed the six-faceted involvement scale, Leisure and Recreation Involvement (LRI) scale, mainly focused on leisure in general than specificity of attitude objects. Apart from importance, interest, pleasure, and centrality, Ragheb added two facets of meaning and intensity (included elements of self-expression). It should also be considered that, in contrast to Watkins' scale (1987) in which centrality was based on social aspects of involvement, Ragheb's scale centrality tried to measure volition in loyalty and commitment studies. Briefly, his scale, as Havitz and Dimanche (1997) argued, may be used for general conceptualizations. However, since not many people have equal levels of involvement with different sorts of leisure activities, so Ragheb's scale, despite being the longest scale, may not accurately reflect any facet for any specific situation and it was not used in published research to date.

As a support for all the different multidimensional involvement scales, Havitz and colleagues (Havitz, Dimanche, & Howard, 1993; Havitz & Dimanche,1997) claimed that multi-dimensional scales are not only more practical for measuring leisure and tourism involvement because of stronger content and face validity, but also all facets should be highly applied to leisure and touristic experiences. Kyle and Chick (2002) also confirmed the theory of the multidimensional involvement scale. However, Josiam, Smeato, and Clements (1999), McGehee, Yoon, and Cárdenas (2003), as well as Kim (2008) used one-dimensional scales in their studies.

Additionally, Havitz and Dimanche (1997), in spite of their 1990's definition which was based on the revised scale of Laurent and Kapfere (1989), discussed that adventure recreation researchers prefer Watkins' scale (1987) because risk has not been considered to be enduring in nature and risk scales produced low reliability scores as Schuett (1993) proposed. Havitz and Dimanche argued that since risk itself is multi-dimensional (physical, psychological, social, time,

etc.), it is flawed to be measured just by risk probability and risk consequence. Moreover, involvement scale is unable to deal with important risk-related concepts associated with adventure recreation; such as fear, distress, abilities, and attitudes.

Whereas the diversity in involvement measurement as well as the salience of each dimension were controversial among researches, Kyle et al. (2007) demonstrated that McIntyre's conceptualization (1989) has received the strongest support since it was the foundation of other studies (Gahwiler & Havitz, 1998; Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004; Kyle et al., 2004; Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2003). On the other hand, some researchers believed that McIntyre's scale (1989) may have masked other important elements of involvement, so the clarification of sub-dimensions was necessary as being first reported in Kyle and Chick (2002,2004). Therefore, they extended social bonding dimension to connect social ties to leisure experiences which rooted in McIntyre and Pigram's scale (1992) who separated centrality to two sub-dimensional of centrality (comprising of items that examine the locus of the activity within the context of the individual's life style) and social bonding (including items that capture the extent to which their enduring involvement is driven by their social ties). Similarly, to be consistent with Dimanche and Samdahl (1994) who suggested that self-expression or sign dimension might be superficial and recreationists are able to express their identity to themselves as well as to those around them, thus, Kyle et al. (2007) proposed that "the cognitive connection between the self and the leisure experience ought to be considered in terms of two components: identity affirmation and identity expression. They explained "identity affirmation examines the degree to which leisure provides opportunities to affirm the self to the self and identity expression examines the extent to which leisure provides opportunities to express the self to others (p.405)".

Therefore Kyle et al. (2007) proposed the Modified Involvement Scale (MIS) where they kept attraction dimension from McIntyre's (1989) and McIntyre and Pigram's (1992) studies, but they separated social bonding (the social ties that bind recreationists to a specific activity) from centrality to construct a distinct dimension. Furthermore, they substituted identity affirmation, and identity expression, rooted in Dimanche and Samdahl (1994), in the place of self-expression or sign. Therefore, the new MIS with five dimensions (attraction, centrality, social bonding, identity affirmation, and identity expression) was developed. The current scale, developed from leisure perspectives, is the instrument that pretty much every leisure researcher is currently using. This scale was devised to refine and extend other enduring involvement scales to improve and develop measures related to the issue of personal relevance. This scale was also used in this study because of its currency and applicability to backpackers.

Since MIS differs from other involvement scales in the facets of social bonding, identity affirmation, and identity expression, as well as the separation of centrality from social bonding, so a brief description of all five dimensions can help to clarify MIS more.

Attraction: refers to the attractiveness of an activity with a combination of perceived importance and hedonistic value.

Social bonding: refers to getting involved in an activity to make social networks where the enduring involvement is driven by individuals' social ties. In other words, personal friendships bind people to an insistent line of behavior. Social bonding was considered as "external commitment" by Shamir (1988).

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Centrality: which is consist of items that examine the locus of the activity within the context of the individual's lifestyle. For example, individuals' financial and social investments to support their continued association with the activity.

Identity affirmation: refers to constructing situations, through leisure activities, that provide individuals with information to affirm their identities to themselves. Briefly, when an individual believes that participation in an activity may validate core aspects (values) of his or her identity, he or she will attach more to that specific activity.

Identity expression: happens when a leisure activity provide information to let others know and understand an individual more accurately. Concisely, an individual gets involved more intensely to an activity when he or she believes that participation reveals key aspects (short term social concerns, such as: popularity, attractiveness, appearance, impressions) of his or her identity.

Allport (1943) stated that human behavior would change based on ego involvement or its absence. Individuals' behavior is quite different while they behave impersonally and neutrally under a routine situation from the time they are excitedly and seriously committed to a task. He proposed ego involvement "is a condition of total participation of the self- as knower, as observer, as status seeker, and as socialized being (p.459)". In spite of implicit indications related to the association of human behavior and ego involvement, there has not been much research related to them in the field of tourism, except for some limited studies. For example, Park et al. (2002) divided casino gamblers by their involvement profiles; Çakici and Harman (2007) evaluated the level of leisure involvement among Turkish birdwatchers, Gross and Brown (2008) examined the role of involvement in experiences on tourists visiting Australia; Ritchie, Tkaczynski, and Faulks (2010) examined involvement among cycle tourists; and recently, Akatay et al. (2013) did a research on the level of involvement among backpackers who visited Istanbul. Apart from the only

recently specific research done by Akatay et al. (2013), which was mainly about demographics, there is a dearth of research on how ego involvement functions among backpackers.

According to Cohen (2011), backpackers stay longer at destinations than other kinds of tourists, they provide a lot of opportunities to socialize, and backpacking sometimes become a lifestyle for some travelers, therefore, there might be a strong rationale to argue that backpacking needs high level of involvement. However, whether all facets of MIS can evaluate their behavior remains an open question.

2.4 Study Rationale:

The justification for this research lies in a number of reasons. Firstly, this data-based study contributed to the scarce academic body of literature related to Canadian backpackers' characteristics and behaviors. Moreover, considering ego involvement as an outcome was a new attempt to see what psychological factor(s) enhanced ego involvement, proved to be an important factor for tourists' decision making. Additionally, examining the influence of achievement goal orientation among tourists has not been studied so far. By revealing travelers' goals, it is much easier to interpret their behavior while involving in an activity. From the marketing perspective, apart from different perspectives of tourism market such as the social or environmental impact of backpacking to provide more profitable tourism products and services for DMOs, it is important to know the behavior of the Canadian backpackers, their fears, and their skills to help the tourism market to better organize and manage strategies to serve Canadian backpackers suitably in order to achieve a long-term business sustainability. Therefore, recreational providers, tourism destination managers as well as travel and tourism administrators can improve their understanding

of the behavioral loyalty of Canadians to backpacking which leads to gain consumer satisfaction and effective promotional strategies.

In learning theory, according to Allport's (1943) experiments, there is some "influence of the ego upon the acquisition of skill and knowledge (p.472)". What we do not know is whether knowledge and competence can also have an effect on ego. What is the typical character of Canadian backpackers in relation to validation-seeking and growth-seeking goals? Which ego involvement facets are more common among Canadian backpackers? Considering perceived risk, which group are more involved, validation seeking or growth seeking group? How do competence and safety would affect different goals of backpackers which ultimately influence involvement? These are important questions that this research seeks to answer.

On the basis of the just-reviewed literature, this research will explore association between growth-seeking and validation-seeking goals with ego involvement, considering potential mediating effects of general perceived competence, specific perceived competence, perceived risk, and core motivations for backpacking.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

The purpose of this study was to gain insight into the influence of validation-seeking and growth seeking goals on the level of backpacking involvement among the Canadian. Moreover, this study examined the mediating effects of perceived competence and perceived risk along with five of most important basic travel motivations of travelling on the degree of this involvement.

This study is based on quantitative research methods to provide a numeric description of the results by examining the relationship among variables. The computer program SPSS (The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) version 22 along with PROCESS, a computational aide in the form of a freely available macro for SPSS introduced by Hayes (2009) was used to measure the variables and interpret them statistically.

This chapter explains the methods and procedures which were used to collect the data for this research study. The following six sections are presented in this chapter: Data Collection, Survey Instrument, Operationalization of Independent Variables, Operationalization of Mediating Variables, Operationalization of Dependent Variable(s), and Analysis of the Data.

3.1 Data Collection:

The study involved stratification. Participants had to have at least one prior experience of backpacking either domestically or internationally as well as being Canadian citizens or permanent residents who had lived in Canada over three years since the influence of culture was beyond the scope of this study. Residence of over three years was deemed appropriate because Citizenship

and Immigration Canada (CIC) deemed those who have lived three years out of four in this country, eligible to apply for Canadian Citizenship, before changing the policy from three out of four years to four out of six years in June, 2015. However, data collection was completed before the new policy,

Data were collected based on a cross-sectional questionnaire during the spring 2015. In addition to their appropriateness for this research, questionnaires were selected because of their rapid turnaround. After contacting via e-mail with different travel & tour agencies and outdoor clubs, two clubs and one travel & tour agency allowed access to contact lists in order to gather data through online questionnaires. The organizations included:

University of Waterloo Outers Club which focuses on the outdoor activities, mostly within Canada. Some of the members who go backpacking were contacted and they agreed to do the questionnaire and ask their backpacker friends to do the survey, too. Snowball sampling sounded useful because it lets you draw a sample from a population that is difficult to get access (Smith, 2010). The advantage of this sampling is to help you get in touch with people with the same profile of the type of subjects you wish to survey who otherwise would never be identified. The disadvantage of snowball sampling is the logistical challenges, though. For a large number of respondents, you will move in the same social circles which cause the same people being asked to respond a questionnaire multiple times. Because it is difficult to trace participants by their names, ethical issues, it was decided to use Snowball sampling through University of Waterloo Outer Club members maximum for 25 people which is the standard of Snowball sample size according to Smith (2010). However, on the basis of backpacker members and diversity of groups, the number may change.

The KW Backcountry Travel Meetup whose members (1,176 mostly Canadians) are interested in overnight backcountry travel. Via emailing between the researcher and one of the organizer of the group, he agreed to distribute the questionnaires among those who were interested in backpacking and agreed to complete the survey.

Free and Easy Traveler Backpacking Agency, founded in 2000, organize international backpacking trips from different cities in Canada mainly to the Far East in Asia. The person in charge agreed to ask the backpackers who travel via their agency to fill in questionnaires online if they were interested to do.

Finally, the questionnaires along with ethics clearance through the Office of Research Ethics of University of Waterloo were distributed among participants in the following two ways:

1) Some recognized members of the "University of Waterloo Outers Club" were directly contacted via email by the researcher to start the Snowball sampling.

2) Based on the agreement between the organizer of "The KW Backcountry Travel Meetup" as well as one of the persons in charge of "Free & Easy Traveler Backpacking Agency" and the researcher, the researcher emailed the questionnaire to these two presidents. Thus, these two organizers distributed the survey among backpackers of the club and the travelers respectively.

It should be noted that although the province of Ontario was the location of the research, there was a hope that participants, especially those who would fill in the questionnaires through "Free and Easy Traveler Backpacking Agency", were likely from other cities and provinces of Canada, thus, larger parts of Canada would be under the study. Collecting data from Canadian backpackers of different regions of the country would make the scope of the research broader to have a better consistency.

Based on the consultation with the supervisors, it was decided to do the survey among 100 to 150 participants, however, according to the positive replies received from the listed outdoor clubs and travel agencies, it was likely to extend the sample size to more.

3.2 Survey Instrument:

The purpose of this survey research was to generalize from a sample to the population of Canadian backpackers in order to find their characteristic, attitude, and behavior. Questionnaires were the most common method of collecting data in the social sciences (Nardi, 2006). The survey was designed through eSurv.org which is a British leading provider of free survey management tools. As Smith (2010) stated, questionnaires are more effective and less costly than interviewing everyone in a specific population (backpackers in this study) in addition to the benefit of better quality responses on evaluation of a long list of items (Smith, 1995). Additionally, as Floyd & Fowler (2009) stated, questionnaires give the opportunity to identify attributes of a large population from a small group of individuals. Therefore the research method, in this study, was a 20-minute online structured questionnaire survey designed specifically for this work and based on the contributions and scales in literature review.

The reason why the questionnaire was changed to an online survey is because the participants were in a variety of locations, therefore, it was much easier to get access to them. The use of online questionnaires has increased in popularity because it decreases costs of administering surveys. There is no need to print multiple copies or provide prepaid envelopes to collect the data. Besides you can save time since it is not necessary to distribute and collect questionnaires personally, but on the other hand, since questionnaires are not distributed in person, it is difficult

to estimate the number of completed questionnaires and response rates may suffer due to lack of human contact. In order to overcome this problem, the people in charge were contacted after two weeks to remind their group's members about completing questionnaires

The following two screening questions were asked to recognize the appropriate participants for this sample.

a) Do you have backpacking experience? Yes   [ ]   No   [ ]

b) What is your status in Canada?

Canadian citizen   [ ]   Permanent resident lived in Canada over 3 years   [ ]

Other   [ ]

Therefore, at the beginning of analyses each questionnaire, it was clear if it followed the criteria or not.

Moreover, as an incentive to maximize the response rate, participants were gifted twelve $4.5 Ultimate Survival Technologies Blankets through a draw. Respecting the anonymity and confidentiality, it was decided to ask participants to add their email address if they were interested in the draw or receiving a copy of the results of the study. Those who won the draw were contacted directly by the researcher and upon their agreement, their postal addresses were asked and gifts were posted. The nearest address was in Kitchener-Waterloo and the farthest was somewhere in Yukon.

This cross-sectional survey consists of 62 questions, along with 2 screening questions, with the general structure of the questionnaires based on the previous studies, along with some changes to make them practical for backpackers. The questionnaire was already received Human Research Ethics approval from the University of Waterloo before distribution.

A pilot study was also done to examine the practicality of the questionnaire to see if participants felt comfortable with it, whether the length of the questionnaire was appropriate and if each question was clear enough to prevent from ambiguity. It is important to establish the face validity of scores on the questionnaire and to improve questions, format, and scales. For final instrument revision, upon the agreement with the supervisor, the questionnaires were distributed online among interested graduate students in Recreation and Leisure Studies Department in University of Waterloo, Waterloo, ON. After doing the pilot study, based on peer's feedback, revisions of the questionnaire were completed.

A copy of the questionnaire has been included in Appendix A and contains the following six parts: 1) Respondents' backpacking experiences and skills, 2) Respondents' participation in backpacking, 3) Respondents' risk perception while backpacking, 4) Respondents' involvement in backpacking, 5) Respondents' backpacking reasons, and 6) General information related to demographics.

3.3 Operationalization of Independent Variables:

The two independent variables of this study are: validation-seeking vs. growth-seeking goals. The related questions, 13 to 24, were derived initially from Dykman's (1998) Goal Orientation Inventory (GOI). The original scale contains 18-item each, total of 36, but it was decided to modify the scale to be practical and appropriate for backpackers' population rather than focusing on how individuals think and act in general as the stem in the instrument. Therefore, the repetitive statements were eliminated and others were modified to be matched with backpacking criteria. Because validation-seeking goals measure three characteristics of basic self-worth, competence,

and likeability, based on the consultation with the supervisor, it was decided to consider two items for each characteristics and because of assuming both validation-seeking and growth-seeking goals as equal variables with equal impact, so the scale was reduced to 12 items in general which were measured on a 5-point Likert Scale (1= strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree). The items were selected based on their primary factor loadings and the highest loading factors were selected. They were also designed in a mixed order in the questionnaire to prevent from overgeneralization of the answers by participants.

Parenthetically, item 21 in the survey (I prefer to face with challenges during backpacking rather than sitting back at home and never trying this activity), which was modified based on item 27 in the original scale (my approach to challenging life situations is that I'd rather make a mistake and learn from the experience than sit back and never try), was chosen on purpose despite its lower factor loading (0.64) because of its practicality to backpackers.

Scoring the GOI involves summing the responses to each subscale and then subtracting the growth-seeking subscale from the validation-seeking subscale to arrive at a net total (possible range of 24 to -24). Higher scores represent greater validation seeking.

As a support for reliability and validity, it should be mentioned that Cronbach's alpha for each subscale was .97 for the validation seeking and .96 for the growth seeking and a total of .96 which meet the criteria of Nunally and Bernstein (1978), who suggested that reliability coefficients should be equal to or greater than 0.7. The test-retest correlation was .76 for validation seeking and .78 for growth seeking with the total of .82 (Dykman, 1998, p.145).

Dykman also confirmed that the validation-seeking and growth-seeking subscales are negatively correlated. The results in the initial sample and the cross-validation one represented that

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r (379) = -.29, p<.001 and r (298) = -.48, p<.001, respectively. He also argued that the magnitude

of theses correlations shows that although validation-seeking and growth-seeking goals are related

constructs, they are independent to some extent, therefore, it is possible to study the effects of each

orientation separately. It should also be added that before this study, this instrument has not been

used in a touristic sample. The selected items have been highlighted in Dykman's original scale in

Appendix B.

3.4 Operationalization of Mediating Variables:

The mediator variables of this study are: 1) Perceived competence, 2) Perceived risk, and 3) Basic

travel motivations. Because the study is about an outdoor activity, it was decided to use Iso-Ahola

et al.'s (1989) scale to operationalize perceived competence rather than other theorists' who

mainly measure confidence in a specific school-course area such as math and physical education

(Kaplan & Midgley, 1997; Zourbanos, Papaioannou, Argyropoulou, & Hatzigeorgiadis, 2014).

According to Iso-Ahola and his colleagues' scale, both general perceived competence and specific

perceived competence were assessed. Participants' feelings of general perceived competence,

questions 6 and 7, were measured, on a four-point scale from 1= poor to 4= very good, through

two items out of the original of four. The reason why just two items were selected is because of

their practicality to backpacking activities. The Cronbach Alpha for the general perceived

competence was .91 (Iso-Ahola et al., 1989, p.36).

Participants' feeling of specific perceived competence was based on how they felt in their

last backpacking experience. Specific perceived competence were assessed through Questions 8

to 12, on a 5-point scale from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree, derived initially from the

study conducted by Iso-Ahola et al. (1989). As a support for the reliability of the scale, it should be mentioned that the Cronbach's alpha computed for to Iso-Ahola et al.'s (1989) sample produced a coefficient of .76 for specific perceived competence variable (p.36). Both original scales related to general and specific perceived competence with the highlighted selected items have been added in Appendix C.

To operationalize perceived risk, the model proposed by Sönmez and Graefe (1998b) was used. As a supplement to Cheron and Ritchie's (1982) risk components, Sönmez and Graefe (1998b) added health, political instability, and terrorism risks, too. Questions 25 to 35, on a five-point scale from 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree indicated participants' perception of the likelihood that each of these risks may occur while backpacking. Because of the importance of "attraction" in backpacking contexts, it was decided to separate it from other functional problems, so there are 11 questions rather than the original 10 ones. According to Sönmez and Graefe (1998a), the reliability of risk index is .74 based on Cronbach's alpha coefficient (p.129). The original scale has been added in Appendix D.

Because of the diversity of basic travel motivations, it was decided to select two questions from Paris and Teye's (2010) scale to examine core motivation factors (knowledge-seeking and relaxation factor). Question 51 (I guess I'm just always looking for increasing my knowledge) was designed based on the second construct of Factor 4 (Cultural knowledge) and question 52 (To be in a calm atmosphere like nature is my idea of a perfect backpacking) was used based on the second element of Factor 3 (Relaxation). Noted that neither of these constructs are based on the highest factor loading, but they are the most consistent ones with backpacking. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients are: knowledge-seeking factor (.67), relaxation (.79) based on Paris and Teye (2010, p. 20). The original scale with the highlighted selected items have been added in Appendix E.

Three other questions related to basic travel motivations were adopted from Fodness'
(1994) scale, because of similar psychological factors relevant to ego involvement. Question 53
(Going on backpacking with someone is always more fun than going alone) was based on a minor
change in one of the elements of Dimension 2: Social Adjustive Function and question 54 (when
I get home from a backpacking travel, I tell everybody about it) was also based on a minor change
in one of the elements of Dimension 3. Value-Expressive Function. Although question 55 (For me
backpacking is always a new adventure. I never go to the same place twice) was also adopted from
the same scale (Dimension 4: Utilitarian Function), it was decided to be called host-site
involvement as Pearce and Lee (2005) argued. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients are: sociability
(.74), self-expression (.80), and utilitarian function (.58) as Fodness (1994, p.567) argued.

Therefore, participants' backpacking reasons were examined through Questions 51 to 55,
on a five-point scale from 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree. The original scale along with
the highlighted selected items have been added in Appendix E.

3.5 Operationalization of the Dependent Variable(s):

The dependent variable, ego involvement, was operationalized based on the 15-item Modified
Involvement Scale (MIS: Kyle et.al, 2007) which includes five facets of Attraction, Centrality,
Social bonding, Identity affirmation, and Identity expression. Each facet consists of three items
meant to capture all five enduring dimensions of ego involvement which were ordered on the
questionnaire from questions 36 to 50, with a response format consisting of a five-point scale
ranging from 1) strongly disagree to 5) strongly agree. In order to avoid the overgeneralization of

the answers by participants, the questions related to each construct were designed in a mix order in the questionnaire.

MIS has also adequate levels of validity and reliability in the original research of Kyle et al. (2007). In regard to reliability, all calculated values for Cronbach's alpha are above 0.7 (Attraction: 0.85, Centrality: 0.83, Social bonding: 0.71, Identity affirmation: 0.73, and Identity expression: 0.74).

In regard to validity, both convergent and discriminant validity were conducted for MIS. Convergent validity, the extent to which independent measures concur in their assessment of the same construct (Byrne,1998), was utilized through the tests of the strength of factor loadings, significant t-values, and estimates of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE). Although the strength of factor loadings indicated that the validity of the last item of Centrality (R^2=0.38), the last item of Social bonding (R^2=0.41), and the first item of Identity expression (R^2=0.48) may be questionable, Kyle and his colleagues (2007, p. 413) confirmed that t-values (ranged from 7.87 to 19.26 $\geq \pm 1.96$) were statistically significant and the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) of each facet was above Fornell & Larcker's (1981) 0.5 cutoff (Attraction: 0.61, centrality: 0.57, Social bonding: 0.54, Identity affirmation: 0.54, and Identity expression: 0.55, Kyle et al., 2007, p.415) as evidence for convergent validity. Discriminant validity, the extent to which the independent measures diverge in their assessment of the constructs (Byrne, 1998), was computed in the original scale based on constraining latent factor correlations, confidence intervals, and AVE which all the three tests provided evidence of discriminant validity. The original MIS has also been copied in Appendix F.

3.6 Analysis of the Data:

The obtained data was statistically analyzed using The SPSS software (the Statistical Package for the Social Science), version 22 along with Process Computational Tool (Hayes, 2009). A series of statistical analyses, both univariate and multivariate, including descriptive analysis, correlation coefficient, and regression coefficient, were conducted. In order to validate the findings of this study, the strategy of peer-debriefing was used. The study was reviewed by the supervisor (Dr. Havitz) as well as the committee (Dr. Mock) to be substantiated.

At the beginning, the univariate statistical test of descriptive analysis was performed to describe the basic features of the data as well as identifying whether Canadian backpackers are more validation seekers or growth seekers. Moreover, descriptive analysis explored which travel risk factor is the most concerning and which facet of ego involvement is the most important one among Canadian backpackers. The following research questions and hypotheses guided this research.

The influence of achievement goal orientation on the level of ego involvement.

Research Question 1: Is achievement goal orientation (validation-seeking and growth-   seeking) associated with leisure involvement?

Hypothesis 1: Backpackers with a concern of validating their competence would show less adaptive patterns of leisure involvement in comparison to their growth-seeking peers.

Correlation coefficients were conducted to explore relationships between achievement goal orientation and the level of ego involvement among Canadian backpackers both considering ego involvement as a single aggregate score and each of five facets individually.

Mediating role of perceived competence, perceived risk, and basic travel motivations in the association between achievement goal orientation and ego involvement.

Research Question 2: Are perceived competence along with perceived risk associated with achievement goal orientation and ego involvement among Canadian backpackers?

Research Question 3: Considering the association is significant, how perceived competence or perceived risk will influence on the association between achievement goal orientation and ego involvement among Canadian backpackers?

Hypothesis 2: Under the influence of high perceived competence and lower perceived risk, growth-seeking goals will enhance ego involvement among Canadian backpackers.

Research Question 4: Are basic motivation factors associated with achievement goal orientations (validation-seeking and growth-seeking goals) and ego involvement?

Research Question 5: Considering the association is significant, how basic motivation factors will influences on the association between achievement goal orientation (validation-seeking and growth-seeking) and ego involvement among Canadian backpackers?

Hypothesis 3. Under the influence of knowledge-seeking and relaxation factors growth-seeking goals will enhance ego involvement among backpackers

Correlation coefficients were conducted to test which mediator variable was correlated with both achievement goal orientations and ego involvement. Then, Process Computational Tool

was conducted to find both the direct and indirect effect of achievement goal orientations on ego involvement, considering it as a single aggregate score and each of five facets individually. Based on Preacher and Hayes (2008), a single multiple mediation model was used in lieu of separate simple mediation models. Preacher and Hayes argued that testing the total indirect effect of independent variable on dependent variable is analogous to conducting a regression analysis with several independent variables, while aiming to consider whether an overall effect exists. Therefore, in multiple mediation model, if an effect is found, it can be concluded that the set of mediating variables mediated the effect of predictor variable on the outcome. Second, through multiple mediation, it is possible to determine to what extend each mediator mediates the effect of independent variable on the outcome. Third, in the proposed model, the likelihood of parameter bias due to omitted variables is reduced. Fourth, it allows the researcher to identify the relative magnitudes of the specific indirect effects associated with all mediators.

Based on the results of the research, Test of Contrast was run through Process Computational Tool to assess and compare indirect effects.

Overall, all the statistical analyses were conducted to examine if there is any association between achievement goal orientations and ego involvement among backpackers and if such association exists, which mediator(s) significantly explain(s) this association.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

This chapter will explain the pilot study, the process of data collection, data entry and data analysis.

4.1 Pilot Study Process:

Although all scales used in the survey had already been validated for use, in order to improve questionnaire design to assess face validity of specific items and collect preliminary data, a pilot study among volunteer peers, who were as similar as possible to the target population, was conducted in the Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies.

Late in March, questionnaires were distributed among 25 participants online, exactly the same way as it was administered in the main study. Participants were asked to give feedback to identify ambiguities and difficult questions as well as to record the time taken to complete the questionnaire to decide whether it was reasonable. The given feedback resulted in some minor revisions related to rewording some questions as well as shortening the range of answers in some multiple-choice questions.

The revisions, mainly rewording, included changing the format of the Question 5 to avoid ambiguity ("When was your last backpacking trip? (Just a year)" changed to "In what year was your last backpacking trip?"), as well as adding the phrase "my previous backpacking experience" to the end of Questions 8 and 9 to be consistent with the rest three sentences of the perceived competence scale. Another ambiguity, discovered through pilot study, was about the level of education variable. There were some misunderstanding related to the confusing concepts of

"student in college or university", "graduate student", "college or university degree", and "post graduate degree", therefore, upon the consultation with the supervisor, these four answers were shortened to "college or university student", and "obtained graduate degree", while the first two answers (Did not complete high school, and High school Diploma" remained the same.

4.2 Data Collection Process:

Data collection process started as explained in Chapter Three with some minor changes. Questionnaires were distributed online through the web survey tool "eSurv" to designated organizations' moderators. After contacting moderators of the KW Backcountry Travel Meetup, one of them who was also a moderator of another similar group, Outdoor Adventure and Recreation Seekers (OARS), in Waterloo, ON, did a big favor and emailed the survey to the backpacker members of both groups. In relation to the University of Waterloo Outers Club, as it was proposed, the researcher emailed the questionnaire to some members to start the snowball method. The survey was posted on the Facebook page of the group, too. The survey was also emailed to the previously contacted organizer of the Free & Easy Traveler Backpacking Agency, however, there was no sign of cooperation during the time of data collection despite his previous agreement.

Meanwhile, because the recruiting process was too slow and frustrating, the researcher started searching more related groups and became familiar with "Couchsurfing International Inc.", founded in 2003, which is a hospitality exchange and social networking website to provide a platform for members to "surf" on couches by staying as a guest at a host's home, host travelers, or join an event. Travellers move from one online friend's house to another and sleep in whatever

spare space is available. After confirmation of both the supervisor and the committee member, the researcher found the related groups of these online hitch hikers in different provinces and territories of Canada and posted the survey on their pages in the hope of getting back more completed survey from different regions of Canada.

Luckily, couchsurfers (CS) were more active than the designated groups and the process of recruiting data paced a bit. Moreover, the study was not limited to Ontario anymore and it could cover all of Canada including the territories.

The data collection started in April 1st, 2015 and by May 20th, 2015, 291 responses were collected through the online survey, with 185 valid questionnaires. The unusable questionnaires were either incomplete or had an excessive amount of missing data. It was not possible to compute a conventional response rate due to the nature of the data collection procedures.

4.3 Data Entry Process:

The obtained data, saved in a Microsoft Excel Spreadsheet, were translated into SPSS format (version22) for more detailed analysis. According to the questionnaire, 64 variables were entered. The five demographic variables included gender, age, level of education, the region participants live, and how participants got the survey. Another five variables described respondents' backpacking behavior- such as: the estimated number of backpacking trips, whether the experience was domestic or international, how long it took and who accompanied them, and the year of the last backpacking trip they had. Excepting the two screening variables and the two questions related to tendency to enter into the draw and have a copy of the result, the remaining 50 ones were related to different scales discussed in the previous chapter.

4.4 Respondents' Demographic Profiles:

In order to develop a more consistent and detailed picture of the demographic profiles of travel behavior of the study sample in comparison to other backpackers and due to lack of information related to backpacking in Canada Print Measurement Bureau (PMB), the results of this study were compared to the results of the "Global Nomad Survey Sample" conducted by the contribution of ATLAS Backpacking Research Group (BRG) and International Student Travel Confederation (ISTC) in 2002 among over 2300 participants in eight different countries including Canada (Richards & Wilson, 2004b). Although "Global Nomad Survey Sample" cannot claim to be representative of all backpackers globally, it is a useful tool for comparing styles of backpacking in different world region.

The basic information about the study sample was summarized in Table 1. More females (58%) than males (41%) participated in this study which was consistent with Richards and Wilson (2004b) who argued that women can be considered as a growing segment of the backpacking community to the extent that they may constitute the majority in some areas. However, the likelihood to receive more completed survey from females rather than males and the females' tendency for online group memberships were also considered.

Because "Global Nomad Survey Sample" was distributed only among backpacker students, mainly young and at the same range of age, the age profile of this sample was analysed based on Hecht and Martin's (2006) study in the GTA about the international backpackers arrive to Canada as well as Canadians themselves. Age profile of the respondents indicated that 24 years of age was the largest frequency, while the median was 28 at the last backpacking experience. To be consistent with Hecht and Martin, the age profile of the respondents was divided into three segments, with the following results:

1) Youth tourism backpackers (17-25) at 43 percent of the respondents;

2) Transition backpackers (26-29) at 14 percent of the respondents; and

3) Contemporary backpackers (30 years and over) at 43 percent of the respondents.

Results indicated that in Canada like other parts of the world, backpacking activities are no longer limited to young travellers. It should be noted that contemporary backpackers in this classification has different definition from what Cohen (2003) argued.

About 90% of respondents had post-secondary level of education, with over 62% having already gained a university or college degree and a further 27% still studying for one which was consistent with Richards and Wilson's (2004b) study that students include nearly one third of the backpacker market.

Most participants (74%) were from Central Canada, followed by 22% from Western provinces. Maritime Provinces and territories had the least participants: about 3% and 2% respectively. This distribution is likely an artifact of the membership in organizations who agreed to participate, though.

Finally, about 54% reported they received the survey from the designated organizations, 39% directly from the researcher, and 7% completed the survey through the snowball sampling method. Additionally, over half of participants were interested to enter into the draw and nearly half of them requested a copy of the study results.

In sum, the majority of participants in this study were highly educated backpackers from Central Canada who were mainly below the age of 30 with a membership to an outdoor group.

Table 1

Demographic profile of Participants

Variables	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	74	41.3%
Female	104	58.1%
Other	1	0.6%
No Response	6	
Total	*185*	*100%*
Age		
17-25	75	42.6%
26-29	25	14.2%
30 and over	76	43.2%
No Response	9	
Total	*185*	*100%*
Level of Education		
Secondary level	18	10.1%
Post-secondary level	161	89.9%
Still student	49	27.4%
Graduated	112	62.6%
No Response	6	
Total	*185*	*100%*
Region		
Maritime	5	2.7%
Central	135	73.4%
Western	41	22.3%
Territories	3	1.6%
No Response	1	
Total	*185*	*100%*
Received survey		
Designated organizations	99	53.8%
Researcher directly	72	39.1%
Snowball sampling	13	7.1%
No Response	1	
Total	*185*	*100%*
Enter into the draw		
Yes	98	53.3%
No	86	46.7%
No Response	1	
Total	*185*	*100%*
Received the result copy		
Yes	79	42.9%
No	105	57.1%
No Response	1	
Total	*185*	*100%*

4.5 Respondents' Backpacking Behavior:

This section will report the findings about the general patterns of Canadian backpackers' behavior; including their previous backpacking experience and duration, their preferred backpacking adventure party, and the type of backpacking adventure they have experienced.

In the survey respondents were asked to indicate how many backpacking trips they had made during their entire travel career. Comparing the results with the "Global Nomad Survey Sample" in Table 2 demonstrated a high level of travel activity among participants.

Table 2

Previous Travel Experience between Participants and Global Nomad Survey Sample

| | Travel Experience (number of trips) | | | |
	1-3	4-6	7-10	10+
Canadian backpackers	35%	24.5	5.5%	35%
Global Nomad Survey Sample	25.6%	29.4%	29.1%	15.9%

It seems Canadian backpackers tend to go backpacking more than their counterparts around the world. Moreover, the number of Canadian backpackers who had taken more than 10 trips doubled in size (35%) which shows the level of backpacking popularity among Canadians. However, dividing each sample to two categories of participants with less than 7 trips and participants with 7 or more trips, indicated that on average in both samples, nearly half of the backpackers (40.5% for Canadians and 45% for their global counterparts) had over 7 backpacking trips over their life time, therefore, Canadian backpackers are similar to their peers around the world while considering the level of active participation.

In terms of types of backpacking experiences, apart from half of the participants who indicated they went backpacking both domestically and internationally, the number of participants who backpacked around Canada (29%) was a bit higher than those who preferred international backpacking (20%), which was also consistent with Richards and Wilson's (2004b) findings that people prefer to travel within their own world region more frequently. On the other hand, Figure 4.1 indicated that participants were as interested in international trips as in domestic ones.

Figure 4.1. Results of travel type preference among Canadian backpackers (frequency), n= 185

Travel type	Frequency
international trips	38
domestic trips	53
both domestic & international trips	94
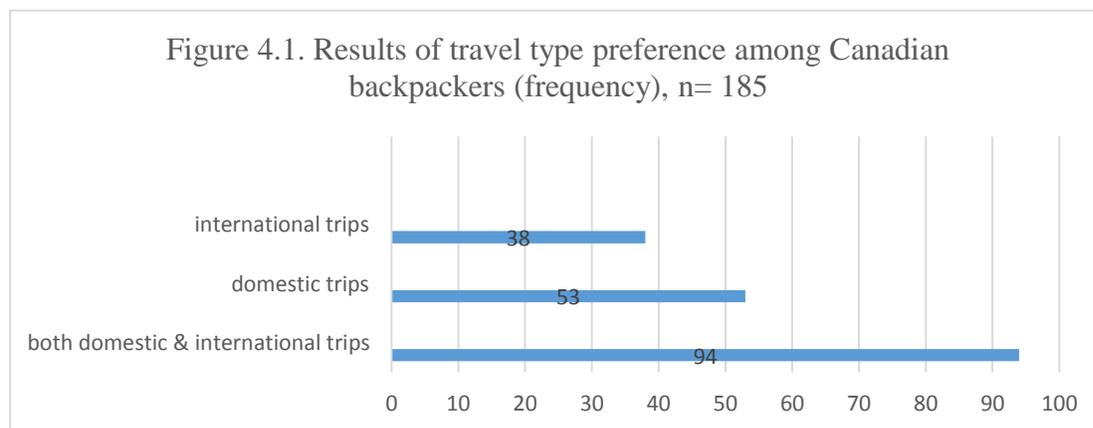
Regarding the question about travel party, as indicated in Figure 4.2, plurality of participants (41%) found friends as the most preferable backpacking companionship. Otherwise, they prefer to go backpacking alone (34%) or with their spouse/partner (19%) rather than with siblings (3%), other relatives (2%), or parents (0.5%), the least desirable companionships. Overall, data show that over 65% of participants tend to go backpacking with another person whom they know rather than alone which revealed like Israeli backpackers (Maoz, Richards, & Wilson, 2004), Canadian counterparts prefer to go backpacking with a person they know.

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Figure 4.2. Results of travel party of Canadian backpackers (frequency), n= 185
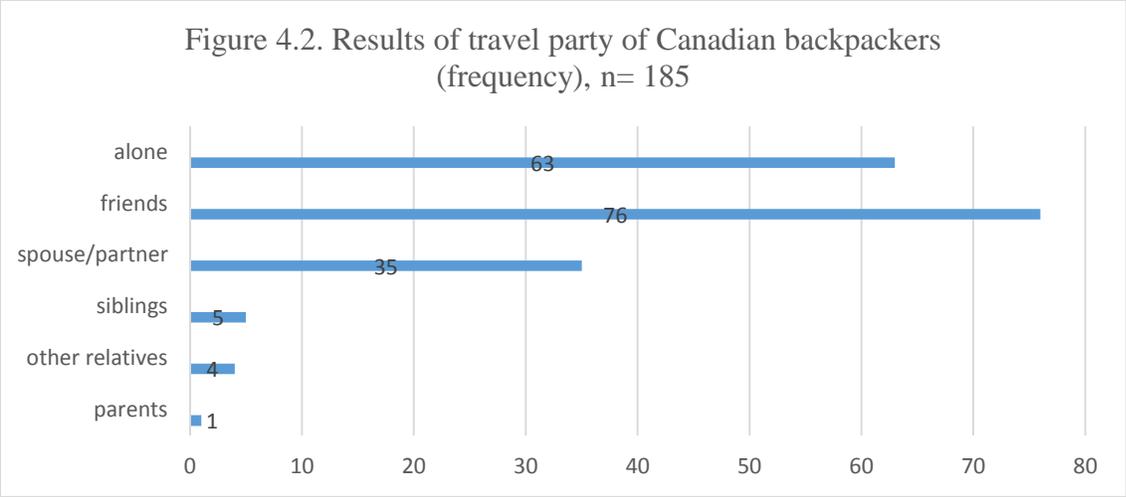
Canadian participants in this study did not show a tendency for very long trips. As shown in Table 3, the average length of trip (62%) was less than a month, which is different from "Global Nomad Survey Sample" whose participants reported average trip length of more than 60 days. Most trips (28%) were less than a week which make sense considering that two-week paid vacation is the norm in Canada (CBC News, 2013).

Table 3

Results of travel length among Canadian backpackers

Travel Length	frequency	percent
Less than a month	**114**	**61.6%**
Less than a week	52	28.1%
1-2 weeks	27	14.6%
Over 2 weeks but less than a month	35	18.9%
1-3 months	**43**	**23.4%**
Over 3 months	**27**	**14.7%**
No Response	**1**	**0.3%**
Total	*185*	*100%*

Overall, 74% of participants went on their last backpacking trip in the recent 6 years. As shown in Table 4, nearly half of participants went backpacking during 2014 and the first four months of 2015, while the number of those who did this activity between 2012 and 2013 are a bit more (14%) than the participants who went backpacking between 2010 and 2011(13%) for the last time. Results in general indicated that about three fourth of respondents are active backpackers.

Table 4

Results of the last backpacking trip among Canadians

The year of last backpacking trip	frequency	percent
2010-2015	**134**	**74%**
2014-2015	85	47%
2012-2013	26	14.4%
2010-2011	23	12.7%
2009 and below	**47**	**25.9%**
No Response	**4**	
Total	*185*	*100%*

4.6 Descriptive Analysis of Variables

4.6.1 Achievement Goal Orientations (Validation-seeking and Growth-seeking goals)

The results of the level of growth-seeking or Validation-seeking goals among Canadian backpackers were presented in Table 5. The selected items of the scale of Goal Orientation Inventory (GOI) in the questionnaire were labelled as 1 "strongly disagree", to 5 "strongly agree". The high Cronbach's Alpha of .97 for the validation-seeking subscale, and .96 for the growth-

seeking subscale ensure that correlations between these two personality inventories are less likely
to be attenuated by measurement error (Dykman, 1998).

Table 5: *Mean and Standard deviation of Growth-seeking and Validation-seeking among participants*

Items	N	Mean	Rank	Std. Deviation
Growth-seeking		**3.70**		**.790**
I prefer to face challenges during backpacking rather than sitting back at home and never trying this activity.	184	4.03	1	1.111
I look at difficulties as opportunities to learn and grow.	185	3.94	2	1.022
The attitude I take toward possible challenges during backpacking is that they'll end up being good learning experiences.	184	3.88	3	1.039
My attitude toward possible challenges during backpacking is that such experiences will turn out to be opportunities to self-improve my backpacking skills	184	3.50	4	1.111
When I approach an unknown trail, I'm less concerned with the possibility of being lost or encountering unfriendly strangers than with how I learn from the experience.	182	3.48	5	1.086
As long as I learn necessary backpacking skills, I can accept all the challenges and difficulties during backpacking.	182	3.44	6	1.105
Validation-seeking		**2.05**		**.826**
I'm constantly trying to prove that I am as competent as other backpackers around me.	185	2.25	1	1.095
I feel like I'm always testing out whether or not I have the necessary backpacking qualifications as other backpackers.	185	2.22	2	1.108
I do backpacking just to prove my basic adequacy as an adventurer.	182	2.08	3	1.077
I interact with other backpackers just to test whether or not I'm a likeable person.	183	2.03	4	1.112
One of the main things I'm striving for is to prove that I'm really a good backpacker	184	2.01	5	1.027
It seems like I'm constantly trying to prove my basic worth as a backpacker.	184	1.74	6	.962

Measured on a 1 to 5 scale, where 1= strongly disagree, and 5= strongly agree

Characteristics of each category were ranked by the Mean score from the highest to the lowest. Reflected by the composite Mean score of each category, growth-seeking goals (M=3.70, SD=.79) were perceived more important than the validation-seeking goals (M=2.05, SD=.83).

In the previous chapter there was doubt to use the statement "I prefer to face with challenges during backpacking rather than sitting back at home and never trying this activity" due to its low factor loading, however, the highest Mean score (M= 4.03, SD= 1.111) indicated that it was quite relevant to the goal orientation context of backpacking.

Scoring the GOI involves summing the responses to each subscale and then subtracting the growth-seeking subscale from the validation-seeking subscale to arrive at a net total (possible range of 24 to -24). Higher scores represent greater validation seeking.

As figure 4.3 shows, the range of scores differed between 4 to -24. Moreover, the composite Mean score of growth-seeking participants (M= 3.70, SD= .790) and the composite Mean score of validation-seeking participants (M= 2.05, SD= .826) along with the range of scores indicated that Canadian backpackers focused primarily on growth-seeking goals.

According to the chart about 4% of backpackers got "0" in the GOI scale. Tuominen-Soini, Salmela-Aro, and Niemivirta (2008) called this group as "disengaged" participants, who scored low on all achievement goal orientations. They did not emphasize on learning or performance with relatively lower commitment to an activity.

Figure 4.3 The range of scores in GOI scale (frequency), n= 185
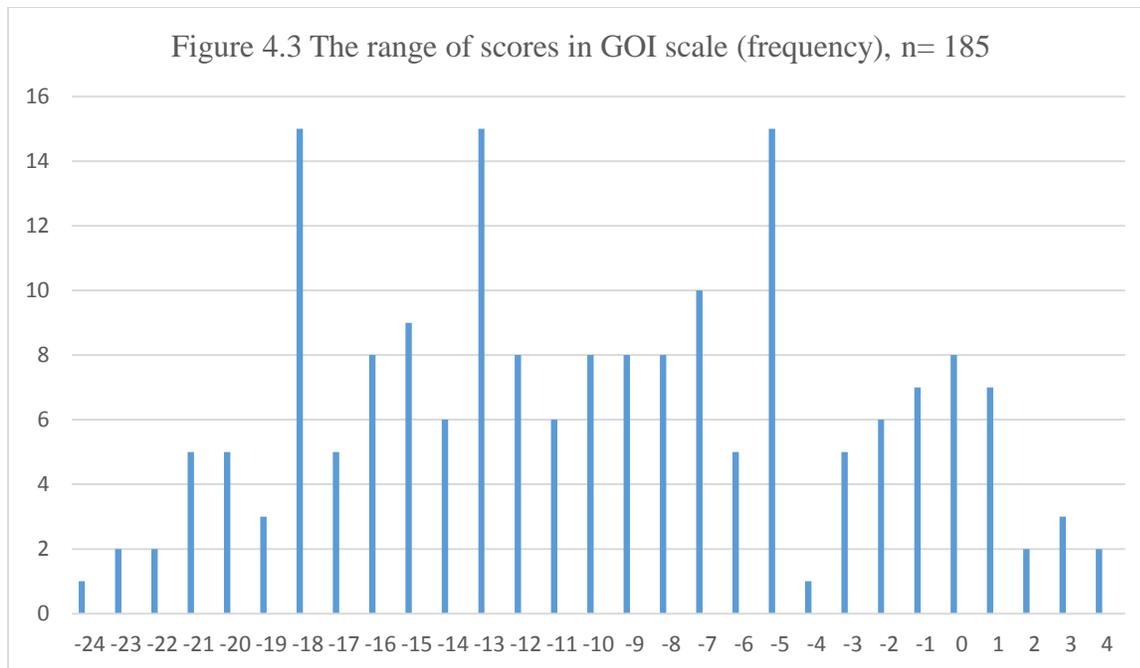
4.6.2 Perceived Risk

The results of perceived risk among Canadian backpackers were illustrated in Table 6. The perceived risk items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree". In terms of reliability of the perceived risk scale, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is .74 which indicated adequate internal consistency (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a).

The composite Mean score of 1.91 with a Standard deviation of .638 indicated a very low perceived risk among participants. Generally, the main concern of participants was physical risk. The statement "I have experienced physical danger or injury during a backpacking trip" had the highest Mean score of 2.38 and a 1.176 Standard Deviation. Functional risk was the second factor effected on Canadian backpackers. Participants reported a concern when they were asked about the quality of accommodation with a Mean score of 2.23 and a 1.106 Standard Deviation. Health risk was also among the more serious factors for Canadian backpackers, which was reflected by

the statement "I became sick while backpacking" with a Mean score of 2.22 and a 1.223 Standard Deviation. It should be added that because of the important role of attraction in backpacking, as explained in chapter 3, it was decided to break the functional risk to two elements of accommodation and attraction. The priority of attraction for Canadian backpackers is clear regarding its ranking in Table 6. Overall, physical, functional, and health risk are the factors Canadian backpackers were more focused on.

Table 6

Level of perceived risk among Canadian backpackers

Risk factor	N	Mean	Rank	Std. Deviation
Composite Mean Score of Perceived Risk		**1.91**		**.638**
I experienced physical danger or injury	184	2.38	1	1.176
Quality of accommodations were below my expectations	185	2.23	2	1.106
I became sick while backpacking	184	2.22	3	1.223
Attractions were not what I expected	185	2.07	4	1.058
I got involved in the host country's politics	184	1.96	5	1.147
Others didn't approve of backpacking as my vacation choice	185	1.96	6	1.023
Backpacking experience didn't reflect my personality	185	1.86	7	1.006
Backpacking experience didn't provide value for money spent	184	1.72	8	.909
Backpacking experience didn't provide personal satisfaction	185	1.65	9	.949
Backpacking experience took too much time	184	1.57	10	.950
I experienced terrorism while backpacking	185	1.43	11	.819

Measure on a 1 to 5 scale, where 1=strongly disagree, and 5=strongly agree

Two insights were gained from the high standard deviation among the most concerning risks identified with participants. First, according to Dolnicar (2005) overseas travels and domestic

trips represent two extreme contexts for most of the variables in which international trips are generally associated with higher risk levels. Second, as Reichel et al. (2007) argued the level of perceived risk varies based on individuals' profiles, such as: gender, past backpacking experience, and preference for fellow travellers.

Table 6 also indicated that political instability risk (i.e. "I involved in the host country's politics"), social risk (i.e. "Others didn't approve of backpacking as my vacation choice") or psychological risk (i.e. "backpacking experience didn't reflect my personality") also somewhat did matter for Canadian backpackers, but a less level than physical, functional, or health risk.

On the other hand, the low Mean scores between 1 "strongly disagree" and 2 "disagree" along with the low Standard deviation for financial risk (i.e. "Backpacking experience didn't provide value for money spent"), satisfaction risk (i.e. "backpacking experience didn't provide personal satisfaction"), time risk (i.e. "backpacking experience took too much time"), and terrorism risk (i.e. "I experienced terrorism while backpacking") revealed that participants didn't perceived them as risk.

More analyses among achievement goal orientation and each dimension of perceived risk through correlation coefficients revealed that there was a small to moderate negative correlation (from r = -.17, *p<.05 to r = -.46, **p<.01) between growth-seeking goals and dimensions of perceived risk. Overall, growth-seeking participants showed a weak negative association with dimensions of perceived risk, considering there was no correlation between growth-seeking goals with physical or health risks. The correlation of -.17* between growth-seeking goals and political instability of a destination indicated that the association between these two measures was quite weak. That is, although higher growth-seeking backpackers perceived political instability of a destination much less, it was not highly related. On the other hand, the correlation of -.46**

between growth-seeking goals and time risk highlighted that there was a much stronger association between the level of growth-seeking and the rate of concern for spending too much time for a backpacking activity. That is, the more growth-seeking backpackers were, the less concern they had related to the time they spent.

Table 7

Correlations between Achievement Goal Orientations and Dimensions of Perceived Risk

Variables	Correlations	
	1.	2.
1. Growth-seeking Goals	--	
2. Validation-seeking Goals	-.23	--
3. Functional Risk	**-.18***	**.15***
4. Physical Risk	.01	-.04
5. Health Risk	-.006	.005
6. Political Instability Risk	**-.17***	.14
7. Social Risk	**-.20****	**.33****
8. Psychological Risk	**-.20****	**.39****
9. Financial Risk	**-.24****	**.23****
10. Satisfaction Risk	**-.26****	**.30****
11. Time Risk	**-.46****	**.35****
12. Terrorism Risk	**-.30****	**.31****

n= 181-185, *p<.05, **p<.01

Table 7 also indicated that validation-seeking goals associate positively with all dimensions of risk perception except for physical, health, and political instability, ranging from r = .15* to .39**. Although the correlation matrix showed a rather small positive association between

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validation-seeking level of participants and the rate of their risk perception, the concern of validation-seeking backpackers for psychological risk indicated that the more the level of validation-seeking is among backpackers, the more they concern about the reflection of their personality through a recreation activity.

4.6.3 Perceived Competence

As mentioned earlier, Iso-Ahola et al. (1989) divided perceived competence to "General Perceived Competence" and "Specific Perceived Competence". The findings related to general perceived competence were summarised in Table 8. Participants were asked to rate themselves as a backpacker in addition to their backpacking skills in a 4-point scale (where 1=poor, 2=average, 3=good, and 4= very good). The Cronbach alpha of .91 for general perceived competence indicated very good internal consistency (Iso-Ahola et al., 1989).

Table 8

General Perceived Competence

Items	N	Mean	Rank	Std. Deviation
General perceived Competence	**185**	**2.47**		**.846**
How you rate your backpacking skills?	185	2.68	1	.915
How you rate yourself as a backpacker?	185	2.25	2	.894

Measure on a 1 to 4 scale, where 1= poor, and 4= very good

The composite Mean score of 2.47 with a .846 Standard Deviation, indicated that participants mostly considered themselves and their backpacking skills above the intermediate level, but not advanced.

Results related to specific perceived competence were shown in Table 9. Participants were asked about their feelings in their last backpacking experience in a 5-point Likert scale where 1=strongly disagree, to 5=strongly agree. The Cronbach alpha of .76 for specific perceived competence (Iso-Ahola et al., 1989) indicated an adequate internal consistency.

Table 9

Specific Perceived Competence

Items	N	Mean	Rank	Std. Deviation
Specific perceived Competence		**4.15**		**.694**
My last backpacking experience was a waste of time (reverse coding)	183	4.73	1	.695
I was disappointed with my last backpacking experience (reverse coding)	182	4.47	2	.902
I was satisfied with my last backpacking experience	185	4.19	3	1.050
My previous backpacking experience did not go as well As I expected to (reverse coding)	183	4.08	4	1.122
My last backpacking experience was done with the same skills of the previous ones	182	3.25	5	1.257

Measured on a 1 to 5 scale, where 1=strongly disagree, and 5=strongly agree

The original scale related to specific perceived competence was designed with a mixture of positive and negative items. Due to internal consistency of the scale, three out of five sentences were reverse coded in a process where the responses to the negative items were literally reversed, so that a 1 became a 5, a 2 became a 4, and so on. The high composite Mean score of 4.15 with a Standard Deviation of .694 revealed that participants were highly satisfied with their abilities and experiences in their most recent backpacking activity which was much higher than the composite Mean score of general perceived competence (M=2.47 out of 4).

4.6.4 Basic Travel Motivations

Table 10 shows the results of basic travel motivations. The scale of basic motivation in the questionnaire was measured on a 1 to 5 scale where 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranged from .58 to .80 indicated rather adequate internal consistency for most of the variables (Fodness, 1994, Paris & Lee, 2010). Participants generally indicated that searching for new experiences was their main motivation for backpacking trips. The statement "I'm always looking for new experiences" had the highest Mean score (4.16) and the lowest Standard Deviation (.961), which indicated general agreement among backpackers considering knowledge-seeking factor as an important motive. Getting involved in nature was another motivation for participants to go backpacking based on the statement "to be in a calm atmosphere like nature is my idea of a perfect backpacking experience" with the Mean score of 3.57 and a 1.112 Standard Deviation. It indicated that the knowledge-seeking (experience different things to broaden outlines of life), and relaxation-seeking (vacation is without purpose other than rest and relax or getting away from pressures and responsibilities) were the most important factors of basic motivation among participants, which were also consistent with what Paris and Teye argued recently. In 2010, they suggested that knowledge-seeking and relaxation factors are the core motivations among backpackers.

Table 10

Basic Travel Motivations

Motivation Variables	N	Mean	Rank	Std. Deviation
I'm always looking for new experiences to increase my knowledge	181	4.16	1	.961
To be in a calm atmosphere like nature is my idea of perfect trip	181	3.57	2	1.112
When I get home from backpacking travel, I tell everybody about it	181	3.50	3	1.148
Going on backpacking with someone is more fun than going alone	181	3.44	4	1.097
Backpacking is always a new adventure, I never go to the same place twice	180	3.42	5	1.237

Measured on a 1 to 5 scale, where 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree

Self-expression was questioned in the statement "when I get home from a backpacking travel, I tell everybody about it" with the Mean score of 3.50 and a 1.148 Standard Deviation. Kelly (1987) asserted that leisure may have a strong influence on the self-affirmation process which is individuals' tendency to validate their self-image in order to look desirable as Schlenker (1984) explained. Social aspects of backpacking experience, questioned through the statement "Going on backpacking with someone is more fun that going alone", received a Mean score of 3.44 and a 1.097 Standard deviation, which was consistent with previous findings of this study that most Canadians prefer to go backpacking with another person they know. Backpacking to the same place twice with a Mean score of 3.42 is on the same range of the previous one, however, the rather higher Standard Deviation of 1.237 highlighted that it may vary from participant to participant. Bello and Etzel's (1985) findings that novelty tourists rarely return to the same destination may justify the low mean score of this item.

The findings were very consistent with Richards and Wilson's (2004b). Through Factor analysis of the motivations expressed by the travellers, these two researchers proposed four main factors of experience seeking, relaxation seeking, sociability, and contributing to the destination

as main motivations of travellers, mainly backpackers. However, the factor of self-expression (with a higher Mean score than sociability and contributing to the destination) had not been included in their study.

4.6.5 Ego Involvement

Levels of ego involvement among Canadian backpackers on a 5-point scale (1= strongly disagree, to 5= strongly agree) were outlined in Table 11. In regard to reliability all five calculated subscale values for Cronbach's alpha are above 0.7 which indicate good internal consistency (Kyle et al., 2007). Items under each facet were ranked by the Mean score from the highest to the lowest. Each facet was also ranked by the composite Mean score from the highest to lowest. The grand Mean score of ego involvement in the Canadian backpacking scale was 3.06 and a .861 Standard Deviation, which superficially showed that involvement with backpacking among Canadians was not very high and they did not attach themselves intensely with backpacking. In other words, ego involvement levels were rather average, which was consistent with Akatay et al.'s (2013) study of backpackers visiting Istanbul, in which participants, mainly European backpackers, did not show a high level of ego involvement, either (M= 3.228 out of 5).

Table 11

Ego Involvement among Canadian backpackers

Facet/Item	N	Mean	Rank	Std. Deviation
Grand Mean score of ego Involvement		***3.06***		***.861***
Identity Affirmation		**3.41**	**1**	**.839**
While backpacking, I don't have to be concerned with the way I look	183	3.84	1	1.105
When I participate in backpacking, I can be myself	182	3.67	2	1.253
I identify with the people & image associated with backpacking	181	2.72	3	1.213
Attraction		**3.38**	**2**	**1.192**
Backpacking is one of the most enjoyable things I do	182	3.63	1	1.309
Backpacking is very important to me	181	3.29	2	1.281
Backpacking is one of the most satisfying things I do	182	3.22	3	1.324
Identity Expression		**3.08**	**3**	**.938**
While backpacking, others see me the way I want them to see me	182	3.25	1	1.132
You can tell a lot about a person by seeing them backpacking	182	3.19	2	1.282
Participating in backpacking says a lot about whom I am	182	2.81	3	1.239
Social Bonding		**2.84**	**4**	**.938**
I enjoy discussing backpacking with my friends	181	3.40	1	1.303
Participating in backpacking provides me with an opportunity to be with friends	181	2.94	2	1.233
Most of my friends are connected with backpacking	181	2.18	3	1.118
Centrality		**2.56**	**5**	**1.105**
Backpacking occupies a central role in my life	181	2.62	1	1.271
Changing from backpacking to another activity require major rethinking	182	2.54	2	1.229
My life is organized around backpacking	182	2.52	3	1.273

Measured on a 1 to 5 scale, where 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree

Reflected by the composite Mean score of each facet, it appeared that internally driven facets of Identity Affirmation (M=3.41) and Attraction (M= 3.38) were more salient to backpackers than the externally driven facets of Identity Expression (M= 3.08) and Social Bonding (M= 2.84). Centrality (M= 2.56), which includes as both an internal and external facet, appears to be the least important facet of involvement among Canadian backpackers.

A careful look at Identity Affirmation items revealed the low Mean score of 2.72 and a Standard deviation of 1.213 for the statement "I identify with the people and image associated with backpacking" supported the previous findings about the lower level of being validation-seeker among Canadian backpackers. The rather high Standard Deviation of 1.213 also represented that it may vary from participant to participant, however, it can support that the range of validation-seeking is different among different people. Generally, the rather high Standard deviations was consistent with Selin and Howard's (1988) argument that each individual has a different profile of ego involvement depending on some external compulsive forces. Similarly, based on what Haggard and Williams (1992) argued about affirmation of identity images which is not just the improvement of self-esteem, but "It is an active, healthy, ongoing process of continual self-definition, validation, maintenance, and enhancement undertaken by virtually all individuals" (p.2), results may indicate that validation aspect of identity affirmation seems to be less concerning among Canadian backpackers.

In order to further explore levels of ego involvement among Canadian backpackers, they were divided into three groups of backpackers with low ego involvement (61 participants), backpackers with average ego involvement (61 participants), and backpackers with high ego involvement (62 participants) based on their mean scores, which indicated participants were rather equally distributed in the three categories. One third of participants showed high level of ego involvement (mean scores were over 3.5) which was consistent with Wellman, Roggenbuck, and Smith (1982, p.325) who argued that in leisure activity contexts, "there are one or some small groups of highly committed and expert people who tend to set the standards for attitudes and behavior in that activity."

Overall, despite the grand mean score was not so high, results of grouping indicated that over two third of participants' ego involvement was above the average level (Mean scores were over 2.7).

Table 12

Backpacker Groups Based on the mean score of Ego Involvement (M = 3.06, SD = .861)

EI Facets	composite Mean	Low ego-involved <2.7			2.71 < Average ego-involved <3.5			High ego-involved >3.51		
		%	Frequency	M/SD	%	Frequency	M/SD	%	Frequency	M/SD
IA	3.41	24%	44	2.29/.446	30%	55	3.18/.172	46%	85	4.15/.416
Attr	3.38	34%	62	1.98/.594	13%	24	3.15/.169	53%	96	4.35/.477
IE	3.08	37.5%	69	2.10/.526	29%	54	3.18/.170	33.5%	61	4.11/.402
SB	2.84	48.5%	88	2.06/.567	26%	48	3.16/.173	25.5%	46	4.02/.400
C	2.56	57%	103	1.74/.574	25%	45	3.15/.167	19%	34	4.24/.404

n = 182-185; EI = Ego Involvement, IA = Identity Affirmation, Attr = Attraction, IE = Identity Expression, SB = Social Bonding, C = Centrality

Results also revealed that five facets of ego involvement did not follow the same order for all three groups, however, the interesting point lay in the concentration of both highly and low ego-involved backpackers on an internally driven facet more. While highly ego-involved backpackers look for experiences and pleasure of backpacking to meet their goals, low ego-involved ones try to symbolize to themselves and to others that they are adventurous, fun loving, and a nature lover (Haggard & Williams, 1992) by pursuing identity affirmation and identity expression respectively. Furthermore, they do not concern about the attraction facet and prefer to go backpacking with other backpacker friends to may show their abilities and experiences, which may justify the higher mean score of "social bonding" in comparison to "attraction" among low-

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involved backpackers. On the other hand, for highly ego-involved backpackers externally driven facets of identity expression and social bondings are the least important elements. However, this research is at preliminary stage and it needs more analyses for accurate justifications.

Another intriguing point of view was about the facet of "centrality". Although over half of participants reported low level of centrality, a deeper look at three groups indicated that centrality was the second most important facet (M = 4.24, SD = .404) among highly ego-involved backpackers and the least score (M= 1.74, SD= .574) among low ego-involved ones, which supported what Kyle et al. (2007) argued that the lower the level of overall ego involvement, the lower centrality would be.

Correlation coefficients were also done among ego involvement and each dimensions of perceived risk to see which risk perception was associated with ego involvement. According to Table 13, ego involvement was negatively associated with accommodation part of functional risk in addition to satisfaction, terrorism, and time risk. Overall, the fairly weak correlations indicated that participants with higher level of ego involvement, had less concern about the likelihood of terrorism, lack of personal satisfaction, spending too much time for an activity, or the low quality of hostels and enclaves.

A comparison with the findings in section 4.6.2, related to perceived risk, revealed that although functional, physical, and health risk were the main concerns of Canadian backpackers, only functional risk (accommodation aspect) is negatively associated with ego involvement.

Table 13

Correlations between Ego Involvement and Each Dimension of Perceived Risk

Variables	Correlations
	Ego Involvement
1. Ego involvement	---
2. Functional risk (accommodation)	**-.24****
3. Functional risk (attraction)	-.078
4. Physical risk	-.006
5. Health risk	.013
6. Political instability risk	-.117
7. Social risk	.036
8. Psychological risk	-.081
9. Financial risk	-.132
10. Satisfaction risk	**-.23****
11. Time risk	**-.25****
12. Terrorism risk	**-.20****

n = 182-184, *p<.05, **p<.01

4.7 Correlations and Regression Analyses:

Regarding the backpacking collected data, a series of correlations and regression analyses were conducted to test the hypotheses outlined in chapter one (see section 1.5). First, Pearson Correlation was calculated to test the association of independent variables (growth-seeking and validation-seeking goals) with the dependent variable (ego involvement). Second, another correlation coefficients were conducted to test which mediator variable was correlated with both predictor and outcome variable. Then, a series of simple linear regression analyses, through Process Computational Tool, were employed to determine the degree to which adding mediator

variables contribute to the predictive ability of the association between achievement goal orientation and ego involvement, both as a whole variable and each five facets separately. Finally, a test of contrast, through Process Computational Tool, was conducted to examine which mediator variable was more effective. Results from theses analyses were presented in the following sections.

4.7.1 Hypothesis 1: Backpackers with a concern of validating their competence would show less adaptive patterns of ego involvement in comparison to their growth-seeking peers.

Two series of Pearson Correlations were calculated using the composite mean scores of growth-seeking and validation-seeking goals along with the grand mean of ego involvement and composite mean scores of Attraction, Social Bonding, Centrality, Identity Affirmation, and Identity Expression.

Table 14

Correlation of Achievement Goal orientations (Independent variable) and Ego Involvement (Dependent Variable)

Variables	Correlations		
	1.	2.	3.
1. Growth-seeking	--		
2. Validation-seeking	-.03	--	
3. Ego Involvement	**.48****	.05	--

n= 184-185, *p<.05, **p<.01

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Results from calculating correlations among variables presented in Table 14 revealed that growth-seeking goal was a significant predictor of ego involvement. r (184)=.48, p<.01 suggested that the level of growth-seeking goals positively corresponded to the level of ego involvement: an increase (or a decrease) in the level of growth-seeking goals corresponded to an increase (or a decrease) in the level of ego involvement. On the other hand, whether the level of validation-seeking goals was high or low among Canadian backpackers, there was not a significant relationship between validation-seeking goals and ego involvement.

In order to see the association between predictor variables and each five facets of ego involvement, another series of correlation were calculated among achievement goal orientations with attraction, centrality, social bonding, identity affirmation, and identity expression. As Table 15 shows, validation-seeking goals had some significant positive correlations with centrality, r (181) =.19, p<.05, and identity expression, r (183) =.17, p<.05. Statistically significant, the practical significance of a correlation of .19 or .17 (p<.05) was very limited and small, though.

Table 15: *Correlations of Achievement Goal Orientation and Five Facets of Ego Involvement*

Variables	Correlations						
	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. Growth-seeking	--						
2. Validation-seeking	-.03	--					
3. Attraction	**.55****	-.08	--				
4. Centrality	**.31****	**.19***	.73**	--			
5. Social Bonding	**.35****	.10	.68**	.63**	--		
6. Identity Affirmation	**.46****	-.07	.69**	.57**	.65**	--	
7. Identity Expression	**.39****	**.17***	.68**	.69**	.63**	.71**	--

n= 181-184, *p<.05, **p<.01

The Growth-seeking dimension, on the other hand, showed a significant correlation with all facets of ego involvement (p<.01). The correlation coefficients were all positive ranging from .31 to .55.

The largest correlation belonged to the association of growth-seeking and Attraction: r (181) = .55, p<.01 which indicated that the more a Canadian backpacker seeks experiences, the more he/she may enjoy from backpacking. Centrality is, on the other hand, the least associated with growth-seeking: r (181) = .31, p<.01.

The findings provided answers to the Research Question 1 (Is achievement goal orientation associated with ego involvement among Canadian backpackers?). Results in Tables 14 and 15 indicated that growth-seeking dimension of achievement goal orientation positively associated with the level of ego involvement among Canadian backpackers. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected and the research hypothesis 1 (backpackers with a concern of validating their competence would show less adaptive patterns of ego involvement in comparison to their growth-seeking peers) was supported.

4.7.2 More Correlations

Before performing any analysis to support or reject hypothesis 2 and 3, correlation coefficients were conducted to see if mediator variables were associated with the predictor variable (growth-seeking goals) and the dependent variable (ego involvement), to meet the mediation procedures outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986) as cited in Mock, Fraser, Knutson, and Prier (2010).

Baron and Kenny suggested four steps are required to test for mediation. First, the predictor variable must be significantly associated with the dependent variable. Second, the

predictor variable must be significantly associated with the mediating variable. Third, the mediating variable must also be significantly associated with the dependent variable. Fourth, when the mediating variable is included in the model, the initially significant association of the predictor variable with the dependent variable must be partially or fully reduced in statistical significance.

As Table 16 illustrated, specific perceived competence, general perceived competence, and perceived risk were all correlated with growth-seeking goals and ego involvement which also provided answer to the Research Question 2 (Is perceived competence along with perceived risk associated with achievement goal orientation and ego involvement among Canadian backpackers?)

Table 16

Correlations of Growth-seeking Goals, Specific Perceived Competence, General Perceived Competence, Perceived Risk, and Ego involvement

Variables	Correlations				
	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
1. Growth-seeking goals	---				
2. Specific Perceived Competence	.30**	---			
3. General Perceived Competence	.38**	.33**	---		
4. Perceived Risk	-.30**	-.38**	-.17*	---	
5. Ego Involvement	.48**	.24**	.45**	-.18*	---

n= 184-185, *p<.05, **p<.01

Moreover, considering the Adventure Experience Paradigm (Carpenter & Priest, 1989) discussed in Chapter two (Figure 2, p.39), perceived risk is balanced with specific perceived competence which leads to peak adventure or flow.

Another set of correlation coefficients were conducted to see if the basic travel motivation factors were also correlated with growth-seeking goals and ego involvement. As summarized in Table 17, only knowledge-seeking and relaxation factors (core motivations) were correlated with both growth-seeking goals and ego involvement. It also provided answer to Research Question 4 (Are knowledge-seeking and relaxation factor associated with achievement goal orientations and ego involvement?)

Table 17

Correlations of Growth-seeking Goals, Basic Motivation Factors, and Ego Involvement

Variables	Correlations						
	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. growth-seeking goals	---						
2. Knowledge-seeking	**.44****	---					
3. Relaxation	**.29****	.30**	---				
4. Sociability	-.10	-.11	.02	---			
5. Value-expression	-.02	-.08	.11	.19*	---		
6. Host-site Involvement	.04	.10	.14	.09	.28**	---	
7. Ego Involvement	**.48****	**.44****	**.20****	-.24**	.08	.06	---

n= 180-185, *p<.05, **p<.01

4.7.3 Regression Analyses

Some linear regression analyses, through Process Computational Tool, were conducted to examine simultaneously the potential role of both general and specific perceived competence,

perceived risk, and core motivations in explaining any statistically significant associations between growth-seeking goals and ego involvement, both as a whole variable and each five facets separately.

Although analyses were done through Process Computation Tool and all variables were entered simultaneously, Table 18 was designed based on two models to be better understood. Control variables of gender, age, and education along with growth-seeking goals were included in the first model of analysis to examine their unique contribution to ego involvement as a whole variable. In the second model, perceived risk, specific perceived competence, general perceived competence, and core motivations were added simultaneously to allow a comparison of multiple potential mediators. The method conducted to test multiple mediators used bootstrapping to generate a reference distribution, which was then used for confidence interval estimation and significance testing (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). This method also examined the extent to which the mediators independently contributed to the explanation of the association of the focal variable with the outcome variable as well as a comparison between mediators.

Before conducting the analysis, Age was classified by categories range from 1 (15-25), 2 (26-29), 3 (30+). Gender was also coded as female (1) and other (0), and Education, measured the highest level of education achieved, including 1 (secondary level), and 2 (post-secondary level).

Regression analyses showed that neither of the control variables were significantly associated with ego involvement, which was consistent with previous research suggesting ego involvement is rarely related to socio demographic characters (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999; Havitz et al., 2013). On the other hand, the more growth-seeking participants were, the higher their level of ego involvement would be (Table 18, Model 1). The only mediating variables significantly associated with ego involvement were general perceived competence and knowledge-seeking

factor of core motivations (Table 18, Model 2). The higher the levels of general perceived

competence and knowledge-seeking factor were, the higher level of ego involvement participants

reported. Neither perceived risk nor specific perceived competence was associated with ego

involvement. Relaxation factor of core motivations was not associated with ego involvement,

either.

Table 18

Unstandardized Coefficient for Regression Models examining Association of Demographics, Growth-seeking Goals, Specific Perceived Competence, General Perceived Competence, Perceived Risk, and Core Motivations with Ego Involvement

Independent Variables	Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff.	SE	Coeff.	SE
Constant	1.50**	.46	.64	.62
Age	.01	.04	-.04	.04
Female	-.07	.11	.06	.10
Education	-.20	.18	-.09	.17
Growth-seeking goals	.52***	.07	.26**	.08
Perceived risk	--	--	-.03	.09
Specific perceived competence	--	--	-.03	.09
General perceived competence	--	--	**.16***	.03
Knowledge-seeking factor	--	--	**.21***	.06
Relaxation factor	--	--	.05	.05
Adjusted R^2	.24		.39	

n = 174; **p<.01, ***p<.001

4.7.4. Hypothesis 2 and 3*: H2: Under the influence of high perceived competence and lower perceived risk, growth-seeking goals will enhance ego involvement among Canadian backpackers. H3: Under the influence of knowledge-seeking and Relaxation factor, growth-seeking goals will enhance ego involvement among Canadian backpackers*

Analyses were conducted to determine the degree to which the association between growth-

seeking goals and ego involvement was accounted for by the potential mediator of general

perceived competence and knowledge-seeking factor. Based on Preacher and Hayes' (2008) models, figure 4.4 was illustrated to summarize the results. First, the total effect (c) of growth-seeking goals on ego involvement was significant (B = .52***, p<.001) and compared to the total effect, the direct effect (c') of growth-seeking goals on ego involvement was somewhat reduced (B = .26**, p<.01) with the addition of general perceived competence and knowledge-seeking factor. The indirect effects (a_3b_3) for general perceived competence was statistically significant (point estimate = .128, SE = .04, p<.05) and the indirect effect (a_4b_4) for knowledge-seeking factor was also statistically significant (point estimate= .117, SE= .03, p<.05). Furthermore, the bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval for both the indirect effect (a_3b_3 = .128) and (a_4b_4 =.117) based on 10,000 bootstrap samples was entirely above zero (.054 to .222) and (.058 to .201), therefore, the result was statistically significant.

Figure 4.4

Association between Growth-seeking Goals and Ego Involvement Mediated by Perceived Risk, Specific Perceived Competence, General Perceived Competence, and Core Motivation Factors.
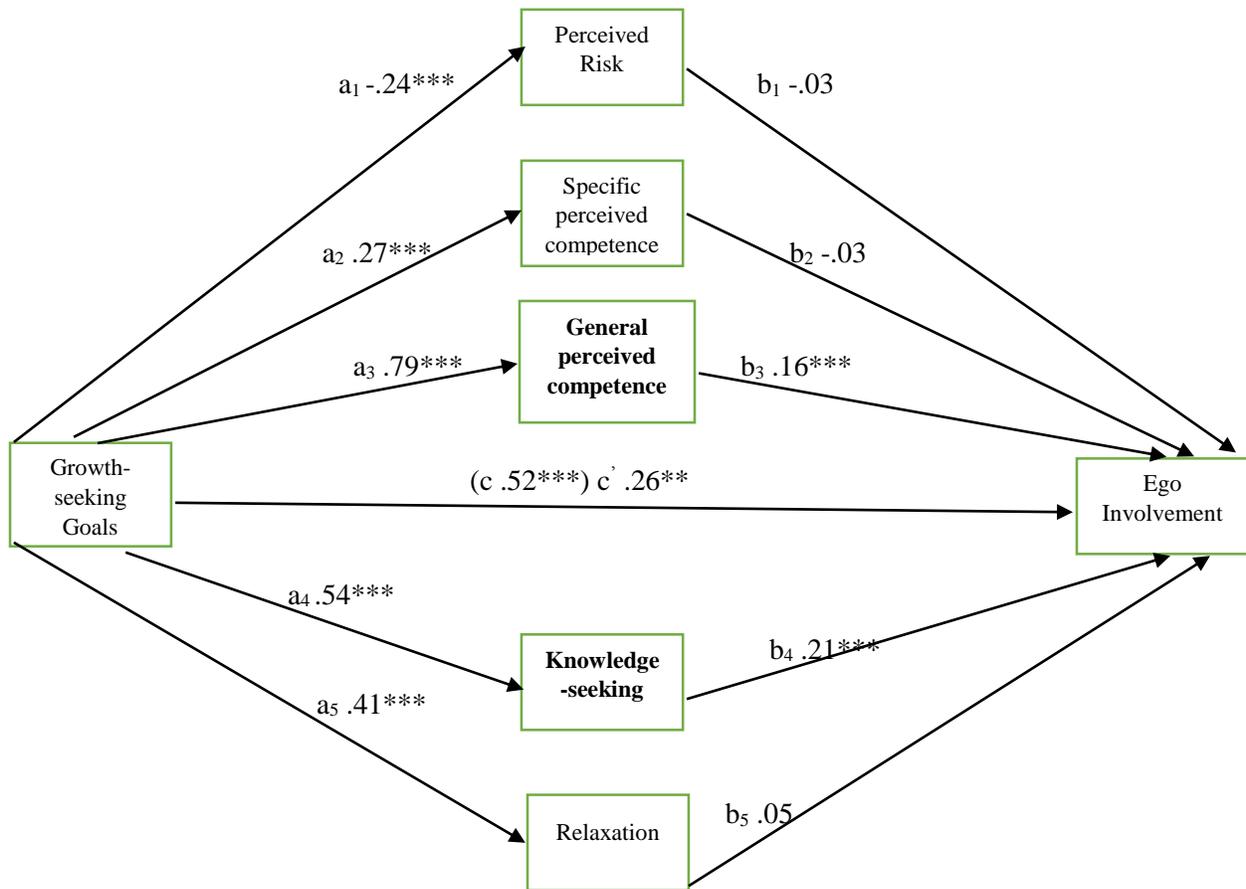
Note: The value in parentheses is the unstandardized regression coefficient for the association between growth-seeking goals and ego involvement before the addition of perceived risk, specific and general perceived competence, and core motivations to the model. $n = 174$; ***$p < .001$

The same regression analyses through Process Computational Tool were conducted to test the potential role of mediator variables in explaining any statistically significant associations between growth-seeking goals and each of five facets of ego involvement separately.

As indicated in Table 19 (Model 2), general perceived competence was the only mediator significantly associated with all five facets of Attraction, Centrality, Social Bonding, Identity Affirmation, and Identity Expression. Knowledge-seeking factor of core motivations was also significantly associated with Attraction, Centrality, Social Bonding, and Identity Expression, however, it was the relaxation factor which was associated with Identity affirmation. Neither control variables nor perceived risk and specific perceived competence had a significant association with facets of ego involvement (Table 19, Model 1).

Table 19. *Unstandardized Coefficients for Regression Models Examining Associations of Demographics, Growth-seeking Goals, Specific and General Perceived Competence, as well as Perceived Risk along with Core Motivations with Attraction, Centrality, Social Bonding, Identity Affirmation, and Identity Expression.*

Independent Variables	Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff.	SE	Coeff.	SE
Attraction				
Constant	.23	.62	-.41	.82
Age	.06	.06	-.01	.05
Female	-.13	.15	.05	.14
Education	.01	.25	.13	.22
Growth-seeking goals	**.82*****	.10	**.44*****	.11
Perceived risk	--	--	-.22	.12
Specific perceived competence	--	--	.02	.11
General perceived competence	--	--	**.23*****	.05
Knowledge-seeking factor	--	--	**.28*****	.08
Relaxation factor	--	--	-.01	.07
Adjusted R^2	.30		.46 (Continued)	

n= 174; *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Independent Variables	Model 1			Model 2	
	Coeff.	**SE**		**Coeff.**	**SE**
Centrality					
Constant	1.31	.65		-.04	.90
Age	.09	.06		.04	.06
Female	.05	.16		.21	.16
Education	-.31	.26		-.15	.25
Growth-seeking goals	**.43***	.10		.13	.11
Perceived risk	--	--		.06	.13
Specific perceived competence	--	--		-.06	.13
General perceived competence	--	--		**.19***	.09
Knowledge-seeking factor	--	--		**.29**	.09
Relaxation factor	--	--		.06	.07
Adjusted R^2		.11			.24
Social Bonding					
Constant	1.80**	.53		1.81*	.77
Age	-.08	.05		.04	.06
Female	-.07	.13		.21	.16
Education	-.10	.21		-.15	.25
Growth-seeking goals	**.39***	.08		**.25***	.10
Perceived risk	--	--		-.05	.11
Specific perceived competence	--	--		-.20	.11
General perceived competence	--	--		**.12**	.04
Knowledge-seeking factor	--	--		**.19***	.07
Relaxation factor	--	--		-.04	.06
Adjusted R^2	.13			.21	

(continued)

Independent Variables	Model 1			Model 2	
	Coeff.	SE.		Coeff.	SE.
Identity Affirmation					
Constant	2.21***	.46		.99	.62
Age	-.03	.04		-.07	.04
Female	-.05	.11		.06	.11
Education	-.26	.19		-.21	.17
Growth-seeking goals	**.48***	.07		**.25**	.08
Perceived risk	--	--		.01	.09
Specific perceived competence	--	--		.12	.09
General perceived competence	--	--		**.12***	.03
Knowledge-seeking factor	--	--		.09	.06
Relaxation factor	--	--		**.13***	.05
Adjusted R^2	.22			.35	
Identity Expression					
Constant	1.96***	.53		.83	.72
Age	.04	.08		-.01	.05
Female	-.14	.13		-.02	.13
Education	-.34	.21		-.23	.20
Growth-seeking goals	**.46***	.08		**.22***	.09
Perceived risk	--	--		.02	.11
Specific perceived competence	--	--		-.02	.11
General perceived competence	--	--		**.14**	.04
Knowledge-seeking factor	--	--		**.22**	.07
Relaxation factor	--	--		.09	.06
Adjusted R^2	.18			.30	

Based on Table 19, regression analyses with Attraction, Social Bonding, and Identity Expression as the outcome variables indicated that neither of the control variables were significantly associated with Attraction, Social Bonding, or Identity Expression. The more growth-seeking participants were, the greater ratings of Attraction, Social Bonding, and Identity expression, respectively, would be and higher ratings of general perceived competence and

knowledge-seeking factor were significantly associated with higher ratings of Attraction, Identity expression, and Social Bonding respectively. The potentially mediating role of general perceived competence and knowledge-seeking factor in the association of growth-seeking goals with Attraction, Social Bonding, and identity Expression was tested and illustrated in Figures 4.5, 4.6, and 4.7.

Figure 4.5

Association between Growth-seeking Goals and Attraction Partially Mediated by General Perceived Competence and Knowledge-seeking Factor
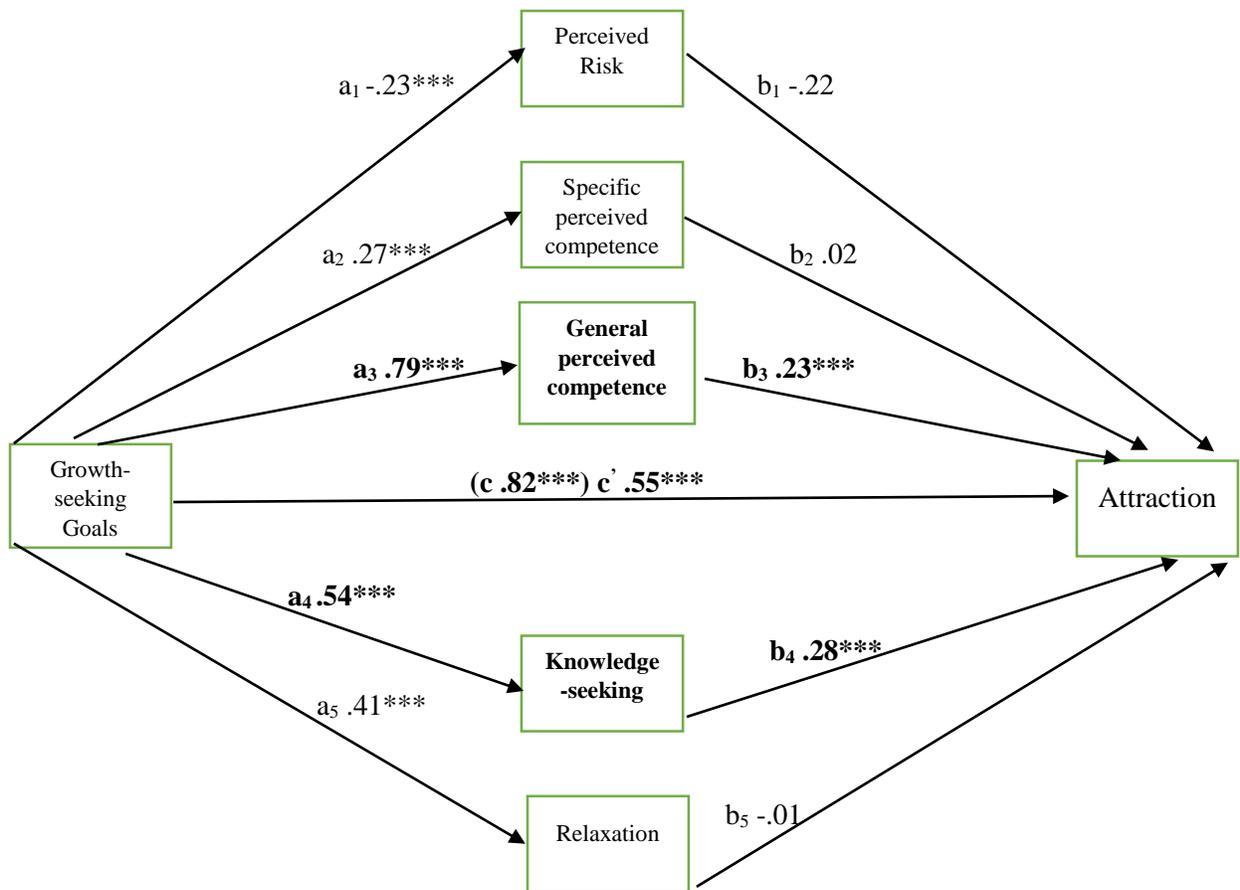
Note: The value in parentheses is the unstandardized regression coefficient for the association between growth-seeking goals and Attraction facet of ego involvement before the addition of general perceived competence and knowledge-seeking factor to the model. n = 174; *p<.05 **p<.01, ***p<.001

Specifically, the total effect (c) of growth-seeking goals on Attraction, Social Bonding, and Identity Expression was significant and compared to the total effect, the direct effect (c') of growth-seeking goals on Attraction, Social Bonding, and Identity Expression was somewhat reduced with the addition of general perceived competence and knowledge-seeking factor.

Figure 4.6

Association between Growth-seeking Goals and Social Bonding Partially Mediated by General Perceived Competence and Knowledge-seeking Factor

Note: The value in parentheses is the unstandardized regression coefficient for the association between growth-seeking goals and Social bonding facet of ego involvement before the addition of general perceived competence and knowledge-seeking factor to the model. n = 174; *p<.05 **p<.01, ***p<.001

Figure 4.7

Association between Growth-seeking Goals and Identity Expression Partially Mediated by General Perceived Competence and Knowledge-seeking Factor
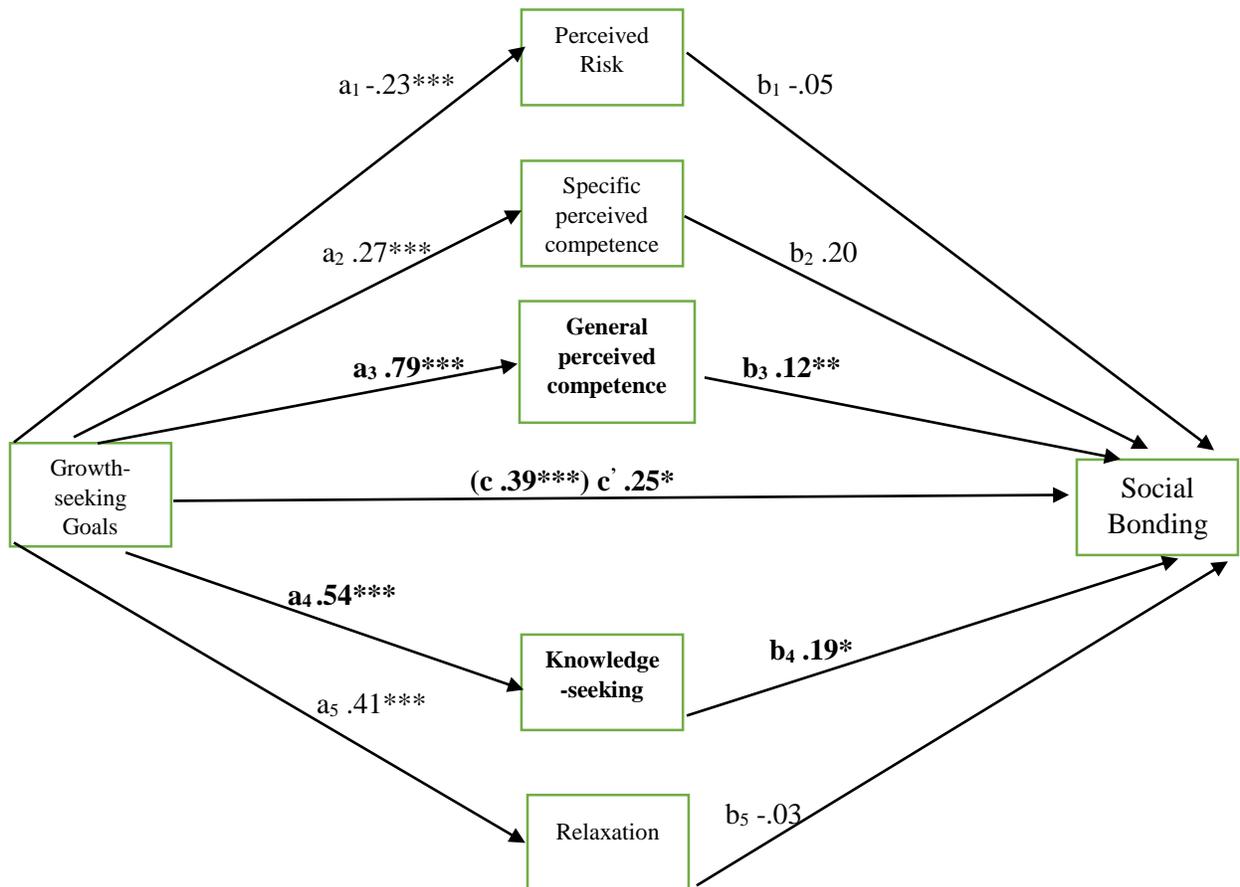

Note: The value in parentheses is the unstandardized regression coefficient for the association between growth-seeking goals and Identity Expression facet of ego involvement before the addition of general perceived competence and knowledge-seeking factor to the model. n = 174; *p<.05 **p<.01, ***p<.001

In other words, the indirect effects (a_3b_3) for general perceived competence was statistically significant for these three facets of ego involvement (Attraction, point estimate = .181, SE = .05, p<.001; Social Bonding, point estimate= .100, SE = .04, p<.01; Identity Expression, point estimate= .108, SE = .04, p<.01) and the indirect effects (a_4b_4) for knowledge-seeking factor was also statistically significant for these three facets of ego involvement (Attraction, point estimate = .154, SE= .05, p<.001; Social Bonding, point estimate= .104, Se= .04, p<.05; Identity

Expression, point estimate= .121, Se= .04, p<.01). Furthermore, the bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval for the indirect effect (a_3b_3) of general perceived competence based on 10,000 bootstrap samples was entirely above zero for these three facets of ego involvement (Attraction = .063 to .274; Social Bonding = .028 to .195; Identity Expression = .034 to .207). The bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval for the indirect effect (a_4b_4) of knowledge-seeking factor based on 10,000 bootstrap samples was also entirely above zero for these three facets of ego involvement (Attraction= .073 to .279; Social Binding= .023 to .205; Identity Expression= .048 to .215), therefore, the result is statistically significant.

Figure 4.8 indicated the results of the degree to which the association between growth-seeking goals and Centrality facet of ego involvement was accounted for by the potential mediator of general perceived competence and knowledge-seeking factor.

In contrary to previous results, analyses indicated that growth-seeking goals had no significant association with the facet of Centrality before adding the mediators (c'= .13) and general perceived competence and knowledge-seeking factor fully mediated the association (c= .43***). The indirect effects (a_3b_3) for general perceived competence was statistically significant for Centrality (point estimate = .149, SE = .05, p<.001) and the indirect effects (a_4b_4) for knowledge-seeking factor was also statistically significant for the facet of Centrality (point estimate = .158, SE= .05, p<.001). Furthermore, the bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval for both the indirect effect (a_3b_3) and (a_4b_4) of general perceived competence and knowledge-seeking factor based on 10,000 bootstrap samples were entirely above zero for the facet of Centrality (general perceived competence = .063 to .274; knowledge-seeking factor = .072 to .279), therefore, the result was statistically significant.
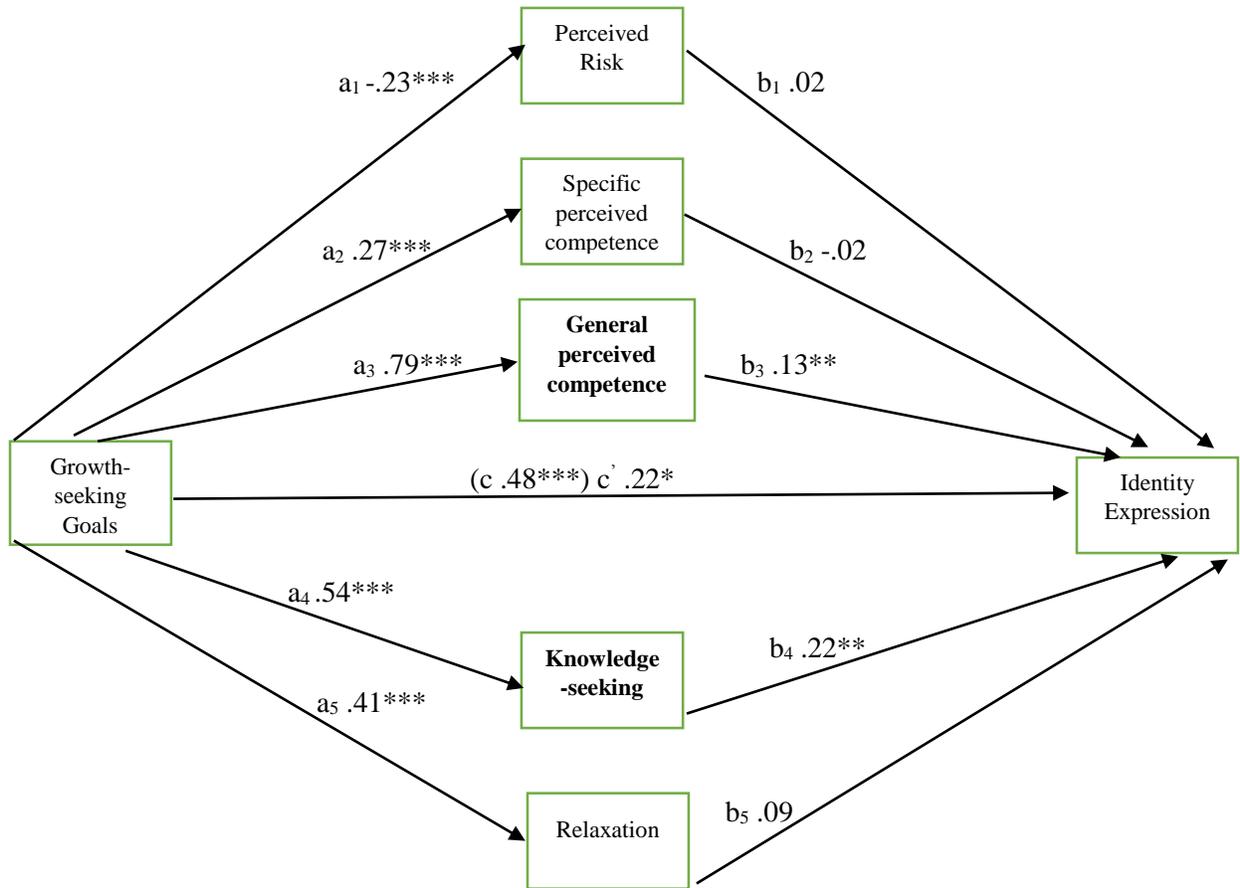
Figure 4.8

Association between Growth-seeking Goals and Centrality Fully Mediated by General Perceived Competence and Knowledge-seeking Factor
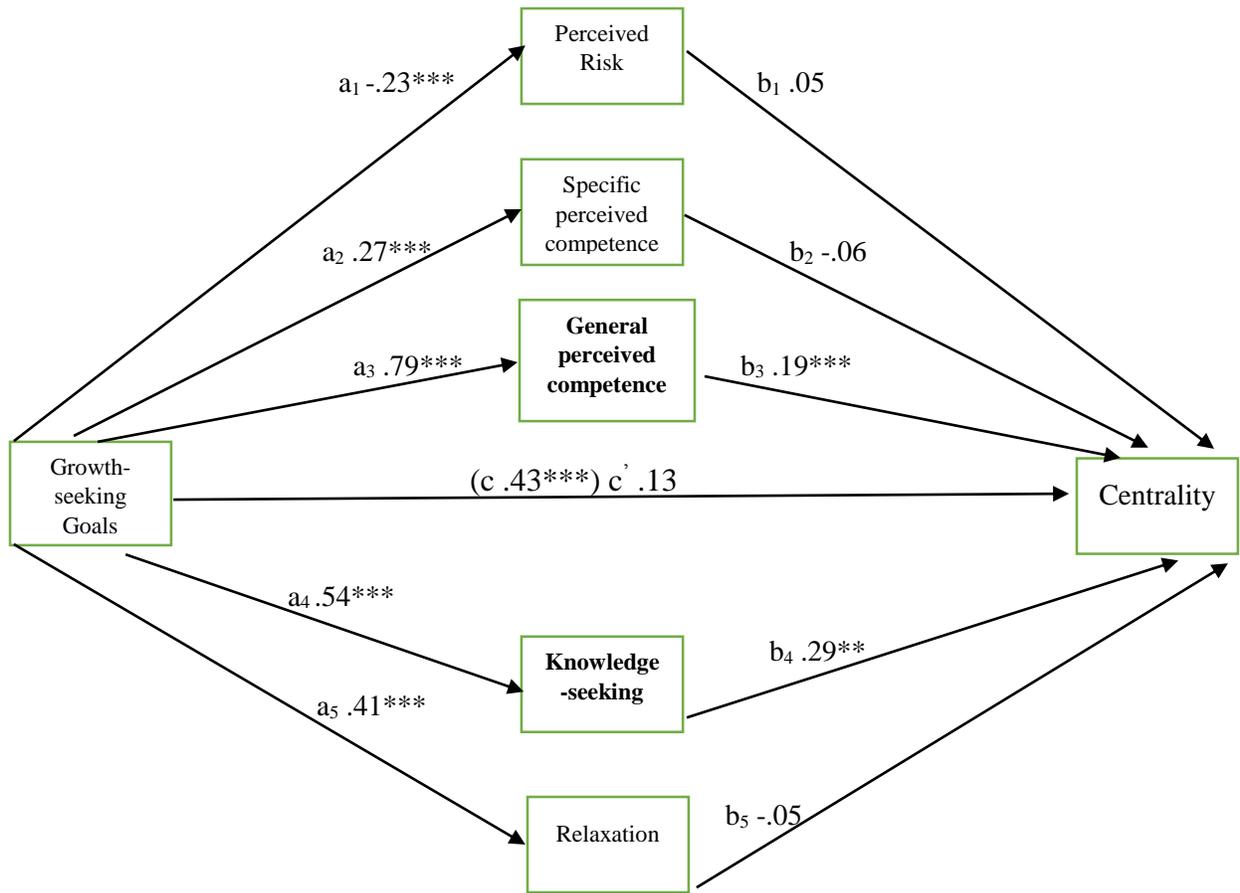
Note: The value in parentheses is the unstandardized regression coefficient for the association between growth-seeking goals and Centrality facet of ego involvement before the addition of general perceived competence and knowledge-seeking factor to the model. n = 174; *p<.05 **p<.01, ***p<.001

Results in Table 19 revealed that although the association of growth-seeking goals and Identity affirmation facet of ego involvement was mediated by general perceived competence, Identity Affirmation was the only facet of ego involvement which was also under the influence of relaxation factor rather than knowledge-seeking factor. Figure 4.9 indicated that the total effect (c)

of growth-seeking goals on Identity affirmation was significant and compared to the total effect, the direct effect (c') of growth-seeking goals on Identity affirmation was somewhat reduced with the addition of general perceived competence and relaxation factor.

Figure 4.9

Association between Growth-seeking Goals and Identity Affirmation Partially Mediated by General Perceived Competence and Relaxation Factor
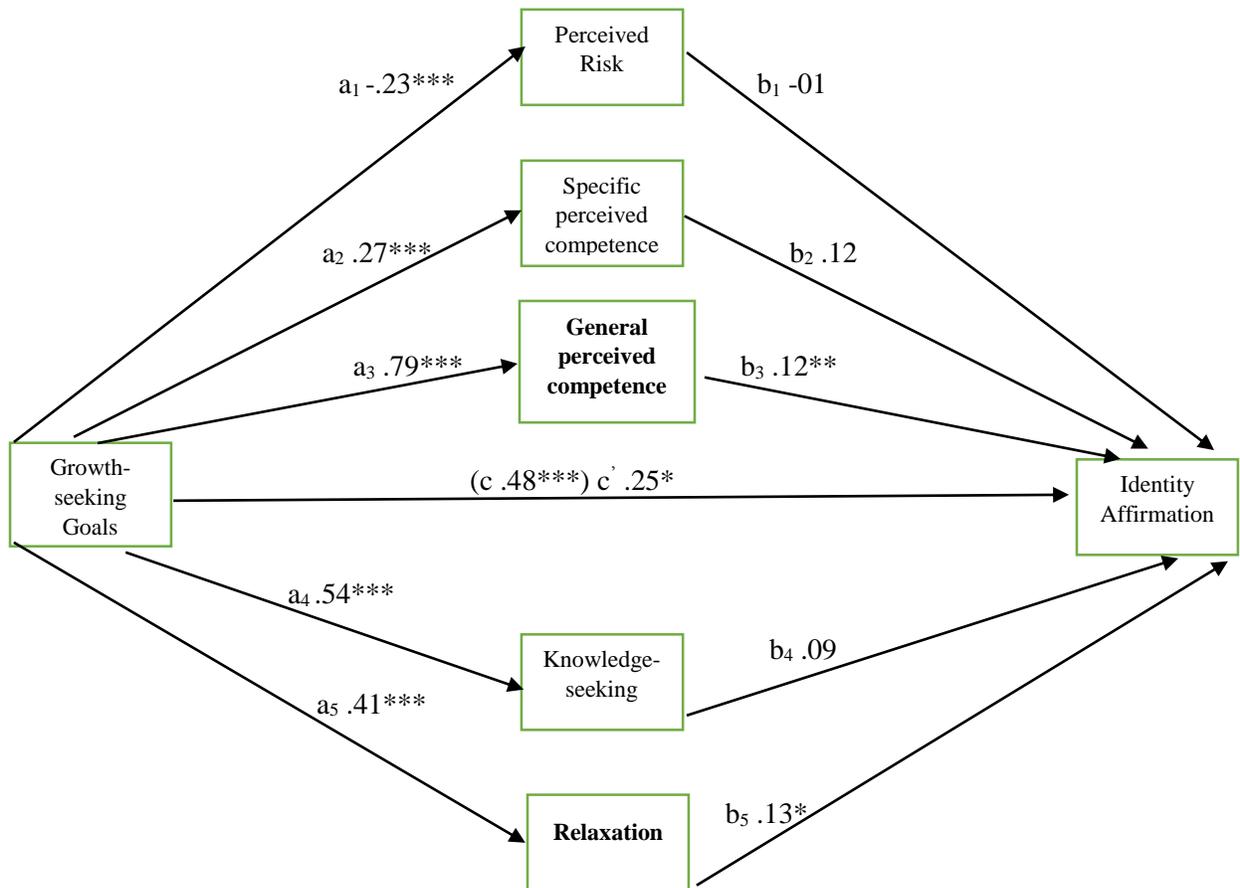
Note: The value in parentheses is the unstandardized regression coefficient for the association between growth-seeking goals and Identity Affirmation facet of ego involvement before the addition of general perceived competence and Relaxation factor to the model. n = 174; *p<.05 **p<.01, ***p<.001

In other words, the indirect effects (a_3b_3) for general perceived competence was statistically significant for Identity Affirmation (point estimate= .100, SE = .04, p<.01) and the indirect effects

(a_5b_5) for relaxation factor was also statistically significant for Identity affirmation facet of ego involvement (point estimate = .053, SE= .02, p<.01). Furthermore, the bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval for the indirect effect (a_3b_3) of general perceived competence based on 10,000 bootstrap samples was entirely above zero for Identity Affirmation (.040 to .212), and the bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval for the indirect effect (a_5b_5) of relaxation factor based on 10,000 bootstrap samples was entirely above zero for Identity Affirmation (.014 to .120), therefore, the result is statistically significant.

Regarding the regression analyses for the level of ego involvement among backpackers, although women participated more in the study, their level of ego involvement was not significantly greater than their male peers. Furthermore, neither age nor the level of education was associated with higher level of ego involvement, both as a whole variable and each five facets individually.

The findings suggested that general perceived competence partially explains the association between growth-seeking goals and ego involvement which provided answers to the Research Question 3 (How may specific perceived competence, general perceived competence, or perceived risk influence on the association between achievement goal orientation and ego involvement, both as a whole variable and each five facets individually?) Thus, parts of the Research hypothesis 2 (Under the influence of high perceived competence and lower perceived risk, growth-seeking goals will enhance ego involvement among Canadian backpacker) was supported.

Furthermore, the findings also revealed that knowledge-seeking and relaxation factor partially explains the association between growth-seeking goals and ego involvement which provide answers to the Research Question 5 (How knowledge-seeking or relaxation factor will

influences on the association between achievement goal orientation and ego involvement, both as a whole variable and each five facets individually?). Thus, Research Hypothesis 3 (Under the influence of knowledge-seeking and relaxation factors growth-seeking goals will enhance ego involvement among backpackers) was also supported.

4.7.5 Test of Contrast between Significant Mediators:

Finally, in order to decide which mediator should be given more credence, the strength of the indirect effects of the significant mediators was tested through Process Computational Tool. Test of contrast was conducted between general perceived competence and knowledge-seeking factor for ego involvement as a whole variable and four facets of Attraction, Centrality, Social Bonding, and Identity Expression. Another test of contrast was also conducted between general perceived competence and relaxation factor for the facet of Identity Affirmation. The specific indirect effect through general perceived competence minus the specific indirect effect through knowledge-seeking factor (i.e., $a_3b_3 - a_4b_4$), C1, for different analyses indicated that: (Ego involvement, point estimate is .138-.114= .024; Attraction, point estimate is .203-.138= .065; Centrality, point estimate is .158-.155= .003; Social Bonding, point estimate is .092-.081= .011; Identity Expression, point estimate is .115-.131= -.016). Moreover, the point estimate of the difference between the specific indirect effects (general perceived competence and relaxation factor) for Identity affirmation is .125-.054= .071, however, a 95% confidence interval straddles zero (Ego involvement, -.131 to .175; Attraction, -.168 to .278; Centrality, -.198 to .199; Social Bonding, -.160 to .184; identity expression, -.176 to .140). Results indicated that for identity affirmation also 95% confidence interval straddles zero (-.056 to .208), therefore, it can be concluded that these indirect effects are not statistically different from each other. The indirect effect of growth-seeking

goals on ego involvement through general perceived competence is no different than the indirect effect through knowledge-seeking factor. Considering four facets of Attraction, Centrality, Social Bonding, and Identity Expression as an outcome follow the same procedure. The indirect effect of growth-seeking on Identity Affirmation through general perceived competence is also no different than the indirect effect through relaxation factor.

The reason why contrasts did not compare the mediators in their ability to mediate may be because of the fact that the mediators were correlated as Preacher and Hayes (2008) argued. Results in Table 20 revealed that all the three mediators were significantly correlated. Therefore contrasts only show the unique ability of each mediator to mediate, above and beyond any other mediators or covariates in the model.

Table 20

Correlations of three mediators of general perceived competence, knowledge-seeking factor, and Relaxation

Variables	Correlations		
	1.	2.	3.
General perceived competence	---		
Knowledge-seeking factor	.25**	---	
Relaxation factor	.16*	.30**	---

n= 181-185, *p<.05, **p<.01

In sum, statistical analyses indicated that there is no significant association between validation-seeking goals and ego involvement. In contrast, growth-seeking goals are significantly associated with both ego involvement as a whole and each five facets individually. Moreover, general perceived competence and knowledge-seeking factor partially explain the association between growth-seeking goals and ego involvement as well as three facets of Attraction, Social

Bonding, and Identity Expression, while the facet of Centrality is fully under the influence of mediators. As well, Identity Affirmation is the only facet which is significantly associated with growth-seeking goals under the partial influence of general perceived competence and relaxation factor.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between achievement goal orientations and the level of ego involvement among Canadian backpackers as well as the mediating role of perceived competence (both specific and general), perceived risk, and basic travel motivations of backpackers on the relationship between achievement goal orientations and ego involvement. More specifically, this study also analysed if a significant mediating variable was associated more with achievement goal orientations to enhance the level of ego involvement among Canadian backpackers.

This chapter is divided into three main sections of discussion, conclusion, along with limitations and directions for future research. The discussion section includes Canadian backpackers' profile based on descriptive analyses followed by discussing the results pertaining to the three proposed hypotheses of this study in the context of previous research in addition to integrating some personal insights. The conclusion section consists of both theoretical and practical implications of the study.

5.1 Discussion

5.1.1 Canadian Backpackers' Profile:

Descriptive analysis of the sample indicated that participants, mostly high-educated females, were mainly below the age of 30. However, the high rate of contemporary backpackers shows that Canada also accords with the world changes in relation to backpacking. Today this leisure outdoor

activity is less about chronological age and more about travel style choice to the extent that Moschis (2002) proposed that baby boomers will control the leisure travel marketplace all around the world by the year 2030. Moreover, development of contemporary backpackers changed backpackers' demographics in western societies to the extent that Jarvis and Peel (2010) coined the notion of "flashpackers" to define older backpackers, even with children, with greater disposable income who carry laptops, flashdrives, and mobile phones, but still engage with mainstream backpacker culture. It should also be noted that for both flashpackers and traditional backpackers new technologies have transformed the ways in which they travel and engage with destinations.

The participation of female backpackers in the study indicated that in Canada women account for a significant proportion of backpackers which is in accordance with global women participations in this activity as Newlands (2004) and Slaughter (2004) argued (cited in Deakin, 2007).

Results also indicated that participants demonstrated to be very active backpackers with a high level of travel activity mainly domestically. However, the rate of their international backpacking trips was high enough not to be ignored. According to Gogia (2005), international travel has become an immense leisure activity for Canadians especially the backpackers who enjoys many advantages over their counterparts in other countries both materially and jurisdictionally. Canadian backpackers are generally wealthier due to the strong Canadian dollar (in comparison to Asian and South American countries) and have greater access to leisure time while few countries regulate visa restrictions or limitations on Canadian travellers. Murphy's (2001) findings indicated that backpackers can comfortably find food, drink, shelter, and transportation for under US$10 a day in Indonesia and US$15 a day in Mexico, in contrast to

Canada, where at least US$45 a day is needed for the same type of services and amenities. Therefore, it is not surprising why Canadian backpackers are so interested in international backpacking.

It should also be mentioned that participants tended more to be connected to other familiar Canadian backpackers with whom they would experience the treks and other activities together. While this attitude is in accordance with Maoz et al.'s (2004) findings about Israeli backpackers, it contradicts European counterparts, who mostly choose to stay away from the people of their country as Hottola (1999) and Loker-Murphy (1996). Based on Cohen (1973), it can be concluded that Canadian backpackers may be "part-time drifters (p.100)" who prefer to be inward-oriented and associate more with the members of their own society, rather than having the tendency to seek significant interaction with the local people. Cohen also called such drifters as "fellow-travellers (1973, p.100)" who return to their ordinary life after the journey.

What is contradicted with traditional backpackers' profile and findings of this study relates to participants' short trip length which may relate to factors such as occupation and income. Richards and Wilson (2004a) argued those with a job and higher income travel longer. Because data related to employment and socio-economic status (SES) were not collected in the present survey, it is difficult to conclude whether unemployment and low income cause shorter trips or some deterrent factors such as limited paid vacation prevent Canadians to go longer backpacking trips.

5.1.2 Canadian Growth-seeking Backpackers

Overall, analyses of data revealed that participants were mostly growth-seeking backpackers who prefer to travel to learn new experiences and to self- improve their backpacking skills which is consistent with what Vogt hypothesized in 1976 that travelling would uncover the unknown aspects of the self for the wanderers, whereas the new environment offers a potential for personal growth. Results indicated that experiencing new things to broaden outlines of life are the priority of Canadian backpackers.

In contrast, the low Mean score of the items related to Validation-seeking showed that Canadian backpackers were not generally looking for proving their backpacking qualifications, their adequacy, or even their worth as an adventurer. It seems one part of identity image which is to affirm the nature of our selves to others in order to ensure them to have an accurate interpretation of who we are, is less important for Canadian backpackers.

The findings even at this preliminary stage may support what Haggard and Williams (1992) argued about leisure identities. These two researchers concluded that each leisure activity symbolizes identity images of the participant which may be seen as a motivation for participation in specific leisure activities, which can be justified by considering that freedom of choice in leisure situations allows us to choose what general aspects of our selves we wish to focus on as Bem argued in 1973. The idea is also supported by Uriely et al. (2002) who asserted that even though backpackers have similarity on their identity because of their form of travel, they are not homogeneous related to attitudes and motivations.

The findings are supported by Pearce and Foster (2007) who suggested backpackers improve their skills by travel experiences in comparison to a small group who tries to affirm the

nature of themselves to others through backpacking activity. Such individuals try to ensure that they have an accurate interpretation of who they are. Moreover, Iso-Ahola et al. (1989) suggested that individuals who participate in adventure activities prefer to feel good about themselves, their competence, and skills which implies an implicit search for growth.

However, further analyses based on more data are needed to find out whether growth-seeking backpackers go backpacking to learn new experiences or their main focus is on avoiding the mistakes they have already made (being inactive, lost their skills and abilities, and so forth).

5.1.3 Low Perceived Risk among Canadian Backpackers

Although the level of perceived risk was very low among participants, the study provided evidence that three destination risk perception factors were presented among Canadian backpackers; physical (possibility of bodily harm or illness), functional (possibility of mechanical or technical failure), and health (possibility of becoming sick) risk. Results are consistent with Hunter-Jones, Jeffs, and Smith's (2007) findings that revealed backpackers are most concerned in relation to health matters, particularly the risk of disease. It can be concluded safety-related concerns are the most fearing perception among Canadian backpackers, however, terrorism was not a main concern and was at the bottom of the risk list. Hunter-Jones et al. (2007), through a qualitative study, indicated that experienced travellers prefer to ignore the influence of terrorism because of its large unpredictability. However, it can be argued terrorism is quite a destination risk perception factor which can influence even the most expert travellers in an affected region. Reichel et al. (2009) also argued that risk related attitudes and behavior are related to destination choice. From another point of view, considering Canada as a safe country far from global negative events, and the high

rate of domestic backpacking activities can be considered as two main factors for a low perception of terrorism as a risk.

Other risk factors' low perception can be explainable, citing from Evert and Hollenhorst (1994) who argued highly involved adventure seekers are in control of the situation and do not expose themselves to risk and danger as well as Havitz and Dimanche (1997) who postulated that participants' perceptions of risk may decrease as perceived matching skills increase.

This study had similar findings to Roehl and Fesenmaier's (1992) that social risk factor (possibility that activity may alter others' perceptions of individual) may not be associated with risk perception in the content of pleasure travel as well as Lepp and Gibson's (2003) findings that health, war, political instability, and terrorism are considered less risky by backpackers except for the health factor which was an issue for participants of this study. Hecht and Martin's (2006) study about global and Canadian backpackers who visited GTA, indicated that "Asian and North/South Americans were more security conscious than their counterparts" (p.74). It can be hypothesized that in spite of their overall low perceived risk which is consistent with other backpackers, Canadians' concern regarding the physical danger, accommodation, and health issues may reflect their high focus on security. Further (mainly qualitative) research may contribute to establish a perceived risk scale matches with Canadian backpackers' perspectives and characteristics.

However, analyses each dimension of perceived risk with ego involvement opened another avenue for further investigation. Correlation coefficients indicated that ego involvement was negatively correlated with time, functional, personal satisfaction, and terrorism destination risk factors. Interestingly, physical and health issues were not correlated with ego involvement. Although higher backpacking involved participants were less sensitive to the side effects of these four risk factors, they definitely mattered for low-involved ones which is also consistent with

Havitz and Dimanche's (1997) conclusions who argued "risk probability scores decrease as scores on other facets escalate or vice versa (p. 270)". The only shared risk factor in both analyses was the factor of functional risk, the accommodation aspect. The findings are consistent with Hecht and Martin's (2006) suggestion to hostels to change their products, concepts, and services to match the service preferences of backpackers. It might be possible to consider Canadian backpackers in functional risk group proposed by Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992), however, more analyses are needed before definitive conclusions can be drawn.

The weak negative association between each dimension of perceived risk and growth-seeking participants and the rather moderate positive association with validation seekers also supports Dweck (1986) that growth-seekers are also challenge-seekers with high and effective persistence in difficulties along with enhanced task enjoyment contrary to validation-seekers who consider challenges as a judgement of their competence. In other words, negative consequences make validation-seekers feel that they are lacking on worth, competence, or likeability as Dykman (1998) argued.

Additionally, the study supports Roehl and Fesenmaier's (1992) findings that based on individual's personality traits, risk-taking tendencies would be different. Correlation analyses indicated that growth-seeking backpackers had lower level of perceived risk, while their peers with high level of validation-seeking goals revealed higher level of perceived risk.

5.1.4 General Perceived Competence/ Specific Perceived competence

In relation to perceived competence, results indicated that general perceived competence and specific perceived competence were different among participants, which was consistent with Iso-

Ahola et al.'s (1989) argument that general perceived competence and specific perceived competence do not necessarily relate to each other. In other words, the function of accumulative experiences over the years (general perceived competence) is not influenced by one specific experience, therefore, active recreationists and non-active ones may not differ in their general perceived competence (Iso-Ahola et al., 1989). Results were also consistent with Bandura's (1982) theory of self-efficacy according to which people's judgements of their capabilities affect motivation and behavior as cited in Iso-Ahola et al. (1989,p.37).

Studying both aspects of perceived competence revealed the following findings. According to achievement goal orientation literature, validation-seeking individuals focus on the demonstration of competence relative to others, whereas growth seekers focus on the development of competence. Results of this study revealed that although both general and specific aspects of perceived competence are more or less with the same importance among growth-seeking backpackers, only general perceived competence influence on the association between being a growth-seeking backpacker with high level of ego involvement.

On the other hand, the level of specific perceived competence was much higher than general perceived competence among validation-seeking backpackers. In other words, validation-seeking individuals do not focus on their general perceived competence so much.

According to Dweck and Bempechat (1983), validation-seeking individuals with high perceived competence try to demonstrate their competence relative to others, whereas validation seekers with lower perceived competence try to hide their lack of competence relative to others. Findings of this study indicated that participants with the tendency to be more validation seekers presented negative association with both specific and general perceived competence. The low level of perceived competence among validation-seeking backpackers may reveal the reason why they

enjoy backpacking activities less than others. Looking back at the results (see section 4.6.5) indicates that the facet of "Attraction" was the second least important facet among low backpacking-involved participants and identity expression was their main concern.

On the other hand, the high perceived competence (both general and specific aspect) among growth-seeking backpackers can be justified by what Priest and Carpenter (1993) argued. They proposed that active engagement in an adventure gives participants opportunities to influence outcomes and resolve uncertainty based on his or her personal competence. In other words, learning from experiences is not possible unless engaging in an activity to benefit from the consequences of the action. As a result, although a successful recent activity increase the level of specific perceived competence and self-esteem as Iso-Ahola et al. (1989) argued, it is general perceived competence which enhance ego involvement among recreationists.

An interesting finding relates to the level of perceived risk and specific perceived competence which are exactly balanced and their values are matched among growth-seeking participants. It can be hypothesised that it is specific perceived competence, not general perceived competence which is negatively correlated with perceived risk to make flow. The theory of negative correlation between perceived risk and perceived competence was first proposed by Carpenter and Priest (1989). Later, these two researchers in 1993 implicitly pointed to the notion of specific perceived competence when they argued that participants in an adventure activity re-assess situational risks based on recent experiences.

5.1.5 Basic Travel Motivations among Canadian Backpackers

Descriptive analyses among basic travel motivations also indicated that knowledge-seeking factor (experience different things to broaden outlines of life), and relaxation factor (vacation is without purpose rather than rest and relax or getting away from pressures and responsibilities) are the most important factor of basic travel motivations among participants, which is consistent with recent findings of Paris and Teye (2010). They argued that cultural knowledge and relaxation are two factors that showed no significant difference in relation to previous travel experience and can be considered as the core of backpackers' motivations.

On the other hand, value expressive, sociability, and loyalty to the destination indicated that they are dynamic throughout a backpacker's travel career which is consistent with what Pearce and Lee (2005) claimed. By increasing an individual's travel experience, his or her motivation to travel would also change. The study done by Bello and Etzel (1985) suggested that tourists seeking for novelty rarely return to the same destination may justify the low mean score of loyalty to the destination among the other factors.

Deeper analyses indicated that experience seeking and relaxation seeking were correlated with growth-seeking goals and value-expressive, sociability, and loyalty to the same destination were correlated with validation-seeking goals, suggesting that growth-seeking backpackers are mainly going backpacking to escape from the daily routine toward some well-defined goal or state to broaden outlines of their life or just rest and relax which is similar to the anomie concept described by Dann (1977) as Fodness (1994) argued. In contrast, validation-seeking backpackers are looking for symbolism and self-expression. They express their satisfaction by expressing attitudes appropriate to their personal values which is what Dann argued as ego-enhancement

(Fodness, 1994). Moreover, being entertained and having fun are the reasons validation-seeking backpackers are searching for rather than opportunities for learning.

From another point of view, the findings contradict with Chen et al.'s (2014) results. Although they argued there was not a big difference between Eastern backpackers' motivations with their Western counterparts', the priority of motivations does matter according to this study. While social interaction drives Chinese backpackers' travels, for Canadians sociability is not among the main factors of backpacking. Results also revealed that even the facet of social bonding was the second lowest scoring facet of ego involvement among respondents. It seems Canadian backpackers with the tendency to travel with an acquaintance neither are looking for social activities like their Chinese counterparts (Chen et al., 2014) nor tending to stay away from other Canadian peers as European backpackers do (Hottola, 1999; Loker-Murphy, 1996). In other words, Canadians do not consider backpacking as a means of social networking which may confirm the idea that backpacking motivations might be under the influence of nationality and cultures as some researchers (Maoz, 2001; Noy & Cohen, 2005; Ryan & Mohsin, 2001) argued. Overall, the findings may reinforce the notion that backpacking is, for many, a means to an end rather than an end in itself.

5.1.6 Hypothesis 1 (backpackers with a concern of validating their competence would show less adaptive patterns of ego involvement in comparison to their growth-seeking peers)

The moderately positive association between growth-seeking goals and ego involvement as a whole variable indicated that backpackers with higher level of mastery experiences and perceived sense of accomplishments had higher level of backpacking involvement in contrast to validation-

seeking ones who reported lack of association with ego involvement. The association between growth-seeking goals and ego involvement accords with Elliot and Harackiewicz's (1994) findings that growth-seeking goals represent a motivational process through which individuals can become more involved in an activity.

Results have also consistency with Priest and Carpenter (1993) who proposed variety of reasons cause engagement in adventure activities. If individuals are motivated by intrinsic reasons of joy, happiness, self-development and freedom of choice, their participation will continue. The findings also follow suit with Jackson and Robert's (1992) study which revealed that validation-seeking goals are either inversely related or unrelated to intrinsic interest, satisfaction, or enjoyment. Harackiewicz et al. (2002) also identified that validation-seeking goals are associated with lower interest or enjoyment. Therefore, considering basic characteristics of ego involvement discussed in chapter 2 (see section 2.3.1) and researchers' arguments, lack of correlation between ego involvement and validation-seeking goals may be justified.

Additionally, to be consistent with Havitz and Dimanche (1997) who argued it is better to assess involvement not as a single score, but in terms of involvements because combinations of high and low involvement on various facets provide much richer information, the association of both growth-seeking and validation-seeking goals with all five facets of ego involvement were also analyzed.

Association of each facet of ego involvement with achievement goal orientations indicated that validation-seeking goals has some, although weak, positive correlations with facets of Centrality and Identity Expression. According to Selin and Howard (1988), some individuals use their participation in a leisure activity as a vehicle for expressing their self-image. The importance of identity expression among validation-seeking backpackers may indicate that they might try to

symbolize to others that they are adventurous, fun loving, and a nature lover (Haggard & Williams, 1992) to receive favorable judgements of their competence. Membership in a group with a known stand (all participants of this study were members of outdoor activity groups) may justify the association of validation-seeking with the facet of Centrality, considering the definition which refers to the degree in which an individual organizes other dimensions of his/her life around an activity (Kyle et al., 2007).

On the other hand, the rather high positive correlations between growth-seeking goals and all five facets of ego involvement, indicate that backpacking activities may help growth-seeking backpackers to maintain a sense of self-consistency and positive regard toward themselves as was argued by Haggard and Williams (1992).

Results show internally driven facets of Attraction and Identity Affirmation are more salient to Canadian backpackers than the externally driven facets of Identity Expression and Social Bonding. In addition Centrality, included both as an internal and external facet, appears to be the least important facet of involvement among backpackers. The high level of identity affirmation among participants confirm the existence and importance of backpackers' personal development postulated by previous research (Pearce, 2011; Pearce & Foster, 2007).

Considering contemporary backpackers and the changes in their age profile and duration of trip (Westerhausen, 2002) as well as their changing goals (Welk, 2004), the low level of Centrality among participants may be supported by Maoz (2007) who suggested that estrangement from one's home society is supposedly a less central theme to most modern backpackers. Moreover, most backpackers prefer to re-engage with the familiar life style they had (Sørensen, 2003; Westerhausen, 2002). Furthermore, for many backpackers the activity is just a sort of travelling in the literal meaning and "it is not supposed to serve any goals beyond travelling itself"

as Welk (2004, p.90) argued. From another point of view, the low score of Centrality among highly involved backpackers may be justified by what Havitz and Mannell (2005) proposed. According to these two researchers, highly involved people are not necessarily active participants because of some routine constraints of life such as: a new baby, a new job, or even a new residential neighborhood, however, regarding active participants of this study (nearly half of them went backpacking in 2014-2015) this hypothesis is rather weak to be accepted. From Gunn's (1979) point of view, it can also be argued that respondents might see backpacking as a utilitarian activity rather than hedonic in nature, therefore, they have lower level of Centrality scores. As well, centrality and social bonding are often somewhat related (McIntyre & Pigram, 1992) and if social bonding scores are low, it may be concluded that Centrality scores would be low, too.

Although participants prefer to go backpacking with a person they know, they do not consider this activity as a means of social networking. According to Pearce and Foster (2007) travel for social aspects is not an important motive for travellers who focus on self-development. It may be one of the reasons why the level of Social Bonding was so low among participants with high level of growth-seeking goals. Paris's (2010) new point of view also indicated that recent innovations in communication technology, specifically online social communities, added a virtual component to backpackers' behavior, too. Therefore it can be suggested that virtual communications are more favorable than authentic traditional relationships and friendships even during a trip.

A holistic look at results reveals that the level of ego involvement among Canadian backpackers is, although an above average score relative to the response set provided, not as high as anticipated regarding the popularity of this activity among Canadians. However, the findings are consistent with Akatay et al.'s (2013) study of European backpackers who visited Istanbul, in

which participants did not show a high level of ego involvement, either. The researchers argued that it may relate to the fact that participants were mostly at the beginning of backpacking travel career, considering Turkey as a close destination for European backpackers. The reason can be extended to their counterparts in Canada who prefer domestic backpacking more. However, it can be remained as a hypothesis for further research that the farther the backpacking destination is, the higher the level of ego involvement will be.

Results can also be interpreted from Gunn's (1979) point of view that backpacking might be a secondary attitude object to more desirable aspects of the trip (e.g. visiting attractions, participating in outdoor recreation activities, etc.). In other words, backpacking may be seen as more related to the transportation and accommodation components as Gunn argued.

Overall, dividing participants to three groups based on their level of ego involvement indicated that one third of participants were highly involved in backpacking which is consistent with Wellman et al. (1982) who argued that "there are one or small groups of highly committed and expert people who tend to set the standards for attitudes and behavior in an activity (p.325)". In conclusion, it seems that those Canadian backpackers who were surveyed are predominantly "short-term backpackers" as Sørensen (2003) identified rather than Cohen's (2011) "life style backpackers".

5.1.7 Hypothesis 2. Under the influence of high perceived competence and low perceived risk, growth-seeking goals will enhance ego involvement among backpackers

Before analysing data, it was proposed perceived competence and perceived risk (negatively correlated) may influence the association between achievement goal orientations and ego

involvement. However, scrutinizing the results indicated that it was general aspect of perceived competence which influence growth-seeking goals to enhance ego involvement. Moreover, perceived risk, either high or low, does not have any influence on it. This study can contribute to Celsi and Olson's (1988) findings that when personally relevant knowledge is activated in memory, the motivational foundations of ego involvement arise. The results of this study indicated it might be the activation of general perceived competence which will enhance ego involvement.

Additionally, the positive association found between growth-seeking goals and each facet of ego involvement is partially (and fully for the facet of Centrality) explained by general perceived competence (a function of accumulative experiences over the years); the operationalization of perceived competence. This finding helps to link research and theory from achievement goal orientation studies (Dweck & Elliott, 1983) on the role of growth-seeking goals in ego involvement with adventure tourism theories (Carpenter & Priest, 1989; Priest, 1992) on perceived competence (Iso-Ahola et al., 1989) that shows general perceived competence to be an important contributor to ego involvement. Specifically, the results from the mediation analyses suggest that growth-seeking goals enhances ego involvement and all the five facets individually, in part (except for Centrality), because of an enhanced general perceived competence.

Results indicated that before adding mediators of general perceived competence and knowledge-seeking factor there was no significant association between growth-seeking goals and the facet of centrality. Considering what already mentioned about the probable reasons of low level of centrality among backpackers, it can be concluded that learning from experiences motivates growth-seekers to engage more in an activity (Priest & Carpenter, 1993). Therefore, they exert more effort, persist longer, and in general are more intrinsically motivated to continue to

participate. It can be argued that more engaged participants in an activity may more organize other dimensions of their lives around that activity.

The study is consistent with what Iso-Ahola and his colleagues proposed 26 years ago, that both "general" and "specific" aspects of perceived competence should be considered to have authentic results, however, it has unfortunately been ignored in most related studies.

5.1.8 Hypothesis 3. Under the influence of core motivations growth-seeking goals will enhance ego involvement among backpackers

The findings indicated that higher level of growth-seeking goals found among Canadian backpackers with higher level of ego involvement may be the result of some internal psychological factors. Specifically, growth-seeking backpackers were more ego involved and this was partially explained by both their higher levels of general perceived competence as well as their knowledge-seeking motive (seeking for new experiences). However, relaxation seeking was not a significant mediator, which might be justified as Richard and Wilson (2004a) argued that backpackers who emphasize experience seeking backpackers are less concerned about relaxation.

The positive association found between growth-seeking goals and ego involvement was partially explained by knowledge-seeking factor. Despite revealing the same result for each facet of ego involvement individually, Identity Affirmation was an exception. Findings indicated that the association of growth-seeking goals and Identity affirmation was under the partial influence of general perceived competence and relaxation factor. Specifically, the results from the mediation analyses suggest that growth-seeking goals enhance Identity Affirmation, in part, because of enhanced general perceived competence and relaxation factor.

Based on Kyle et al.'s (2007) definitions, Identity Affirmation indicates the degree to which leisure provided opportunities to affirm the self to the self. Similarly, Fodness (1994) argued that relaxation factor is a way when a tourist escapes from the routine life to fulfill some basic needs to find himself/herself. The results of the current analysis are also congruent with Pearce and Foster's (2007) findings that backpackers who focus on self-development tend more to travel for escape and excitement.

Results also indicated that mediators of general perceived competence, knowledge-seeking, and relaxation factors were not statistically different from each other due to a weak positive correlation among them. The overlapping of general perceived competence and knowledge-seeking factor is supported by Ewert and Hollenhorst (1989) who argued developing perceived competence through adventure activities leads to the development of experience and knowledge, and the reason why there is a significant correlation between relaxation factor and knowledge-seeking factor may be explained based on the knowledge function of leisure travel argued by Fodness (1994) who considered the negative and positive poles for the dimension of escaping from everyday life. He argued the positive pole as an escape from the daily routine to achieve a better understanding of current events while searching for knowledge, organization, and consistency in the world. On the other hand, the negative pole express a more undirected form of escapism without any specific purpose rather than relaxation.

It should also be noted that backpackers' involvement profiles were not significantly related to personal variables of age, education, and gender which is consistent to previous research suggesting ego involvement was rarely related to sociodemographic characters (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999; Havitz et al., 2013).

5.2 Conclusion

This study represents one of the first attempts to integrate achievement goal orientation, perceived competence, and ego involvement, all of which have heretofore been found to be influential in shaping leisure participation and participants' behavior. The purpose of this study was threefold. First, the study aimed to identify the relationship between achievement goal orientation and ego involvement. To this end, within the correlation coefficients, the study found growth-seeking goals were positively associated with ego involvement and all its five facets as well.

Second, and more important, the study was intended to reveal the psychological factors influence this association. The study succeeded, within some series of linear regression, in identifying that general perceived competence along with knowledge-seeking factor contribute to the association of growth-seeking goals and ego involvement a whole and each four facets of Attraction, Centrality, Social Bonding, and Identity Expression. However, it was the influence of relaxation factor and general perceived competence which mediated growth-seeking goals enhances Identity Affirmation. Third, the study was interested in seeing which mediator variable was more effective. However, results indicated that general perceived competence and knowledge-seeking factor were not significantly different from each other, neither general perceived competence and relaxation factor, highlighting the benefit of testing multiple mediators simultaneously. Findings reported in this empirical study includes both theoretical and practical values.

5.2.1 Theoretical Implications:

First, as little empirical research has been conducted on Canadian backpackers' characteristics, including attitudes and behaviors, this study opens a research avenue toward a better understanding of Canadian backpackers' profile and their backpacking expectations. Moreover, as an initial attempt of considering ego involvement as an outcome, the study revealed that ego involvement is also stimulated with other psychological factors to enhance travellers' behavior and eventually their decision making. Therefore, to have a broaden knowledge about tourist behaviors, it is necessary to identify what psychological or even sociological factors influence travellers to be involved in a touristic activity or a destination which later might be the foundations of their decision making.

Second, achievement goal orientation which has been broadly studied in competitive sports, was only sporadically and implicitly mentioned in tourism and non-competitive activities. By adding and measuring achievement goal orientation to this study, it will hopefully contribute to outdoor activity growing body of literature specifically. The study revealed that predicting what type of achievement goals travellers pursue may help to interpret their behavior in a destination or an activity. Moreover, this study showed a new pathway to focus on the dimensions of growth-seeking goals in non-competitive activities in contrary to sports and other competitive activities which focus mainly on dimensions of validation-seeking goals.

Third, perceived competence analyses demonstrated that general and specific aspects of perceived competence should be studied separately to find authentic results. Although Iso-Ahola et al.'s (1988) study identified that specific perceived competence may enhance self-esteem, results indicated that specific perceived competence has no effect on the level of ego involvement

and it is general perceived competence which fluctuate ego involvement among backpackers. This finding can contribute to the literature to understand the effect of perceived competence more.

Additionally, results revealed that although both aspects of perceived competence are negatively correlated with perceived risk, it is specific perceived competence which is matched with perceived risk to create flow, the potential to enhance self-esteem as well as promoting further participation in an activity as Stein, Kimiecik, Daniels, and Jackson (1995) suggested. Havitz and Mannell (2005) argued that ego involvement and flow are partially mediated by situational involvement. Therefore, it can be argued that both aspects of perceived competence are equally important to stimulate participants to be more leisurely active.

Furthermore, results of this study indicated that there is a weak negative correlation between perceived risk and ego involvement which may justify the more a backpacker involves in backpacking, the less his or her level of perceived risk might be. However, the association was not so strong to be considered as a mediator to increase ego involvement among backpackers. It can be hypothesised that neither all backpackers with low perceived risk are highly ego involved in backpacking, nor all highly involved backpackers have low perceived risk.

Moreover, the different concerns between growth-seeking backpackers and their validation-seeking peers regarding different aspects of identity may present that people's cognitions related to their identities are not largely subconscious as Kyle et al. (2007) suggested. It can be argued that some internal (maybe subconscious) psychological factors such as achievement goal orientations might influence on the way individuals prefer to express whether the internal or external part of their identity is more important to them.

Some other interesting findings were also drawn from this study. There is little research related to perceived risk among Canadian adventure tourists, specifically backpackers. Results revealed that despite the low level of perceived risk among participants, the three concerning destination risk factors for Canadian backpackers are physical, functional, and health risk, however, functional risk is the factor which is negatively correlated with ego involvement. To encourage backpackers to get more involved in the activity or a destination, it is suggested to eliminate functional risk factors, specifically accommodation problem issues.

5.2.2 Practical Implications

In terms of practical values, the findings reported in this study have valuable implications for both destination marketing practices and individuals seeking personal growth through backpacking travel.

Although perceived risk was not a mediator as expected in this study, it was useful to investigate Canadians' fears associate with backpacking trips as basis for strategic and operational marketing to gain insight into the precise risks today's Canadian backpackers perceive.

Destination marketing organizations (DMOs) and hostels for backpackers could use the findings to better understand the backpacker market by improving their operational strategies and services according to backpackers' needs and service preferences. Results indicated that limited facilities in the accommodation sector may discourage backpackers more than any other inconveniences to return to the same destination. Canada tourism industry can take advantage of the low perceived risk of Canadians, which is the reason of high level of social safety and being far from the global negative events. By enhancing backpackers' hostels and providing a range of

financial incentives and discounts related to ecotourism, cultural tourism, and adventure tourism, which are backpackers' favorites, tourism industry can encourage Canadians to go backpacking around Canada to benefit from their home culture as well as flourishing tourism industry in their own country rather than spending currency in other destinations like Mexico. Moreover, Canada backpacking destinations can also be promoted to attract more international backpackers specially from the U.S. Stronger U.S dollar in comparison to Canada's will be a good motivation for Americans to spend their money in Canada if DMOs invest on promoting Canada as an excellent opportunity for backpacking destinations.

With respect to backpackers, this study revealed that the more backpackers involve in backpacking activities, the more they can enhance their personality traits origin in growth-seeking goal orientation which can help them to self-improve and reach their fullest potential. Although difficult and challenging situations may decrease their level of self-esteem, it provides them to acquire more skills for a better performance at some later time which can help them to augment their level of well beings. Moreover, considering Haggard and Williams (1992) who argued that although freedom of choice in leisure activities may not free individuals from self-evaluation, it gives them the opportunity to select what general aspects of themselves they wish to focus on at any given time, as well as Midgley et al. (2001) who suggested there might be some interactions between validation-seeking and growth-seeking goals, may open an avenue to hypothesize that individuals with high level of validation-seeking personality traits in their routine life may change to a growth seeker when involved in a non-competitive outdoor activity. If the hypothesis was accepted, ego involvement can be used as a psychologically valuable trait to reduce depression and enhance wellbeing of participants. A possible connection might be made between the present research and attachment theory (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991; Parke & Bretherthon, 1992). This

might be useful to see how other involvements and attachments beyond family relationships can improve personality traits. Those connections cannot be made on the basis of the present data, however, and are left for future research.

5.3 Limitations and Directions for Future Research

This study was the first attempt to analyse Canadian backpackers from the psychological perspective. There was no other findings related to the same segment in Canada, therefore, all the comparisons were done based on other global studies, it is cautioned that results interpretation may be affected by other cultures. Second, positive risks or as Zuckerman (2007) called them "sensation seeking" was ignored in the study due to preventing from a long questionnaire. Additionally, there were some limitation regarding the scales used in this study. Although Sönmez and Graefe's (1998b) scale was a short in comparison to Fuchs and Reichel's (2004) 32-item scale, it was skewed towards international travels and some aspects related to natural disasters, weather, wildlife, and condition of roads were ignored. Evolving a clear concept related to Canadian destination perceived risk needs clarification of these issues, too. Moreover, the instrument used to measure general perceived competence was so limited. In spite of good reliability and validity, Iso-Ahola et al.'s (1988) scale was limited to only four questions related to general perceived competence, two of which were quite irrelevant to the scope of backpacking. Finally, it was the first time that Goal Orientation Inventory scale was used in a non-competitive leisure study. Although 12 highly factor-loaded items out of the 36 items were selected, it might be some overlapping items or missing aspects of personality ignored in this study. Fellow researchers are therefore encouraged to modify the scales to see if the results are still consistent. In addition, it is interesting to see if achievement goal orientation is correlated with flow, considering it as an important concept because of giving theoretical manoeuvre for enjoyment in experience (Johnston,

1989) and its association with ego involvement (Havitz & Mannell, 2005),. Moreover, because risk perceptions are strongly associated with tourists' destination choice (Fuchs & Reichel, 2004, 2006; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b), it is suggested to investigate profiles of Canadian backpackers who go backpacking in Middle East or East of Africa to see if their risk perception is still low and limited to three factors of physical, functional, and health risks or heterogeneity of backpackers, argued by Reichel et al. (2007) would be applied to this segment, too. Furthermore, based on Elliot and McGregor's (2001) suggestion to partition growth-seeking goals to approach and avoidance orientations, it will be intriguing to test whether growth-seeking backpackers are looking to learn new things from backpacking or focusing more on avoiding the mistakes they have already made (being inactive, lost their skills and abilities, and so forth). Finally, since individuals differ not only in the level of involvement, but in types of involvement (Houston & Rothschild, 1977), and enduring involvement with an activity cannot remain totally unchanged throughout an individuals' entire life span (Havitz & Dimanche, 1990), and more importantly, based on Belk (1981) an individual with a low enduring level of involvement with an activity, may heighten his or her level of involvement in a specific situation substantially, it is suggested to repeat the study considering situational involvement as an mediator to see how it may enhance ego involvement among participants.

Although backpacking may consider as an educational experience, this experience will have an important influence on the destinations backpackers choose to visit later. Therefore all the psychological factors discussed may implicitly effect on their decision making to choose a destination again as a mass tourist possibly with their family in later life.

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Canadians' Backpacking Involvement Study

- Tourism policy & planning
- University of Waterloo, ON
- December, 2014

Dear Participants:

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by **Narges Abdeahad**, under the supervision of **Dr. Mark Havitz, Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies of the University of Waterloo, Canada.** The objectives of the research study are analyzing how validation-seeking and growth-seeking goal influence the level of ego involvement among Canadian backpackers as well as exploring if perceived risk and perceived competence have any effect on changing the level of ego involvement among Canadian backpackers or not. The study is for a Master's Thesis.

If you decide to volunteer, you will be asked to complete a **20-minute online survey** that is completed anonymously, that is you are not asked for your name or any identifying information. Survey questions focus on your backpacking experiences and skills, important things for you while backpacking, your risk perception while backpacking, your backpacking involvement, and some general information such as your age, education, gender, and the

province you live in. Participation in this study is voluntary. You may decline to answer any questions that you do not wish to answer by leaving them blank and you can withdraw your participation at any time by not submitting your responses. There are no known or anticipated risks from participating in this study.

In appreciation of the time you have given to this study, you can enter your email address into a draw for one of 12 prizes. The prizes include twelve $4.5 Ultimate Survival Technologies Blankets. Your odds of winning one of the prizes is based on the number of individuals who participate in the study. We expect that approximately 200 individuals will take part in the study. Information collected to draw for the prizes will not be linked to the study data in any way and this identifying information will be stored separately, then destroyed after prizes have been provided.

It is important for you to know that any information that you provide will be confidential. All of the data will be summarized and no individual could be identified from these summarized results. Furthermore, the web site is programmed to collect responses alone and will not collect any information that could potentially identify you (such as machine identifiers).

This survey uses eSurv which is a British Company and all user data is stored on servers located in the Europe and Canada. If you prefer not to submit your data through eSurv, please contact the researcher, **Narges Abdeahad, nabdeaha@uwaterloo.ca**, so you can participate using an alternative method (such as through an email or paper-based questionnaire). The alternate method may decrease anonymity but confidentiality will be maintained.

The data, with no personal identifiers, collected from this study will be maintained on a password-protected computer database in a restricted access area of the university. As well, the data will be electronically archived after completion of the study and maintained for two years and then erased.

Thank you for considering participation in this backpacking study. Your feedback is extremely valuable. If you are interested in the results of this survey, they will be sent to you by email (your email address should be indicated in the survey) by the end of the year, 2015.

I would like to assure you that this study has been reviewed and received ethics clearance through a University of Waterloo Research Ethics Committee. However, the final decision about participation is yours. If you have any comments or concerns resulting from your participation in this study, please feel free to contact Dr. Maureen Nummelin in the Office of Research Ethics at 1-519-888-4567, Ext. 36005 or maureen.nummelin@uwaterloo.ca.

My Regards,
Narges Abdeahad
Master student
Tourism Policy & Planning
Department of Recreation & Leisure Studies
University of Waterloo

a) Do you have backpacking experience?   Yes   [ ]   No   [ ]

b) What is your status in Canada?

Canadian citizen   [ ]   Permanent resident lived in Canada over 3 years   [ ]
Other   [ ]

<h1>Part I.   Your backpacking experiences and skills</h1>

Below are some questions related to your backpacking experiences for comparative and classification purposes only. Your responses to these statements are confidential and you do not need to give your name. Please answer or indicate which one describe you most.

1) Please estimate how many backpacking trips have you taken (life time)? ....

2) What kind of backpacking have you tried?   Domestic   [ ]   International   [ ]
Both   [ ]

3) Who do you often go backpacking with? (Just one answer)

Alone   [ ]   Friends   [ ]   Parent(s)   [ ]

Sibling(s)   [ ]   Spouse/Partner   [ ]   Relatives   [ ]

4) How long do you usually spend on one backpacking trip?

Less than a week   [ ]   1-2 weeks   [ ]

Over 2 weeks, but less than a month   [ ]   1-3 months   [ ]

Over 3 months to 6 months   [ ]   over 6 months and more   [ ]

5) In what year was your last backpacking trip? (Just a year)…………………………

6) How do you rate yourself as a backpacker?

Beginner [ ]   Intermediate [ ]   Advanced [ ]   Expert [ ]

7) How do you rate your backpacking skills? (How much do you know about itineraries, maps, necessary equipment…?)

Poor [ ]   Average [ ]   Good [ ]   Very good [ ]

How did you feel in your last backpacking experience? Please rate your agreement or disagreement by making a circle around the appropriate number (where 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree)

8) I feel I was satisfied with my backpacking experience.	1	2	3	4	5
9) My last backpacking experience didn't go as well as I expected to.	1	2	3	4	5
10) My last backpacking experience was done with the same skills of the previous ones.	1	2	3	4	5
11) I was disappointed with my last backpacking.	1	2	3	4	5
12) My last backpacking experience was a waste of time.	1	2	3	4	5

Part II.   Your participation in backpacking

While backpacking, different things are important to different people. Below are a number of statements with which you might agree or disagree with. For each item, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by making a circle around the appropriate number. (Where 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree).

13) I look at difficulties (being lost, unfriendly local people…) as an opportunity to learn and grow.	1	2	3	4	5

14) I'm constantly trying to prove that I am as competent as other backpackers around me.	1	2	3	4	5
15) I feel like I'm always testing out whether or not I have the necessary backpacking qualifications as other backpackers.	1	2	3	4	5
16) When I approach an unknown trail, I'm less concerned with the possibility of being lost or encountering unfriendly strangers than with how I can learn from the experience.	1	2	3	4	5
17) One of the main things I'm striving for is to prove that I'm really a good backpacker.	1	2	3	4	5
18) My attitude toward possible challenges during backpacking is that such experiences will turn out to be opportunities to self-improve my backpacking skills.	1	2	3	4	5
19) The attitude I take toward possible challenges during backpacking is that they'll end up being good learning experiences.	1	2	3	4	5
20) It seems like I'm constantly trying to prove my basic worth as a backpacker.	1	2	3	4	5
21) I prefer to face challenges during backpacking rather than sitting back at home and never trying this activity.	1	2	3	4	5
22) I interact with other backpackers just to test whether or not I'm a likeable person.	1	2	3	4	5
23) I do backpacking just to prove my basic adequacy as an adventurer.	1	2	3	4	5
24) As long as I learn necessary backpacking skills, I can accept all the	1	2	3	4	5

challenges and difficulties during backpacking.					

Please think about a backpacking experience you are going to in future and your perception of the likelihood that the following risks may occur. Please circle a number, where 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree

25) The quality of accommodations are below the expectations.	1	2	3	4	5
26) The attractions are not what I expected.	1	2	3	4	5
27) Backpacking experience will not provide value for money spent.	1	2	3	4	5
28) Becoming sick while backpacking.	1	2	3	4	5
29) Physical danger or injury (broken leg, insect biting…)	1	2	3	4	5
30) Becoming involved in the political turmoil of a country while backpacking.	1	2	3	4	5
31) Backpacking experience will NOT reflect your personality.	1	2	3	4	5
32) Backpacking experience will NOT provide personal satisfaction.	1	2	3	4	5
33) Backpacking experience will affect others' opinions of you (others don't approve your vacation choice).	1	2	3	4	5
34) Being involved in a terrorism act while backpacking.	1	2	3	4	5
35) Backpacking experience will take too much time or will waste time.	1	2	3	4	5

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Please think about your level of commitment, loyalty, and attachment to backpacking. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements by making a circle around the appropriate number (where 1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree).

36) Backpacking is one of the most enjoyable thing I do.	1	2	3	4	5
37) I find a lot of my life is organized around backpacking.	1	2	3	4	5
38) I enjoy discussing backpacking with my friends.	1	2	3	4	5
39) When I participate in backpacking, I can really be myself.	1	2	3	4	5
40) You can tell a lot about a person by seeing them backpacking.	1	2	3	4	5
41) Backpacking is very important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
42) Backpacking occupies a central role in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
43) Most of my friends are in some way connected with backpacking.	1	2	3	4	5
44) I identify with the people and image associated with backpacking.	1	2	3	4	5
45) Participating in backpacking says a lot about whom I am.	1	2	3	4	5
46) Backpacking is one of the most satisfying thins I do.	1	2	3	4	5
47) To change my preference from backpacking to another recreation activity would require major rethinking.	1	2	3	4	5
48) Participating in backpacking provides me with an opportunity to be with friends.	1	2	3	4	5

49) When I'm backpacking, I don't have to be concerned with the way I look.	1	2	3	4	5
50) When I participate in backpacking, others see me the way I want them to see me.	1	2	3	4	5

Part V.   Your backpacking reasons

Please think about your attitudes and motivations toward backpacking and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by the following statements by choosing the appropriate number, where 1=Strongly disagree and 5= Strongly agree.

51) I guess I'm just always looking for increasing my knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5
52) To be in a calm atmosphere like nature is my idea of a perfect backpacking experience.	1	2	3	4	5
53) Going backpacking with someone is always more fun than going alone.	1	2	3	4	5
54) When I get home from a backpacking trip, I tell everybody about it.	1	2	3	4	5
55) For me backpacking is always a new adventure. I never go to the same place twice.	1	2	3	4	5

The following questions are for classification purposes only. All information provided will be kept strictly confidential. Remember that your name is not associated with your response.

56) What is your age? ……………..

57) What is the level of your education?

Did not complete high school   [   ]   High school diploma   [   ]

Undergraduate student [   ]   Obtained Bachelor's or college certificate   [   ]

Graduate student   [   ]   Obtained MA/MSc or PhD degree   [   ]

58) Are you   male   [   ]   female   [   ]   other   [   ]

59) What province or territory of Canada do you live? ………………….

60) If you are interested in entering into the draw, please indicate your e-mail address here.

……………………………………….

61) If you would like a copy of the results of this survey, please indicate your e-mail address here.

…………………………………………….

62) How did you get the survey?

University of Waterloo Outer Club   The KW Backcountry Travel Meetup

Free and Easy Traveler Backpacking Agency   The Researcher directly

A friend or another acquaintance   Other sources (please specify)……..

Thank you for participating in this backpacking study

GOAL ORIENTATION INVENTORY (GOI) SCALE

Dykman (1998) constructed GOI to reflect validation-seeking and growth-seeking goals. The selected items used in this study were highlighted. It should also be added that only primary factor loadings were included here. Parenthetically, all secondary factor loadings are $\leq .11$.

Factor 1: Validation-Seeking	**factor loading**
1. Instead of just enjoying activities and social interactions, most situations to me feel like a major test of my basic worth, competence, or likeability.	.79
4. Relative to other people, I tend to approach stressful situations as if my basic self-worth, competence, or likeability was "at stake."	.83
6. Whether it be in sports, social interactions, or job/school activities, I feel like I'm still trying to prove that I'm a worthwhile, competent, or likeable person.	.85
7. My interactions with people often feel like a test of whether or not I'm a likeable person.	.82
9. I feel like I'm constantly trying to prove that I'm as competent as the people around me.	.90
12. My approach to situations is one of always needing to prove my basic worth, competence, or likeability.	.88
15. One of the main things I know I'm striving for is to prove that I'm really "good enough."	.83
16. How well I perform in social and achievement situations is a direct measure of my basic self-worth, competence, or likeability as a person.	.78
18. I feel as though my basic worth, competence, and likeability are "on the line" in many situations I find myself in.	.77
21. It seems like I'm constantly trying to prove that I'm "okay" as a person.	.76
22. So much of what I do feels to me like a major test of my basic worth, competence, and likeability as a person.	.90
24. I feel like my worth, competence, and likeability are things I'm constantly struggling to prove to myself and others.	.88
26. Relative to other people, there are a lot of things I do just to prove my basic adequacy as a person.	.82
29. Whereas other people see themselves as competent in the things they do, that's something I'm still trying to prove to myself.	.75
30. I feel like I'm always testing out whether or not I really "measure up."	.90
32. In many things I do, I'm trying to find out whether or not I'm a competent, worthy, or likeable person.	.87
34. I tend to view difficult or stressful situations as all-or-none tests of my basic worth as a person.	.66
36. My main motive for doing many of the things I do is to prove my basic self-worth, competence, or likeability.	.67

Factor 2; Growth-Seeking **factor loading**

2. I look upon potential problems in life as opportunities for growth rather than as threats .68
    to my self-esteem.

3. I have a knack for viewing difficult or stressful situations as opportunities to learn and grow. .75

5. Personal growth is more important to me than protecting myself from my fears. .72

8. When I'm faced with a difficult or stressful life situation, I'm likely to view it as an opportunity .86
    to learn and grow.

10. When I approach new or difficult situations, I'm less concerned with the possibility of failure .83
    than with how I can grow from the experience.

11. I look upon possible setbacks and rejection as part of life since I know that such experiences .69
    will help me grow as a person in the long run.

13. I'm the type who is willing to risk the possibility of failure or rejection in order to reach my .62
    fullest potential as a person.

14. My attitude toward possible failure or rejection is that such experiences will turn out to be .86
    opportunities for growth and self-improvement.

17. In situations that could end in failure or rejection, it's natural for me to focus on how I can grow .86
    or what I can learn from the experience.

19. The attitude I take toward possible setbacks and disappointments is that they'll end up .86
    being good learning experiences.

20. As I see it, the rewards of personal growth and learning something new outweigh the .74
    disappointment of failure or rejection.

23. My natural tendency is to view problem situations as providing opportunities for growth .84
    and self-improvement.

25. I approach difficult life situations welcoming the opportunity to learn from my mistakes. .80

27. My approach to challenging life situations is that I'd rather make a mistake and learn from .64
    the experience than sit back and never try.

28. I approach stressful situations knowing that the important thing is for me to learn and grow .86
    from these experiences.

31. I look upon potential disappointments in life as opportunities to improve and grow as a person. .86

33. I approach difficult life situations knowing that I can accept failure or rejection as long as I .83
    learn and grow from the experience.

35. Realizing my fullest potential in life is more important to me than protecting myself from the .74
    possibility of failure.

APPENDEX C

PERCEIVED RISK SCALE (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b)

Risk factors

1. Equipment/functional risk: possibility of mechanical, equipment, organizational problems occurring during travel or at destination (transportation, accommodations, attractions).
2. Financial risk: possibility that travel experience will not provide value for money spent.
3. Health risk: possibility of becoming sick while traveling or at the destination.
4. Physical risk: possibility of physical danger or injury detrimental to health (accidents).
5. Political instability risk: possibility of becoming involved in the political turmoil of the country being visited.
6. Psychological risk: possibility that travel experience will not reflect the individual's personality or self-image (disappointment with travel experience)
7. Satisfaction risk: possibility that travel experience will not provide personal satisfaction/self-actualization (dissatisfaction with travel experience)
8. Social risk: possibility that travel choice/experience will affect others' opinion of individual (disapproval of vacation choices or activities by friends/family/associates)
9. Terrorism risk: possibility of being involved in a terrorist act.
10. Time risk: possibility that travel experience will take too much time or will waste time.

PERCEIVED COMPETENCE SCALE (Iso-Ahola, La Verde, & Graefe, 1988)

General perceived competence

1. Subjects' rating of themselves as climbers (i.e., beginner/novice, intermediate, advanced, expert)
2. Subjects' ratings of their climbing skill (i.e., poor, fair, average, good, very good)
3. The highest degree of difficulty subjects generally feel comfortable climbing (i.e., a 12-point scale from 5.0 to 5.11, based upon the Yosemite Decimal System)
4. The highest degree of difficulty subjects generally feel comfortable leading others while climbing (5.0 to 5.11, as above)

Specific perceived competence

1. I feel I climbed well today
2. I did not climb as well today as I expected to climb
3. My skill was as high as ever on today's climb
4. I was disappointed with my climbing today
5. Today's climb was a waste of my time

BASIC TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS SCALES

The questions related to knowledge-seeking and relaxation factors were selected from Paris and

Teye's (2010) scale.

Factors	Loading
Factor 1: personal/Social Growth	
To use my physical abilities/skills	.698
To contribute something to the places I visit	.641
To challenge my abilities	.638
To use my imagination	.605
To build friendships with others	.577
To gain a sense of belonging	.571
To develop close friendship	.475
To associate with other travelers	.437
Factor 2: Experiential	
To experience once in a lifetime activities	.728
To gain experiences to share with friends and family	.671
To have a good time with friends	.636
To experience excitement	.591
To attend special events	.438
Factor 3: Relaxation	
To relax physically	.870
To be in a calm atmosphere	.743
To relax mentally	.731
To avoid hustle	.646
Factor 4: Cultural Knowledge	
To explore other cultures	.769
To increase my knowledge	.764
To interact with local people	.618
Factor 5: Budget Travel	
To travel on a low budget	.821
To travel for as long as possible	.771
Factor 6: Independence	
To organize one's own journey	.726
To get off the beaten track	.698
To be free, independent, and open-minded	.516
To discover myself	.408

The questions related to sociability, self-expression, and host-site involvement were adopted from

Fodness' (1994) scale.

Themes	Weight
Dimension 1. (Positive Polarity)--Knowledge Function	
I like to see how other people live.	1.45
Travel gives you a better understanding of current events.	1.53
To me, vacation time means seeing and doing lots of things.	1.17
I like to meet people who are interested in the same things.	1.39
Historical sites are very important to my vacation plans.	1.51
There are just some places that you have always wanted to visit.	1.43
I guess I'm just always looking for new experiences.	1.13
It's important to experience different cultures and ways.	1.47
Sometimes a vacation trip is the only way to see monuments and works of art.	1.48
I like to visit foreign cultures.	1.45
On vacation I attend cultural events that I don't have access to at home.	1.41
I like to visit historical sites.	1.41
I try to tie my vacations in with festivals and celebrations.	1.42
On vacation, I like to do the things that the people there do.	1.49
(Negative Polarity)-- Utilitarian Function: Minimization of Punishment	
Now and then, I need to just get away from pressure and stress.	- 1.83
Vacation time is a recovery period for us.	- 1.71
Just resting and relaxing is enough of a vacation for me.	- 1.82
When I'm on vacation, I don't want to spend my time worrying about where I need to be.	- 1.84
No housework, no cooking, no washing dishes, no laundry, none of that on vacation!	- 1.72
It's relaxing, being able to do nothing, without having any deadlines.	- 1.82
Most everybody wants a change of pace from what they usually do.	- 1.38
Just to curl up with a good book in the shade sounds like a wonderful vacation.	- 1.81
A vacation clears your mind out.	- 1.72
A vacation means to move out of your daily routine into a more pleasant routine.	- 1.67
Just nature and me, that's my idea of a perfect vacation.	- 1.67
It's not a real vacation unless you don't have to do the laundry.	- 1.74
I need a break from my daily routine, to get refreshed, and to have a different outlook	
A vacation means getting away.	- 1.60
It's important for me to get away from the kids now and then.	- 1.78
On vacation I don't like to worry about the time element.	- 1.84
I like getting out into the country, into a rural environment.	- 1.01
Just getting away from work, away from the daily routine, that's a high priority for me.	- 1.71
I would be happy taking a vacation anywhere away from home.	- 1.36
I don't like to vacation where there are people.	- 1.66
The main thing for me on vacation is just to slow down.	- 1.79
Dimension 2. Social Adjustive Function	
The yearly vacation is a time when the family can be together.	- 1.83
Usually, we visit relatives or someone we know on our trip.	- 1.68
Who you're with can make or break a vacation.	- 1.81
A vacation around people is very enjoyable.	- 1.29
The perfect vacation would include all of our family.	- 1.82
On vacation the family gets to know each other again.	- 1.85
Going on vacation with someone is always more fun than going alone.	- 1 .88
I like going on vacation with good friends.	- 1.87
Dimension 3. Value-Expressive Function	

I like to be able to talk about the places I've visited and the things I've seen.	1.43
It's important to show the people at work that you can afford a vacation.	1.84
It's important to go someplace fashionable on vacation.	1.76
It's fun to sit around and remember past vacations.	1.40
When I get home from my vacation, I tell everyone about it.	1.83
I want luxury, nice food, and a comfortable place to stay while on vacation.	1.59
An availability of good restaurants and good food is important in a vacation destination.	1.92
I like to talk about my vacation when I get back, you know, relive it.	1.58
I think that the kind of accommodations you get are real important.	1.93

Dimension 4. Utilitarlan Function: Reward Maximization

Having fun, being entertained, that's what a vacation is all about.	1.49
I travel to keep active.	1.64
I always think that I'll have some sort of romantic experience while on vacation.	1.51
For our family, a vacation is always a new adventure. We never go to the same place twice.	1.88
The best vacations I've ever had have been spontaneous.	1.88
A vacation means fun; doing thing that you haven't done before.	1.27
I just like to travel, to go someplace and do something.	1.45
I would rather go less frequently and do something more exciting than to go often.	1.68
I like lots of activities, like shopping.	1.40

EGO INVOLVEMENT SCALE (Kyle et al., 2007)

Attraction
A1   _____is one of the most enjoyable things I do
A2   _____is very important to me
A3   _____is one of the most satisfying things I do

Centrality
C1   I find a lot of my life is organized around_____
C2   _____occupies a central role in my life
C3   To change my preference from _____to another recreation activity would require major rethinking

Social Bonding
SB1   I enjoy discussing _____with my friends
SB2   Most of my friends are in some way connected with_____
SB3   Participating in _____provides me with an opportunity to be with friends

Identity Affirmation
IA1   When I participate in_____, I can really be myself
IA2   I identify with the people and image associated with_____
IA3   When I'm_____, I don't have to be concerned with the way I look

Identity Expression
IE1   You can tell a lot about a person by seeing them_____
IE2   Participating in _____says a lot about whom I am
IE3   When I participate in_____, others see me the way I want them to see me