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Understanding backpacker sustainable behavior using the tri-component attitude model

Elizabeth Agyeiwaah[a], Frederick Dayour[b], Felix Elvis Otoo[c] and Ben Goh[d]

[a]Faculty of Hospitality and Tourism Management, Macau University of Science and Technology, Avenida Wai Long, Taipa, Macau, China; [b]Department of Community Development, Simon Diedong Dombo University of Business and Integrated Development Studies, Ghana School of Tourism and Hospitality, University of Johannesburg, South Africa; [c]School of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Tsim Sha Tsui East, Hong Kong; [d]Professor and Dean, Faculty of Hospitality and Tourism Management, Macau University of Science and Technology, Avenida Wai Long, Taipa, Macau, China

ABSTRACT

Research on sustainable practices of backpackers lacks a comprehensive model for understanding their sustainable behavior. This paper argues that the contribution of backpacker tourism to sustainable consumption can be achieved if backpackers' attitudes and behaviors are understood and managed. Predicated on the tri-component attitude model that conceptualizes attitude as a complex relationship among cognition (backpacker motivations and perceived impacts of backpacking), actions (backpacker sustainable and unsustainable behavior), and affection (backpacker satisfaction), this paper proposes a model for understanding backpacker sustainable behavior. We surveyed 400 backpackers in Ghana and tested 12 hypotheses using SPSS and AMOS software. The findings demonstrate that perceived positive impacts of backpacking predict backpacker sustainable behavior, suggesting that backpackers perceive their impacts positively, and hence engage in sustainable behaviors to reaffirm such perceptions. The results, however, reveal an insignificant relationship between the perceived positive impacts of backpacking and backpacker unsustainable behavior. The results also show that backpacker motivations explain the tendency to behave unsustainably. Based on these findings, we draw implications for promoting "intentional sustainability" by global organizations and destination management organizations.

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Backpacker motivations; perceived impacts of backpacking; backpacker sustainable behavior; backpacker satisfaction

Introduction

Backpacker tourism is one of the niche markets that foster cross-cultural interaction, awareness, and promotion (Ooi & Laing, 2010; Scheyvens, 2002). This niche accounts for a considerable economic influence on overall tourist spending. Even at a 6% decline, the Australian backpacker tourism market, for example, accounted for AUS$4.1 billion in March 2019 according to Tourism Research Australia [TRA] (TRA, 2019). The niche also captures unique tourism trends, including "gap year" tourism and "begpack" both of which convey solipsism and novelty (Bernstein, 2019; Luzecka, 2016; Tolkach et al., 2019). Backpackers are an important tourist group in many developing countries, including Ghana, due to their interest in consuming local products and services

CONTACT Elizabeth Agyeiwaah agyeiwaahelizabeth@yahoo.com; eagyeiwaah@must.edu.mo
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in their attempt to spend little money at a destination and interact with host communities. Although they tend to be low spenders, their expenditure trickles down to the grassroots economy (Dayour et al., 2016; Hampton, 1998; Peel & Steen, 2007).

Beyond the economic and egalitarian value, backpacking is considered a key sustainability theme in tourism (Han et al., 2018; Iaquinto, 2015; Westerhausen & Macbeth, 2003). Achieving sustainable consumption as part of United Nations Sustainable Development Goal 12 (i.e., responsible consumption and production) requires that tourists change their unsustainable behaviors during travel and at destinations. Therefore, the sustainability practices of backpackers require closer industry and academic attention as tourist types continue to evolve in their traditional consumption characteristics and, more importantly, as the backpacker tourism enters into a stage of commercialization (Ooi & Laing, 2010). Increasingly, alternative tourism practices such as volunteer tourism and backpacking are becoming more demanding, more consumption-driven, and less sustainable (Abdulrazak & Quoquab, 2018; O'Reilly, 2006; Ooi & Laing, 2010).

Although backpacker tourism has received ample research and industry attention, there are some identifiable gaps in this literature. First, there is a global industry requirement to understand the extent to which backpacking can contribute to sustainable tourism development and practice in developing regions. It is now understood among researchers that underlying attitudinal issues among consumers prevent tourism businesses from adopting more sustainable practices. Failure to address the consumers' attitudes may result in unsustainable, and in some cases, unprofitable alternative tourism (Nok et al., 2017; Ooi & Laing, 2010).

Second, a comprehensive model for understanding the sustainability behavior of backpackers is unavailable. The lack of a comprehensive understanding of the backpacker market stems from the absence of a framework that captures the diverse constructs that influence a backpacker's decision to travel and the resulting perceived impact on behavior and experience evaluations (Nok et al., 2017; Pearce, 2007). Third, research that seeks to answer the question "how sustainable is sustainable tourism within the backpacker context?" is still nascent. Iaquinto and Pratt (2020) explored this question from a nationality perspective. They concluded that national differences contributed to a minor impact on the sustainability practices of backpackers and proposed that values, infrastructure, and corporeal abilities may offer better leverage to understand the sustainability behavior of backpackers. Berezan et al. (2013) also established the relative importance of green practices according to the nationality of the guest. While these studies further our understanding of national influences on sustainable tourism, they do not examine the complex set of factors that account for affective evaluation of visitor experiences.

Fourth, few studies identify a reverse paradigm where a sustainable path towards development is not always achieved with backpacker tourism (e.g., Bernstein, 2019). Some authors draw attention to the blurred line between backpacker tourism and mass tourism, and discuss the risks involved in promoting tourism practices that do not give serious attention to environmental issues (Ooi & Laing, 2010; Westerhausen, 2002; Westerhausen & Macbeth, 2003). As noted by Ooi and Laing (2010, p. 192), "the once 'off the beaten track' often becomes the path most trodden".

To address the gaps identified, the present study examines backpacker sustainability behavior with the aim of establishing the relationships among backpacker motivation, perceived impacts of backpacking, backpacker (un)sustainability behaviors, and their satisfaction. Specifically, the study investigates sustainable tourism development and practice within developing regions in order to provide a comprehensive framework for understanding the sustainability behavior of backpackers. The study further suggests ways by which backpacking can become more sustainable by utilizing a set of complex factors to evaluate the backpacker experience. The study holds implications for the implementation of strategies aimed at improving visitor behavior, resource efficiency, tourist behavior management, and sustainability practices. The rest of the paper reviews the relevant literature, presents the methods, results, as well as discussion, and ends with the conclusions of the study.

Literature review

Defining backpackers and their behavioral characteristics

Pearce (1990) defines backpackers as young travelers who are more likely to use budget accommodation facilities, meet other travelers, are independent, have a flexible travel schedule, stay longer at the destination, and focus on participatory holiday experiences. However, the description of backpackers as travelers who satisfy all the above characteristics has led some scholars to argue for a succinct approach that operationalizes backpackers as travelers who self-identify to be so (Cohen, 2011; Dayour et al., 2019). The present study uses this operationalization. Although this approach appears to have been favored by researchers in the last decade (see Hunter-Jones et al., 2008), it must be noted that the existing stereotypes associated with backpackers, including being 'noise makers', 'dopers', social miscreants, and disregarders of local norms, discourage some backpackers from disclosing their identity during travel (Dayour et al., 2017). The inherent weakness of the self-identification criterion implies that the current study may have missed out on backpackers who probably masked their identity during the data collection because of the above-mentioned stereotypes.

Backpacking is gradually becoming a popular phenomenon in the travel and tourism trade due to a wide range of economic, cultural, social, and environmental implications associated with it (Scheyvens, 2002). For instance, Visser (2004) notes that globally, backpackers' economic behaviors in South Africa contribute more towards foreign exchange earnings across a wider area within the local community compared to conventional travelers. This is because backpackers prefer to use rural or less traveled routes. Scheyvens (2002) submits that backpackers are sociable, interactive, and willing to learn local cultures and Nok et al. (2017) add that they show respect for local cultures and demonstrate low consumptive behaviors. These behaviors are further supported by residents' views. For example, residents of Lijiang in China think that backpackers are more environmentally friendly than conventional tourists given their choice of food, accommodation, and transportation (Luo et al., 2014). They are also cautious as far as the consumption of resources and energy and the disposal of garbage are concerned. Similarly, Dayour et al. (2016) note that backpackers are less acquisitive, less wasteful, and frugal in their expenditure when compared to mass tourists.

The positive traits of backpackers notwithstanding, the literature highlights some undesirable behaviors among backpackers and calls for a more controlled system to avoid possible negative impacts on destinations. Shaffer (2004) notes a bad image has been associated with backpackers because of unruly social activities such as loud 'moon parties' and use of drugs, which have been found to be common in popular backpacker enclaves in Goa, India, Chiang Mai, Thailand, and Vientiane, Laos (Howard, 2007; Scheyvens, 2002). This bad image has its roots in the activities of the hippie and beatnik subcultures of the 1960s and 1970s (Cohen, 1973). Therefore, the predominantly youthful character of backpackers (Hunter-Jones et al., 2008; Scheyvens, 2002) can lead to various social and environmental effects on destinations such as the disregard for local cultural norms, values, and principles as well as littering and other disruptive consumption behaviors. This argument finds expression in backpackers' negative association with visits to psychedelic enclaves and engagement in undesirable behaviors (Cohen, 2011). A recent study by Sroypetch et al. (2018) point to their appearance (e.g., scanty dressing) and other unruly behaviors such as over-consumption of alcohol, and overt sexual conduct that can offend host residents. Also, 'flashpackers' (i.e., high-end backpackers who often have more income than ordinary backpackers) contribute to economic leakages (Dayour et al., 2017).

Given the negative image associated with backpacking, certain destinations have discouraged visits from backpackers. For example, according to Scheyvens (2002), backpackers were discouraged from visiting the Maldives and barred from Bhutan because they were considered a threat

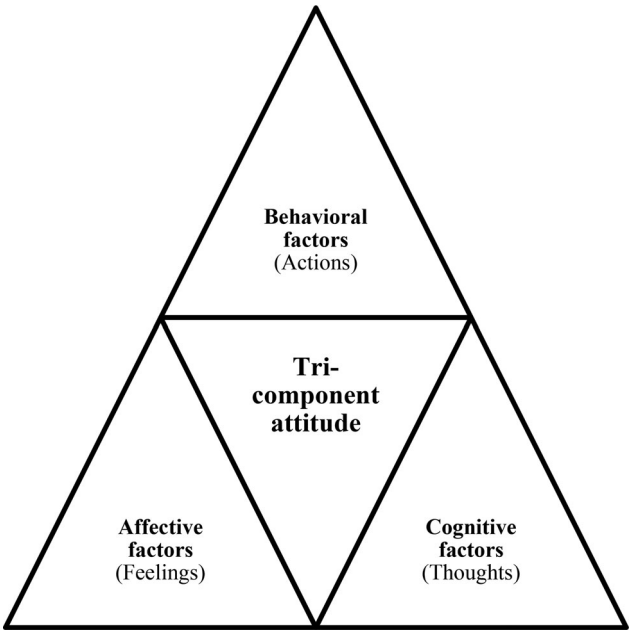

Figure 1. The tri-component attitude model adapted from Pickens Pickens (2005).

to the nation. However, the cognitive explanations of such (un)desirable behaviors are unknown and warrant empirical examination.

Theoretical framework and hypotheses development

The tri-component attitude model

Tourism scholars have explained the relationship between attitudes and behavior of visitors in various ways. Within backpacker research, for example, popular theoretical approaches include the theory of planned behavior that asserts that conscious attitudes and beliefs influence behaviors (Martin & McCurdy, 2009). Other theories, such as practice theory, overlook consciousness and emphasize agency (Iaquinto & Pratt, 2020) while social identity theory underscores how group identity influences individual behavior (Zhang et al., 2017). A limitation of these theories is the failure to recognize the complex relationships among individual thoughts, emotions, and actions. This limitation is addressed by the tri-component attitude theoretical model (see Figure 1) which defines how people consciously view situations and how they behave towards those situations (Howard & Sheth, 1969; Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960). The tri-component attitude model argues that attitude includes three components, namely cognition (a thought), an affect (a feeling), and behavior (action) (Pickens, 2005).

The cognitive component represents knowledge and information acquired from the consumer's self-knowledge, experience opinion, or learning which influences purchase or consumption desires. The affective component denotes emotional reactions or feelings towards a product or a situation. The behavioral component encompasses the psychological attitude to act towards a specific goal (Han et al., 2011; Yuan et al., 2008). Within the tourism and consumer behavior literature, motivations and perceived impacts of experiences constitute valuable constructs for understanding behavior (Prayag et al., 2018; Prayag & Brittnacher, 2014). However, backpacking studies tend to investigate these constructs separately (e.g., Chen et al., 2014; Nok et al., 2017). This study addresses this deficiency by considering backpacker sustainable behavior and backpacker satisfaction as an outcome of a combination of proximal antecedents such as backpacker

motivations and perceived impacts of backpacking (Pickens, 2005; Trudel, 2019). The study develops a theoretical model comprising three components of cognition (backpacker motivations and perceived impacts of backpacking), behavior (backpacker sustainable and unsustainable behaviors), and affection (backpacker satisfaction). By making backpacker satisfaction an outcome of backpacker sustainable and unsustainable behavior, this study provides new theoretical insights into backpacker emotional response towards their (un)sustainable behavior.

Backpacker motivation and perceived impacts of backpacking

This section discusses the link between backpacker motivations and perceived impacts of backpacking to support the proposed relationships in the model. It is noteworthy that the motivations and perceived impacts measured in this study are distinguishable from other studies as they focused on backpackers' behaviors at a destination rather than their motivations to travel. Motivation refers to a psychological need or want comprising integral forces that stimulate, direct, and join a person's behavior with an activity of any kind (Pearce, 1982). While in sociology and psychology, the definition of motivation focuses on cognitive and emotional motives (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977) or internal and external motives (Gnoth, 1997), its definition in tourism centers on two factors: push and pull factors. These forces respectively define how tourists are pushed by intrinsic factors into making travel choices and pulled by extrinsic destination attributes (Uysal & Hagan, 1993). For instance, Dayour (2013) observed that backpackers who visited Ghana were motivated by intrinsic factors such as the need for escape, adventure and heritage tourism, and extrinsic factors such as cultural and ecological tourism. Similarly, Chen et al. (2014), in segmenting Chinese backpackers by travel motivations, found different motivations: self-actualizers, destination experiencers, and social seekers. A recent study by Nok et al. (2017) reports that the most pressing pull and push motivations for backpackers visiting Hong Kong are the unique food culture and the desire to learn new ideas respectively. This quest to learn about new cultures and countries has been previously documented by Pearce and Foster (2007). Nonetheless, not much is empirically known from these studies about the relationship between backpacker motivations and the perceived impact of backpacking.

Perceptions suggest that beliefs about tourism differ widely (Dogan, 1989). Backpacker perceived impacts in this study refer to their beliefs about the effects of their behaviors (good or bad) and/or activities at a particular location (Dogan, 1989; Weiler & Smith, 2009). Researchers and policymakers have been interested in understanding travel impacts to aid planning and the development of appropriate strategies to sustainably manage their destinations (Ap, 1992). From a mobility standpoint, both residents and tourists are aware of the impacts of tourism and their behaviors at destinations (Moscardo et al., 2013); hence, this can affect the consumption behavior of tourists (Prayag & Brittnacher, 2014). For instance, Iaquinto (2015; 2018) maintains that backpackers perform many sustainable practices that impact positively on the host, ranging from food sharing, car sharing, line-drying, purchase of local products, and services to ecotourism.

Despite the importance of tourist motivations in understanding the impact of visitations on destinations and attractions (Stone & Sharpley, 2008), the relationship between these two variables has hardly been examined within the tourism literature. For instance, Prayag et al. (2018) argue that tourists' perception of impacts at dark tourism attractions is a function of their motivations. Their study uncovered a positive relationship between tourist motivations and their perceived negative and positive impacts. More specifically, Biran et al. (2014) established that tourists who were motivated to visit dark attraction sites perceived both positive and negative. Bradt (1995) also found that backpackers who are motivated to discover novel destinations together with their predilection for authentic experiences damage the environment considerably. Similarly, Cooper et al. (2004) assert that backpackers can have a considerable impact on the environment because most of them want to have thrilling experiences, even if this will cause damage to the environment. These studies notwithstanding, backpacker tourism researchers, to

date, have not examined the possible relationship between backpacker motivations and perceived impacts of backpacking. Therefore, the current study proposes that:

H_{1a}: Backpacker motivation has a positive effect on the perceived negative impact of backpacking.

H_{1b}: Backpacker motivation exerts a positive influence on the perceived positive impact of backpacking.

Backpacker motivation and backpacker sustainable and unsustainable behavior

While the current study recognizes the contested definition of sustainability as development that meets the needs of the present without compromising future generation needs (Brundtland, 1987), it employs a triple bottom line conceptualization to reduce the ambiguity of this concept as comprising economic, socio-cultural, and environmental dimensions that mutually reinforce one another (Agyeiwaah et al., 2017; Elkington, 2013). Sustainability behaviors are responsible behaviors that contribute to triple bottom line sustainability while unsustainable behaviors do not contribute to triple bottom line sustainability (Trudel, 2019; Agyeiwaah et al. 2020).

The extant literature is replete with sustainable practices among backpackers. For instance, Nok et al. (2017) acknowledge that backpacking is an important conduit to the cultural and environmental sustainability of tourism since backpackers show respect for local cultures and have low consumptive behaviors. According to Scheyvens (2002), backpackers give advantages to local cultures by being sociable, interacting with local folks, and learning about new customs, thereby contributing to the rejuvenation and sustenance of local cultures. Interacting with local cultures also provides benefits to local economies through the patronage of local goods and services, which in turn benefits a wider spectrum of stakeholders. Iaquinto (2018) also argues that although backpackers may not be mindful of sustainability in their travel, sustainability exists in their practices.

Even though there appears to be limited empirical evidence in the literature to support the theoretical relationship between travel motivation and behavior, few studies speculate a possible correlation between the two variables, thereby necessitating the testing of this relationship in the current study. Eagles (1992) and Fodness (1994) are of the view that travel motivation is possibly the most important factor in comprehending tourist behavior at the destination and should be considered a significant driver in their behavioral analysis. Motivation can explain why a person or a group may act in a good or bad way to satisfy a need (Dann, 1981). For instance, a study by Abdulrazak and Quoquab (2018) which considered consumers' motivations for sustainable consumption, reported that respondents were motivated to engage in sustainable consumption based on the desire to feel good. However, sustainable consumption was found to be marginally affected by the need for competence among these respondents. In another study, Teo et al. (2014) observed that tourists interested in heritage sites were motivated to take action in support of sustainable ecotourism in order to show respect for local cultures. On undesired behaviors, Scheyvens (2002) reports that backpackers who desire to engage in psychedelic and unacceptable consumption behaviors are likely to have a negative impact on the destination and contribute to its unsustainability. Given the evidence in the literature in support of a possible relationship between backpacker motivation and behavior, backpacker motivation is hypothesized to have a positive impact on backpacker (un)sustainable behavior in this study.

H_{2a}: Backpacker motivation has a positive effect on backpacker sustainable behavior.

H_{2b}: Backpacker motivation has a positive effect on backpacker unsustainable behavior.

Backpacker perceived impacts and behavior (sustainable and unsustainable)

Previous studies show that tourism development and tourists generate diverse positive impacts (e.g., construction projects, wildlife preservation, trickle-down effects, and improvement in the

quality of life) as well as negative ones (e.g., traffic congestion, the surge in crime, alcoholism, and alteration of community identity) (Andereck et al., 2005; Ko & Stewart, 2002). Many such studies have focused on residents' perceptions at the expense of tourist perceptions, and have often concluded that residents who obtain beneficial outcomes perceive tourism positively. Generally, although an understanding of tourism perceptions and attitudes has increased in recent years, there is a limited understanding of how these perceptions of impacts result in sustainable and unsustainable behavior (Pietilä & Fagerholm, 2016; Prayag et al., 2018).

Among the research on tourists' perception of impacts, there is consensus that tourists' perceptions of impacts influence their behavior, including post-consumption behavior (Cottrell et al., 2004; Mainieri et al., 1997; Prayag et al., 2018; Prayag & Brittnacher, 2014). In the environmental psychology literature, Mainieri et al. (1997) found positive relationships between consumers' environmental concerns and their pro-environmental behavior using hierarchical multiple regression analysis. Cottrell et al. (2004) found that Germans were more concerned about the ecological impacts of tourism development as opposed to Dutch tourists and were more likely to promote local products. Zhang et al. (2015) also suggest that a perceived negative impact of haze pollution in China could influence the behavior of tourists. Further, it is expected that tourists who perceive beneficial outcomes of their travel will be more positive towards sustainability issues than those who perceive negative impacts (Han et al., 2018). From the preceding studies, it can be inferred that the more negative perceptions held by the backpacker, the less likely it is that s/he will engage in sustainable behavior and the more positive perceptions held, the higher the likelihood to engage in sustainable behavior. These inferences are presented in the following hypotheses:

H_{3a}: Perceived negative impact of backpacking has a negative influence on backpacker sustainable behavior.

H_{3b}: Perceived positive impact of backpacking has a positive influence on backpacker sustainable behavior.

H_{4a}: Perceived negative impact of backpacking has a positive impact on backpacker unsustainable behavior.

H_{4b}: Perceived positive impact of backpacking has a negative impact on backpacker unsustainable behavior.

Perceived impacts of backpacking and backpacker satisfaction

Despite the contested definition of customer satisfaction, there is consensus in consumer behavior research that customer satisfaction is a comparison of what is expected and what is actually received (Oliver, 1993). In tourism research, tourist satisfaction is defined as an "individual's cognitive-affective state derived from a tourist experience" (del Bosque & San Martín, 2008, p. 553). A notable framework for examining satisfaction is the cognitive-affective-conative framework, which conceptualizes satisfaction as an emotional response to an experience (Han et al., 2011). There is evidence in the literature to suggest that there is a relationship between tourists' perceived impacts and satisfaction with tourism experience. For instance, previous studies within the dark tourism context affirm that while positive tourism impacts result in a strong statistically significant influence on satisfaction, negative perceived impacts result in an inverse but moderately significant effect on satisfaction (Prayag et al., 2018).

Similarly, Wang and Luo (2018) suggest that tourists' connection to destinations predisposes them to be highly sensitive to the impacts of tourism. The result is that such tourists tend to be more satisfied with their experiences. These relationships have been previously confirmed in studies on residents' attitudes that indicate that community satisfaction is positively related to perceived positive impacts whereas community satisfaction is negatively related to perceived negative impacts (Ko & Stewart, 2002). Despite the growing scholarly interest in backpacker tourism, the literature on perceived impacts-satisfaction relationship remains scant and usually

adopts a qualitative approach (Wearing et al., 2002). Employing a quantitative approach to address this gap, the present study hypothesizes that:

H_{5a}: Perceived negative impact of backpacking has a negative influence on backpackers' satisfaction.

H_{5b}: Perceived positive impact of backpacking has a positive influence on backpackers' satisfaction.

Backpacker sustainable and unsustainable behavior and backpacker satisfaction

The relationship between tourists' behavior and their evaluation of destination experiences is complex and mixed. Nonetheless, the conclusion that tourists with more sustainable behavior are more satisfied than those with less sustainable behavior is common (Berezan et al., 2013; Kastenholz et al., 2018; Nassani et al., 2013). For example, Berezan et al. (2013) tested the hypothetical relationship between green practices and visitors' overall satisfaction. They found a positive relationship between green practices on guests' satisfaction levels. In their investigation of tourists to Taiwan, Liu et al. (2016) tested whether sustainable tourism behavior is an antecedent of overall satisfaction and confirmed weak but statistically significant support for the hypothesis.

However, another stream of research holds an opposite view. For instance, Dodds et al. (2010) found that despite being generally happy during their vacation, the tourists in their study requested improvement in service through unsustainable and egotistic practices such as consistent power supply and freshwater showers, all of which overstretch communal resources, contribute to a surge in energy consumption and lead to material footprint per capita (Cohen, 2011; Cottrell et al., 2004; Scheyvens, 2002). Despite these contested findings coupled with the interest in backpacker research among sustainability scholars, empirical studies that test the relationship between backpackers' (un)sustainable behavior and satisfaction is absent in the backpacker literature (see Nash et al., 2006). Based on a recent study by Kastenholz et al. (2018) on rural tourists that show that clusters that exhibit more sustainable behavior possessed higher levels of satisfaction than those that exhibit less sustainable behavior, this paper assumes that backpackers that engage in sustainable behaviors will be more satisfied than those who exhibit unsustainable behavior. Consequently, it is hypothesized that:

H_{6a}: Backpacker sustainable behaviors have a positive influence on backpackers' satisfaction.

H_{6b}: Backpacker unsustainable behaviors have a negative influence on backpackers' satisfaction.

The hypothetical relationships are conceptually presented in Figure 2.

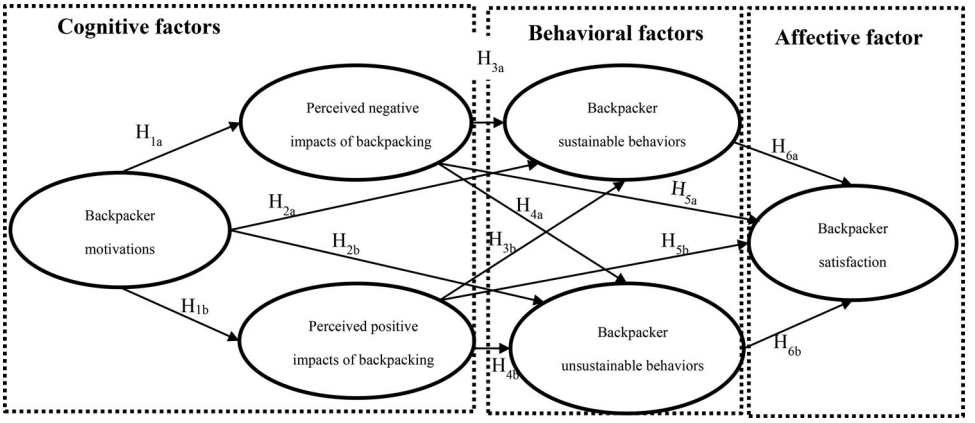

Figure 2. A proposed structural model.

Methods

Research setting

Ghana is recognized as one of the destinations that appeal to backpackers as far as the West African sub-region is concerned. This is because the country is recognized as a peaceful destination with rich cultural and historical resources for backpackers (Dayour et al., 2019). The study area, Cape Coast, is one of the popular tourist destinations in Ghana and it is home to the Cape Coast Castle, one of Ghana's flagship attractions popular for the infamous transatlantic slave trade. Also, the Oasis Beach Resort is currently the most popular enclave for backpackers and other tourists in Cape Coast (Dayour et al., 2019). Backpackers in Cape Coast predominantly come from North America and Europe (Adam, 2015). A typical backpacker in Cape Coast is commonly seen with their backpack and they prefer to live in backpacker hostels. They also prefer to interact with local residents and like to learn Ghanaian history and culture. Such behaviors have made their presence conspicuous to residents and researchers (Dayour, 2013).

Measures

A structured questionnaire was used to collect data on backpacker motivations, perceived impacts of backpacking, backpacker (un)sustainable behaviors, and backpacker satisfaction as well as demographics and travel characteristics. The measures of constructs were generated from the literature and modified to suit the context of the present study. Backpacker motivation was assessed on a 7-point Likert scale [1 = Not at all important to 7 = Very important]. Perceived impacts of backpacking and backpacker satisfaction were also assessed based on a 7-point Likert scale [1 = Strongly disagree to 7 = Strongly agree]. However, backpacker (un)sustainable behaviors were measured on a 6-point Likert scale [1 = Very frequently to 6 = Never]. The questionnaire was organized into five parts. The first part comprised measures on backpackers' motivations such as asking backpackers to indicate whether they wanted "To learn about/experience another culture" (Nok et al., 2017; Pearce & Foster, 2007). These items were adopted from Pearce and Foster (2007, p. 1291)'s backpacker studies since the items reflect specific backpacker profiles. The second part examined backpacker sustainable behaviors (e.g., "Read the history of your destination" and "Buy and choose environmentally friendly accommodation") and backpacker unsustainable behaviors (e.g., "Smoking anywhere without considering those around them" and "causing congestion") in relation to the triple bottom line dimensions (Agyeiwaah et al., 2017; Iaquinto, 2015; Nok et al., 2017). The third part examined the perceived impact of backpacking, including both positive and negative aspects, based on previous impact studies (see Andereck et al., 2005; Ko & Stewart, 2002). The fourth part examined backpackers' satisfaction with the choice of destination (Agyeiwaah et al., 2016) and the final part examined demographics and travel characteristics such as gender, age, educational attainment, nationality, frequency of visit, travel party, and length of stay.

Data collection and procedure

Following Chen and Huang (2017), face validity and content validity checks were carried out on the questionnaire before the actual survey. Doctoral students and academics in the field of tourism were consulted to ascertain whether the statements in the instrument were comprehensible. To further enhance the wording and relevance of statements, a pretesting of the questionnaire using 50 backpackers in Elmina (a nearby tourist destination around the study area) (Dayour et al., 2016) was carried out. Since most backpackers could read and write English, the questionnaire was administered in English. The data collection took place between August and

September 2019. The self-identification approach was used to select backpackers for the study (Adam, 2015; Hunter-Jones et al., 2008).

Informed by past studies (Adam, 2015; Dayour, 2013), we selected the Oasis Beach Resort and Cape Coast Castle as our research site. The former, according to the Ghana Tourism Authority's classification of hostels in Ghana, is a budget accommodation facility (Dayour et al., 2019). According to Dayour (2013), these locations are hotspots for backpackers in the city. Permission was sought from the managers of these facilities to conduct the survey. Two trained research assistants and one of the authors who was based in Ghana surveyed the two places. A convenience sampling technique was used to sample respondents; consequently, the researchers approached and introduced themselves to the guests, and explained the rationale for the study. The researchers then asked for guests' consent to be included in the survey. Those who consented were asked to indicate which of the following best described them: backpacker, traveler, or tourists. Those who identified as backpackers were handed a questionnaire to complete (Dayour et al., 2019). Persons who participated in the survey were not incentivized or coerced in any way. This is because surveys were conducted during checkout from the Cape Coast Castle, a time when most respondents are willing to respond to the questions while relaxing from their tour (Dayour et al., 2019). For those contacted at Oasis Beach Resort, the survey was conducted when respondents were waiting for their orders from the restaurant or simply relaxing at the beach. Despite categorizing the age range to capture the lowest age of backpackers based on the literature, we focused on only backpackers who were 18 years or older so that minors were excluded. A total of 420 questionnaires were administered of which 400 were found to be correctly completed, and therefore usable for the study. The response rate for the survey was 95.2%.

Data analysis

A three-step approach was adopted in analyzing the data. First, an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted to ensure that items were well loaded under their relevant constructs (Pallant, 2005). This was necessary because of the lack of a priori (confirmed) measures and constructs for the proposed model, thereby requiring an initial rotation of the items generated to determine their relevance for the model. As part of the EFA, one of the three items from the literature measuring perceived negative impacts of backpacking had a lower internal consistency of 0.436 Cronbach alpha (i.e., backpacker contributes to the increased cost of living). Deletion would increase the Cronbach alpha to 0.66 and improve the fit indices (Pallant, 2005); hence, the statement was deleted. Thus, the remaining two items measuring how backpacking contributes to prostitution and overcrowding in Ghana were used since they are statistically valid and reliable measures (see Table 4).

Second, a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) technique (in AMOS 22) was used to determine how well the proposed model fits the dataset before evaluating the proposed structural model (Hair et al., 2014). Here, validity and reliability analyses were conducted (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Finally, the proposed theoretical model and hypotheses were tested using the maximum likelihood estimation method in covariance-based Structural Equation Modeling (SEM).

The demographic analysis revealed that of the 400 respondents surveyed, 45.5% were males and 54.5% were females consistent with previous backpacker studies (e.g., Iaquinto, 2015). The age groups of the respondents show that they are predominantly youthful travelers: 16-24 years old (38.5%), 25-34 years old (49.8%), 34-44 years old (8.0%), and 45 and above years old (3.7%). More than half (52.3%) of the respondents were college graduates, followed by those with postgraduate degrees (22.7%). The rest were high school graduates (16.8%), those with professional qualifications (7.5%), and others (0.7%). The top three nationalities were Germans (21.5%), British

Table 1. Demographic characteristics.

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	182	45.5
Female	218	54.5
Age		
16-24	154	38.5
25-34	199	49.8
35-44	32	8.0
45 and above	15	3.7
Level of education		
High school graduate or less	67	16.8
College graduate - undergraduate	209	52.3
Postgraduate degree	91	22.7
Professional qualification	30	7.5
Others	3	0.7
Nationality		
German	86	21.5
British	81	20.3
American	66	16.5
Spanish	56	14.0
French	47	11.8
Australian	38	9.5
Others	25	6.2
South African	1	0.2
Frequency of visits		
No previous visit	45	11.3
One time	338	84.5
Two times	17	4.2
Travel party		
Friends	185	46.3
Alone	182	45.5
Organized tour	15	3.8
With your Spouse/Partner	9	2.2
With family members	6	1.5
Others	3	0.7
Length of stay (in days)		
1 to 5	246	61.5
6 to 10	78	19.5
11 to 15	68	17.0
16 days or more	8	2.0

(20.3%) and Americans (16.5%), which are typical of Ghanaian backpacker generation regions of Europe and North America (Adam, 2015) (Table 1).

Common methods bias (CMB)

Before presenting the study results, we examined CMB in the measures used in two ways. First, the correlation matrix in Table 4 was checked for any prospective high correlations and we found that the correlations among constructs were up to 0.22; hence, not considered high ($r > 0.90$) (Park & Tussyadiah, 2017). Second, based on Harman's single-factor (Podsakoff et al., 2003) approach, we noticed that the variance explained by the first (major) factor was 14.12% – less than the 50% cut-off point. This procedure confirmed the absence of common method errors in the results.

Results

Results of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

Before the CFA, initial results from the EFA helped to reduce the data into six factors that explain 65.5% variance. The EFA revealed a significant (*Sig. =0.000; df = 253*) Bartlett's test of sphericity

Table 2. Goodness-of-fit measures (N = 400).

Stage	Chi-square (*df*)	P-value	RMSEA	SRMR	GFI	PCLOSE	AGFI	CFI	IFI	RFI
CFA	309.27(209)	0.000	0.04	0.06	0.94	1.00	0.92	0.98	0.98	0.91
SEM	311.56(212)	0.000	0.03	0.06	0.94	1.00	0.92	0.98	0.98	0.91

Note: RMSEA (root mean square error of approximation), SRMR (standardized RMR), GFI (goodness-of-fit index), AGFI (adjusted GFI), CFI (comparative fit index), IFI (incremental fit index), and RFI (relative fit index).

and a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (*KMO = 0.752*) greater than the recommended minimum of 0.6 (Pallant, 2005). Further results of a confirmatory factor analysis using the maximum likelihood estimation methods in AMOS revealed that the proposed measurement model fits the data well (Table 2). This was demonstrated through the multiple fit measures (χ^2 =309.27; $df = 209$, $p < 0.001$, $\chi^2/df = 1.480$, CFI= 0.98, GFI = 0.94, RMSEA = 0.04 and PCLOSE 1.00) which represent the often applied fit indices for evaluating the measurement model (Dion, 2008). A detailed examination of the measurement model revealed predominantly significant loadings of measurement items of the constructs (Table 3). As suggested by Ursachi et al. (2015), measurement items must be simultaneously reliable in terms of their consistency in measuring a specific phenomenon and valid in terms of measuring what it is supposed to measure. Consequently, the internal consistency test of the measurement items using Cronbach's alpha revealed acceptable results of 0.6-0.9 (Ursachi et al., 2015). Following Brown's (2015) considerations about skewness (-3 to +3) and kurtosis (-10 to +10) when conducting SEM, the data was assessed to be symmetrically distributed as per the scores in Table 3. Further validity tests involved both convergent validity and discriminant validity to validate the measures of each construct. Following suggestions in the literature (e.g., Prayag et al., 2018) to inspect both composite reliability and average variance extracted to remove an item, convergent validity was established with all AVE values exceeding the recommended cut off point greater than or equal to 0.50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) except for the construct "backpacker unsustainable behaviors."

The construct, "backpacker unsustainable behaviors", was further validated following Fornell and Larcker (1981) argument that in instances where AVE is lesser than the recommended 0.5 but composite reliability is higher than 0.6, convergent validity is adequate for the construct (Table 4). Further composite reliability tests revealed adequate results, ranging from 0.7-0.92 (Hair et al., 2014). An additional test of discriminant validity showed that AVE values were greater than the squared correlation and maximum shared variance (Han et al., 2018). The assessment of the model fit, reliability tests, and construct validity of the measures of the various constructs was followed by the structural model analysis to either confirm or disconfirm the hypothesized relationship.

Results of the structural model

Following the CFA, structural equation modeling was conducted to test the hypothesized relationships in the proposed model (Table 5). An ideal fit was found between the model and the data as summarized in the results (χ^2 =311.56, $df = 212$, $p < 0.001$, $\chi^2/df = 1.470$, CFI = 0.98, GFI =0.94, RMSEA = 0.03 and PCLOSE 1.00). The results of the structural model supported six ($H1_{b,}$ $H_{2a,}$ $H_{2b,}$ $H_{3b,}$ $H_{5b,}$ and H_{6a}) out of the twelve proposed relationships. For instance, backpacker motivation was found to exert a positive impact on perceived positive impacts of backpacking ($\beta = -0.22$; $p = 0.000$), backpacker sustainable behavior ($\beta = -0.12$; $p = 0.037$) and unsustainable behavior ($\beta = 0.19$; $p = 0.003$), thereby supporting $H_{1b,}$ $H_{2a,}$ and $H_{2b.}$ These relationships substantiate the argument that behavior is an outcome of cognitive factors as backpacker sustainable and unsustainable behavior at the destination is explained by their motivations for travel (Pickens, 2005; Trudel, 2019). While backpacker motivations lead these travelers to perceive backpacker tourism as possessing positive impacts on community well-being, economy, and environment, these backpacker motivations do not influence their perceived negative impacts of

Table 3. Results of exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis.

Constructs and items	Mean	EFA factor loadings	CFA Standardized factor loading	Cronbach's α	S.E.	t-values	Skewness	Kurtosis
Backpacker motivations [BM]				0.88				
To learn about / experience another culture	6.29	0.915	0.96		0.13	11.85***	−1.36	2.12
To learn about / experience another country	6.30	0.884	0.93		0.14	11.43***	−1.23	0.86
To interact with people of the host country	6.22	0.883	0.75		0.10	12.70***	−0.99	−0.09
To explore and ask questions	6.01	0.701	0.54		N/A	N/A	−0.94	0.60
Perceived negative impacts of backpacking [PNI]				0.66				
Backpacking contributes to overcrowding	3.44	0.859	0.60		0.39	1.93	−0.05	−0.75
Backpacking contributes to prostitution	2.63	0.853	0.82		N/A	N/A	0.46	−0.91
Perceived positive impacts of backpacking [PPI]				0.74				
Backpacking contributes to the preservation of natural areas	5.21	0.894	0.90		0.10	11.62***	−0.64	0.33
Backpacking contributes to the preservation of wildlife habitats	5.22	0.857	0.80		N/A	N/A	−0.66	0.47
Backpacking contributes to supporting the development of the local community	5.10	0.605	0.45		0.07	8.55***	−0.72	0.61
Backpacker sustainable behaviors [SB]				0.83				
Read the history of your destination	1.71	0.807	0.65		N/A	N/A	1.74	4.11
Learn about Indigenous cultures	1.73	0.796	0.69		0.07	14.98***	1.42	1.87
Interact with local residents	1.70	0.782	0.78		0.13	9.54***	1.43	2.05
Ask permission before photographing	1.78	0.742	0.69		0.12	8.80***	1.26	1.28
Buy and choose environmentally friendly accommodation	1.79	0.676	0.58		0.10	9.30***	1.42	2.06
Backpacker unsustainable behaviors [UB]				0.69				
Smoking anywhere without considering those around them	5.23	0.792	0.79		0.19	8.12***	−1.59	2.38
Causing congestion or crowding problems because of their group behavior	4.99	0.695	0.57		0.16	7.50***	−1.01	0.32
Not respecting the religious or spiritual needs of others	5.24	0.628	0.52		N/A	N/A	−1.64	2.67
Expecting to be served before locals	5.29	0.620	0.50		0.14	6.92***	−1.97	4.21
Leaving TV, lights, and fan on always	5.18	0.569	0.42		0.14	6.15***	−1.68	2.98

(*continued*)

Table 3. Continued.

Constructs and items	Mean	EFA factor loadings	CFA Standardized factor loading	Cronbach's α	S.E.	t-values	Skewness	Kurtosis
Backpacker satisfaction [SAT]				0.91				
I truly enjoyed the experience of backpacking in Ghana.	6.14	0.922	0.96		0.08	16.10***	−0.99	0.47
I am satisfied with the decision to backpack in Ghana.	6.18	0.896	0.83		0.06	19.87***	−1.56	3.37
I feel good about the decision to backpack in Ghana.	6.20	0.888	0.89		0.07	16.19***	−0.97	0.15
I am sure it was the right thing to backpack in Ghana.	6.11	0.820	0.70		N/A	N/A	−1.24	1.56

Note: S.E. = standard error for unstandardized coefficient; ***Significant at significant at $p < 0.001$; **Significant at significant at $p < 0.01$; *Significant at significant at $p < 0.05$.

Table 4. Validity measures and correlation matrix.

	CR	AVE	MSV	Mean	SD	BM	PNI	PPI	SB	UB	SAT
BM	0.92	0.79	0.04	6.20	0.83	**1.00**	.				
PNI	0.70	0.52	0.01	3.03	1.43	−0.01 (0.00)	**1.00**				
PPI	0.77	0.55	0.03	5.18	1.09	−0.19**(0.04)	−0.06(0.00)	**1.00**			
SB	0.81	0.50	0.06	1.74	0.72	−0.13*(0.02)	−0.01(0.00)	−0.14**(0.02)	**1.00**		
UB	0.70	0.33	0.04	5.18	0.74	0.17**(0.03)	0.04(0.00)	−0.13*(0.02)	−0.01(0.00)	**1.00**	
SAT	0.91	0.72	0.06	6.16	0.92	0.02(0.00)	−0.08(0.01)	0.22**(0.05)	−0.21**(0.04)	0.01(0.00)	**1.00**

Note: Maximum Shared Variance (MSV), Composite Reliability (CR), Average Variance Extracted (AVE); **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level and *0.05; Squared correlation is in parenthesis.

Table 5. Path coefficients of the structural equation model.

Hypotheses		β	S.E.	t-values	*p*	Supported?
$H_{1a:}$ Backpacker motivation	Perceived negative impacts of backpacking	0.02	0.15	0.36	0.721	No
$H_{1b:}$ Backpacker motivation	Perceived positive impact of backpacking	−0.22	0.11	−3.72	***	Yes
$H_{2a:}$ Backpacker motivation	Backpacker sustainable behavior	−0.12	0.06	−2.08	0.037*	Yes
$H_{2b:}$ Backpacker motivation	Backpacker unsustainable behavior	0.19	0.06	2.97	0.003**	Yes
$H_{3a:}$ Perceived negative impact of backpacking	Backpacker sustainable behavior	−0.00	0.02	−0.07	0.943	No
$H_{3b:}$ Perceived positive impact of backpacking	Backpacker sustainable behavior	−0.21	0.04	−3.31	***	Yes
$H_{4a:}$ Perceived negative impact of backpacking	Backpacker unsustainable behavior	0.05	0.02	0.69	0.490	No
$H_{4b:}$ Perceived positive impact of backpacking	Backpacker unsustainable behavior	−0.08	0.03	−1.29	0.199	No
$H_{5a:}$ Perceived negative impact of backpacking	Backpacker satisfaction	−0.09	0.04	−0.93	0.351	No
$H_{5b:}$ Perceived positive impact of backpacking	Backpacker satisfaction	0.12	0.04	2.14	0.033*	Yes
$H_{6a:}$ Backpacker sustainable behavior	Backpacker satisfaction	−0.21	0.08	−3.53	***	Yes
$H_{6b:}$ Backpacker unsustainable behavior	Backpacker satisfaction	0.04	0.08	0.66	0.510	No

Note: S.E. = standard error for unstandardized coefficient; ***Significant at significant at $p < 0.001$; **Significant at significant at $p < 0.01$; *Significant at significant at $p < 0.05$.

backpacking. Also, $H_{3b,}$ $H_{5b,}$ and H_{6a} were supported as perceived positive impacts of backpacking was found to influence backpacker sustainable behaviors (β=-0.21; $p = 0.000$) and backpacker satisfaction ($\beta = 0.12$; $p = 0.033$). Additionally, backpacker sustainable behavior had a positive influence on backpacker satisfaction (β=-0.21; $p = 0.000$). Further, positive perceptions of backpacking stimulated sustainable behavior among this group (Prayag & Brittnacher, 2014). Six hypotheses were not supported ($H_{1a,}$ $H_{3a,}$ $H_{4a,}$ $H_{4b,}$ $H_{5a,}$ and H_{6b}). For example, backpacker motivations did not significantly influence the perceived negative impacts of backpacking ($\beta = 0.02$; $p = 0.721$) and perceived negative impacts of backpacking did not have a negative influence on sustainable behavior (β=-0.00; $p = 0.943$) and backpacker satisfaction (β=-0.09; $p = 0.351$). Moreover, the hypothesized relationship between perceived negative impacts of backpacking and backpacker unsustainable behavior was not significant ($\beta = 0.05$; $p = 0.490$), perceived positive impacts of backpacking did not influence backpacker unsustainable behavior (β=-0.08; $p = 0.199$) and backpacker unsustainable behavior equally did not have any influence on backpacker satisfaction ($\beta = 0.04$; $p = 0.510$). These insightful findings of predictors and outcomes of backpacker sustainable and unsustainable behaviors have been further discussed together with their implications for achieving sustainable consumption as part of United Nations Sustainable Development Goal 12 (United Nations [UN. , 2019). A summary of the results of the structural equation modeling is presented in Figure 3.

Discussion

Employing the tri-component attitude model (Howard & Sheth, 1969; Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960), the present study has investigated the relationship between cognitive (backpacker motivations and perceived impacts of backpacking), behavioral (backpacker sustainable and unsustainable behavior), and affective (backpacker satisfaction) components of backpacking. This study addresses a gap in the literature with respect to the absence of a comprehensive model for examining the antecedents and outcomes of backpackers' sustainable and unsustainable behaviors.

The results demonstrate strong support for previous backpacker studies that stated that backpacker motivations can lead to both desirable and undesirable behaviors at the destination. For example, previous backpacker studies suggest that backpacker motivations are predominantly positive and comprise learning new cultures, social interactions, self-actualization, and personal development (Chen et al., 2014; Loker-Murphy, 1997; Pearce & Foster, 2007). While these positive motivations lead backpackers to perceive their impacts positively (Nok et al., 2017), positive motivations can lead some backpackers to engage in unsustainable behaviors when an extreme emphasis on the "youthful self" translate into irresponsible behaviors at the destination (Cohen, 2011; Scheyvens, 2002). This suggests the possibility of backpacker motivation to trigger divergent behavioral outcomes. For the most part, the two conflicting (un)sustainable behavioral outcomes of backpacker motivations in this study lay further claims that backpackers have varied levels of motivations as suggested in backpacker motivation-based cluster studies (Chen et al., 2014). It can also be argued from a mobility perspective that when backpackers are highly motivated to backpack at a destination, they become sensitive to the beneficial outcomes of their visits since sustainability exists in their practices as confirmed by studies in Hong Kong (Nok et al., 2017) and Australia (Iaquinto, 2018).

Perceived positive impacts of backpacking had a positive influence on both backpackers' sustainable behavior and backpacker satisfaction as reflected in both environmental psychology and tourism sustainability studies (Cottrell et al., 2004; Mainieri et al., 1997) as well as tourism impacts studies (Ko & Stewart, 2002; Prayag et al., 2018). Backpackers who engaged in sustainable behaviors are more satisfied, confirming the findings of previous studies (Kastenholz et al., 2018; Nassani et al., 2013). Nonetheless, contrary to the hypothesized relationships, perceived negative

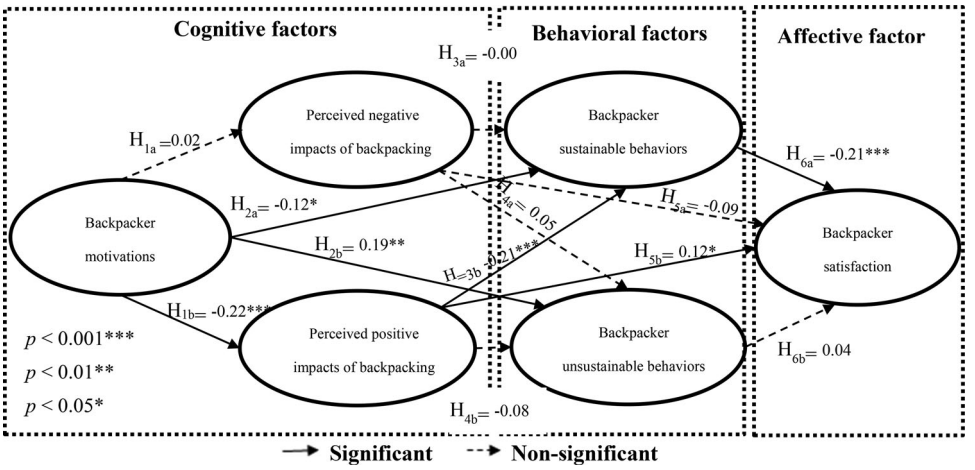

Figure 3. Structural model of backpacker sustainable behavior.

impacts of backpacking did not influence backpacker sustainable behavior, backpacker unsustainable behavior, and backpacker satisfaction. We propose a possible explanation that most backpackers do not perceive themselves as negative travelers and do not prefer to be identified as "tourists" as confirmed in most backpacker social identity theory studies (Zhang et al., 2018). Having such a positive mindset of themselves is reflected in their perceptions of their impacts on the destination, which subsequently influences how they behave and their emotional appraisal of the destination.

Moreover, backpacker unsustainable behaviors did not have a negative influence on backpacker satisfaction contrary to rural tourist studies that suggest that travelers who behave unsustainably are less satisfied (e.g., Kastenholz et al., 2018). This finding implies that there is a possibility for a positive relationship where backpackers attain satisfaction from unsustainable behaviors. This is because as experienced travelers, backpackers demonstrate their satisfaction by bargaining for cheap prices of local products (Riley, 1988). This partially explains why they have been banned from third world countries, including Bhutan and Maldives (Scheyvens, 2002).

Finally, backpacker motivations did not influence the perceived negative impacts of backpacking and perceived positive impacts of backpacking did not influence backpacker unsustainable behavior. Overall, the findings suggest that backpacker motivations have a wider variety of influence on behavior than the perceived impacts of backpacking within the tri-component attitude model (Abdulrazak & Quoquab, 2018). This suggests that backpackers are purposeful travelers seeking to fulfill different motivational needs by engaging in both sustainable and unsustainable actions (Ooi & Laing, 2010).

Theoretical implications

This study adds to knowledge and understanding of how backpackers contribute to sustainable tourism development in developing destinations in three ways. First, backpackers have the tendency to act sustainably because of their motivations and perceived positive impacts of backpacking as many of these young travelers perceive backpacking as a one-time opportunity to experience foreign countries and cultures (O'Reilly, 2006). The overarching positive thoughts of backpackers imply that negative perceptions do not explain backpackers' sustainable behavior and satisfaction. The study, thus, builds on the existing literature by identifying two significant cognitive factors that underlie backpackers' sustainable actions.

Second, the tendency for backpackers to engage in unsustainable behaviors does not derive from the perceived negative impacts and perceived positive impacts of backpacking but rather

because of the inclination to satisfy their positive internal and external motivations. Hence, positive internal and external motivations may not always translate into sustainable backpacker behaviors since backpackers are not mindful of sustainability. Therefore, this study sheds light on the need for a change from "inadvertent sustainability" to "intentional sustainability" by reconceptualizing backpacker motivations within a sustainable development framework. Third, the study contributes to an understanding of the complexity of backpackers' sustainable attitude and behavior as the findings demonstrate that backpacker satisfaction may stem from the perceived positive impacts of their travel and sustainable behaviors at the destination.

Practical implications

The study holds two practical implications for destination management organizations and global tourism organizations towards achieving UN Sustainable Development Goal 12 (responsible consumption). First, the finding that backpackers who engage in sustainable behaviors become more satisfied implies that destination management organization should focus more attention on packaging and marketing services and recreational activities that will stimulate backpackers to behave sustainably and gain satisfaction. For example, destination management organizations can emphasize the packaging of eco-friendly tours, cultural displays, patronage of local products and services, etc. while discouraging visits to psychedelic enclaves, engaging in prostitution and drug trade and other overly consumptive behaviors.

Second, reconceptualizing backpacker motivations within a sustainable development framework, practically speaking, requires both global and local tourism organizations to develop awareness and advertisement campaigns that align backpacker motivations with backpacker sustainable behaviors. For example, backpackers could be encouraged by global tourism organizations' websites to buy and choose environmentally friendly accommodation in order to learn about the destination's environmental practices and contribute to local economy, read the history of their chosen destination in order to explain and ask relevant questions, and interact with local residents in order to understand and learn about the destination's culture. By aligning motivational needs with sustainable behaviors, unsustainable actions will be minimized and backpacker tourism will become more sustainable and satisfying.

Limitations and suggestions for future research

The limitations of the study provide an opportunity for future research. First, the study sample is limited to one context (Cape Coast); hence, the results may not be generalizable to tourists in other settings. Therefore, future research can test the proposed model on other backpacker groups in different contexts. Second, although both backpacker (un)sustainable behaviors and perceived impact of backpacking measures, in this study, focused on major triple bottom line questions, these measures can be expanded in future studies. Finally, while we ensured direct reduction of social desirability bias through anonymity and confidentiality assurances, we acknowledge that the negative measures of perceived negative impacts of backpacking and backpacker unsustainable behavior may influence such biases.

Conclusions

As part of achieving UN Sustainable Development Goal 12, destination management organizations and global tourism organizations need to understand how they can direct backpackers' attitudes and behaviors towards a more sustainable path. One way of achieving this objective is to investigate the complex relationships among cognitive, behavioral, and affective components of backpacker tourism. Against this backdrop, the present study examined the relationship

among backpacker motivations, perceived impacts of backpacking, backpacker sustainable and unsustainable behaviors, and backpacker satisfaction to determine the influence of motivations and perceived impacts of backpacking on backpacker (un)sustainable behaviors and backpacker satisfaction. Overall, it was found that backpackers have positive perceptions of their impacts and frequently engage in sustainable behaviors than unsustainable behaviors. While both backpacker motivations and perceived positive impacts of backpacking influence sustainable behaviors, only backpacker motivation is a significant predictor of backpacker unsustainable behaviors. Moreover, the perceived negative impact of backpacking is an insignificant predictor of backpacker (un)sustainable behaviors and backpacker satisfaction. Finally, no adverse relationship was observed between backpacker unsustainable behavior and backpacker satisfaction. Strategies that instill "intentional sustainability" are crucial for sustainable consumption behaviors and backpacker satisfaction.

Notes on contributors

Elizabeth Agyeiwaah is an Assistant Professor at the Faculty of Hospitality and Tourism Management, Macau University of Science and Technology, Avenida Wai Long, Taipa, Macau. She received her PhD at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. Her research interests include sustainable tourism development, small and medium tourism enterprises, and tourist studies.

Frederick Dayour is a lecturer at the Department of Community Development, University for Development Studies, Ghana and Research Associate at the School of Tourism and Hospitality, University of Johannesburg, South Africa. His research interests comprise ICTs in tourism, tourist behaviours, consumer risk perception, backpacking, and tourism and terrorism.

Felix Elvis Otoo is with Institute for Hospitality and Tourism Studies, Duy Tan University, Da Nang, Vietnam. He received his Ph.D. at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. His research interests include volunteer tourism, nonprofit and social work, ecotourism, tourists' behavior, as well as tourism and climate studies.

Goh, Ben K. is a Professor and Dean at the Faculty of Hospitality and Tourism Management, Macau University of Science and Technology. His research interests include Workforce Development and Strategic Organizational Management.

ORCID

Elizabeth Agyeiwaah http://orcid.org/0000-0002-8357-0011
Felix Elvis Otoo http://orcid.org/0000-0003-2803-3835

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