AKDENIZ UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

Sidal YAŞAR

BACKPACKERS IN TURKEY:

A MOTIVATION BASED SEGMENTATION

Department of Tourism Management

International Tourism Management Program

Master Thesis

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Doç. Dr. Tahir ALBAYRAK

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ATLAS	Association for Tourism and Leisure Studies
BRG	Backpacker Research Group
ISTC	International Student Travel Confederation
IYHF	International Youth Hostel Federation
KMO	Kaiser Meier Olkin
STCRC	Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre
TCL	Travel Career Ladder
TCP	Travel Career Pattern
TURSAB	Association of Turkish Travel Agencies
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization
YHA	Youth Hostel Association

SUMMARY

This study aimed to make a motivation-based segmentation of the domestic backpacker market in Turkey by examining backpackers' demographic characteristics, travel and accommodation preferences, social media usage habits and travel motivations. In this regard, an online survey was conducted on seven different backpacker specific communities on Facebook which resulted in the participation of 271 individuals. As a result of the analyses, seven underlying motivational factors of Turkish backpackers were extracted: *Relaxation, Cultural Growth, Road Culture, Independence, Personal Growth, Social Growth and Social Attendance*. Following, K-means cluster analysis identified four distinct backpacker groups with different travel motivations. 1) Absolute Explorers; 2) Loneliness Seekers; 3) Self-developers; 4) Social Traditionalists.

Keywords: Backpackers, Travel Motivation, Turkey, Social Media Preferences

ÖZET

TÜRKİYE'DEKİ SIRT ÇANTALILAR: MOTİVASYON TEMELLİ BÖLÜMLEME

Bu çalışmada, Türkiye'de seyahat eden yerel sırt çantalı turistlerin demografik özellikleri, seyahat ve konaklama tercihleri, sosyal medya kullanım alışkanlıkları ve seyahat motivasyonları araştırılarak turistlerin seyahat motivasyonlarına dayalı bir pazar bölümlendirmesi yapılması hedeflenmiştir. Bu bağlamda, 2018 yılının Ocak ve Mart ayları arasında Facebook üzerinden sırt çantalı temalı yedi farklı topluluğa yapılan çevrim içi anket çalışması, 271 kişinin katılımı ile sonuçlanmıştır. Yapılan analizler sonucunda Türkiye'deki sırt çantalı turistlere dair yedi ayrı motivasyon faktörü tanımlanmıştır: *Rahatlama, Kültürel Gelişim, Yol Kültürü, Özgürlük, Kişisel Gelişim, Sosyal Gelişim ve Sosyal Katılım.* Akabinde yapılan K-means kümeleme analizi sonucunda farklı motivasyonlara sahip dört farklı sırt çantalı turist grubu belirlenmiştir. 1) Salt Gezginler; 2) Yalnızlık Arayanlar; 3) Kendini Geliştirmek İsteyenler; 4) Sosyal Gelenekselciler

Anahtar Kelimeler: Sırt Çantalı Turist, Seyahat Motivasyonu, Türkiye, Sosyal Medya Tercihleri

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INTRODUCTION

Turkey, a developing country in the world, has made a remarkable progress in tourism, reaching its peak of international arrivals with almost 42 million tourists in 2014 (UNWTO, 2018). Despite this significant achievement, it is currently experiencing a negative time period, which caused an adverse impact on the tourism industry. Recent global political crises have had a considerable negative impact on inbound tourist numbers, decreasing to 30 million in 2016 (UNWTO, 2018). As a direct result of this, more than ever before, both the industry and the academy are investigating alternative tourism products to mass tourism which is heavily dependent on the international tourism.

Foreign tourism is considered as the main drive of fast economic development by policy makers in most of less developed countries (Hampton, 1998: 640). However, domestic tourism in many countries is considered as the building block of the industry. The domestic tourism statistics of advanced countries in the industry clearly reflect this issue. For example, the expenditure of local tourist generates 60% of the total tourist expenditure in countries such as U.S.A. and France (Özel, 2010: 98). Domestic tourism is also considered as a sociocultural contributor to the country and its citizens. Through a domestic movement, tourists might explore different cultures in different geographic regions of a country. This could also contribute to a mutual understanding between different cultural groups (Jafari, 1986: 36; Özdemir, 1999: 160). In this respect, the current study aims to explore domestic backpackers' characteristics and their travel motivation in culturally rich and diverse country of Turkey.

Previous studies demonstrated that backpacker tourists have positive impact on the local economy, especially in developing countries. By comparing conventional mass tourism with backpacker tourism, Hampton (1998: 639, 655) discussed that even though it is unrealistic to expect backpacker tourism to replace mass tourism, backpacker market has economic benefits to less developed destinations. Because, backpackers are more likely to travel to less developed regions, stay for longer terms and generally purchase locally produced goods and services than other types of tourists (Scheyvens, 2002: 152; Paris and Teye, 2010: 245).

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) recently published a report about youth tourism. One of the main characteristics of youth travellers identified in this report was that they have a strong motivation to interact with local cultures. The report also estimated that 23% of all international travels were generated by the youth and student travellers who aged 15 to 29 (Global Report on The Power of Youth Travel, 2016). In addition to this, The Association of Turkish Travel Agencies (TURSAB) also published a report about youth

tourism in 2015. This report indicated that 25 % of the total domestic travel movement was made by the youth. Since the backpacker tourism is mostly recognized as a youth movement (Tourism Australia), there is a great potential of an emerging backpacker market in Turkey.

Alongside the growth of youth tourism, backpacker market is also a globally developing market. Despite this growth, there are only few studies about backpackers in Turkish tourism literature (Harman et al., 2013; Harman, 2014). In addition to the scarcity of the studies, there's also other limitations. The study of Harman et al. (2013), for example, examined only the international backpackers visiting Istanbul. Following, although the sample of the Harman's (2014) second study were consisted of domestic backpackers from an internet community, his research approached them as Turkish independent travellers.

Therefore, in order to uncover the scientifically unexplored domestic backpacker market in Turkey, this study aims to investigate Turkish backpackers from various aspects. The objectives of the study are:

a) To explore the socio-demographic characteristics of backpackers,
b) To find out what sources used by backpackers' for obtaining travel information,
c) To investigate backpackers' transportation and accommodation preferences,
d) To understand backpackers' social media usage habits,
e) To identify backpacker's motivational factors for travelling in Turkey,
f) To classify backpackers into different segments based on their motivations.

CHAPTER ONE
THE BACKPACKERS

1.1. Origins of Backpacker Travel

In search of the origins of backpacker travel, one needs to overview various traditions within the broader history of tourism. This involves the Grand Tour, tramping and the youth hostel movement, the concept of non-institutionalized tourism as well as the significance of terms such as drifter, youth tourism and alternative tourism (Loker-Murphy and Pearce, 1995: 820). Between 16th and 18th centuries, travel was considered as a way of education which formed the philosophy of the Grand Tour in Europe (Porges, 1981: 173). The Grand Tour, once a movement of the young nobles to grow mature and expand their knowledge in arts and science, is still considered as the initiator of modern tourism today (Gyr, 2003: 9). By quoting from Michel de Montaigne, Porges (2017: 11, 12) noted "A mere bookish learning is a poor, paltry learning". He also pointed out that an individual's method of learning about the world shifted from reading books alone to a voyage where an adventure and interactions with other people took place (Porges, 2017). While the rich people could travel freely for educational and pleasure purposes, the poor people had to have acceptable reasons to legitimize their travels from one place to another (Adler, 1985: 337, 338). However, once belonging only to aristocratic youth, The Grand Tour gradually democratized in the 19th century and was embraced by the middle class. The framework which could be seen in Figure 1.1 demonstrates the evolution of the backpacker phenomenon. The typologies such as tramp, beatnik, hippie, drifter, wanderer and youth travellers as the archetypes of backpacker phenomenon in Figure 1.1 are explained in the following sub sections.

1.1.1. The Tramp

One of the classes that emerged from the democratized upper-class tradition of the Grand Tour was the youth of the English tramping system, which was a well-institutionalized travel pattern (Adler, 1985: 335). Especially, during the Victorian Era, almost every business had a custom of sending its young and unmarried members, 'on tramp' from town to town for the purpose of labour exchange. This system also functioned as a form where unemployed young men could travel following certain circuits in search of work. The tramps in search of employment used to carry an identification card which presented their qualifications and trade membership in order to request a bed and a job from various inns which belonged to the craft

Key Motives

Education/
Self-development

Employment/Training
Subsidiary Leisure

Temporary Escape from
Urban life/Health & fitness

17th Century

The Grand Tour
(Travel as education)

Craft Guilds
↓
Tramping for work
↓

18th Century

**Youth Movement/
Wanderwogel**
↓
**Youth Hostel
Association**

19th Century

**Tramping for
touristic purposes**

**Hitchhiking
Students and Middle-Class Youth**

1950's

Defining Feature
Activity, Transport

Beatniks and Hippies

1960's

Defining Feature
Alienation

Drifters and Wanderers

1970's

Defining Feature
**Low social/spatial
organisation**

1980's

Modern Youth Tourism

Contemporary Backpackers

Defining features

- **Age**
- **Increasing degree of
independence from family**

1990's

Defining features

- **Preference for budget accommodation**
- **Emphasis on meeting other people**
- **Independently organised/flexible travel
schedule**
- **Longer rather than brief holidays**
- **Emphasis on informal/participatory
activities**

Figure 1.1 An Evolutionary Framework of Backpacker Phenomenon
Source: Adapted from Loker-Murphey and Pearce, 1995: 821

associations and guilds on their road (Adler, 1985: 338). There are two main reasons why the tramping system came to an end; firstly, the increased industrialization which attracted labour forces into the city centres and secondly the consequences of the World War I (Adler, 1985: 340). Thereafter, the tramps' main purpose was no longer to find a job, but instead they were on the road as homeless wanderlusts. Adler's citation from the book The Hobo[1] (1923) clearly reveals the connection of the evaluation of tramping movement into a tourism activity. Below, a neighbourhood in Chicago where hobos were populated are described in detail (Adler, 1985: 343):

Most of the men seen here are young, at any rate they are men under middle age; restless, seeking, they parade the streets and scan the signs. . . Eager to "ship" somewhere, they are generally interested in a job as a means to reach a destination. The result is that distant jobs are in demand while good paying local jobs usually go begging.

The tramping was also seen as an opportunity to travel for many hobos and tramps. There was a saying among tramps (Figure 1.2) as "working the ticket" referring to the practice of earning money to travel another destination (Adler, 1985: 341). Loker-Murphy and Pearce (1995: 822) supported the idea that the motives of spontaneous employment and training of the contemporary backpackers on the road were based on the characteristics of the tramping tradition. In a recent study, Cohen (2011: 1547) also pointed out individual backpackers travelling as a lifestyle who only works to afford the next trip.
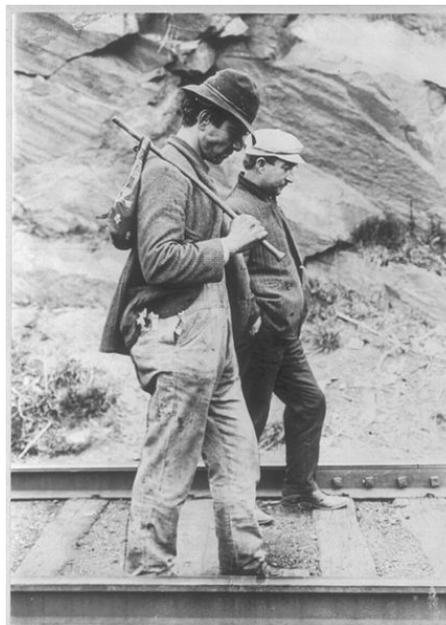
Figure 1.2 A tramp riding the rail in search of employment during the Great Depression in U.S.A in 1930s
Source: http://afflictor.com/2010/08/25/great-photography-hoboes-from-back-in-the-day/ (access date: 23.05.2018)

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[1] Homeless person who travels; a tramp as a migrant labourer ("Hobo", 2018; Adler, 1985: 352)

1.1.2. The Beat Generation and the Hippies

The Beat generation was one of the first counter-culture found in the society of United States of America (U.S.A) during the 1950s. The beat generation was a group of writers from different nationalities who observed strange cultural shifts in the American society following the World War II. In their works, they sought for an alternative lifestyle beyond traditional values and demonstrated rebellious attitudes such as drug use and liberal sexuality. Jack Kerouac was an iconic image of this generation, who wrote the book called "On the Road" in 1951, which then became a classic in the Beat literature. The novel (Kerouac, 2007) was based on Kerouac's free spirit road trips where he was mostly hitchhiking across the United States and Mexico. Even though, the beat generation manifested a literary movement, they had a great influence on the upcoming movement of hippies for hitting the road.[2]

Hippie movement, in 1960s, mainly started by the students in the U.S.A both as a stance against the American lifestyle and as an opposition to U.S. invasion of Vietnam. They were also called as the "flower children" because of their demonstrations against wars, with slogans such as "make love, not war". The hippies were consisted of individuals who felt alienated from the materialistic and industrialised society and attempted to develop their own alternative lifestyle like the beat generation.[3]
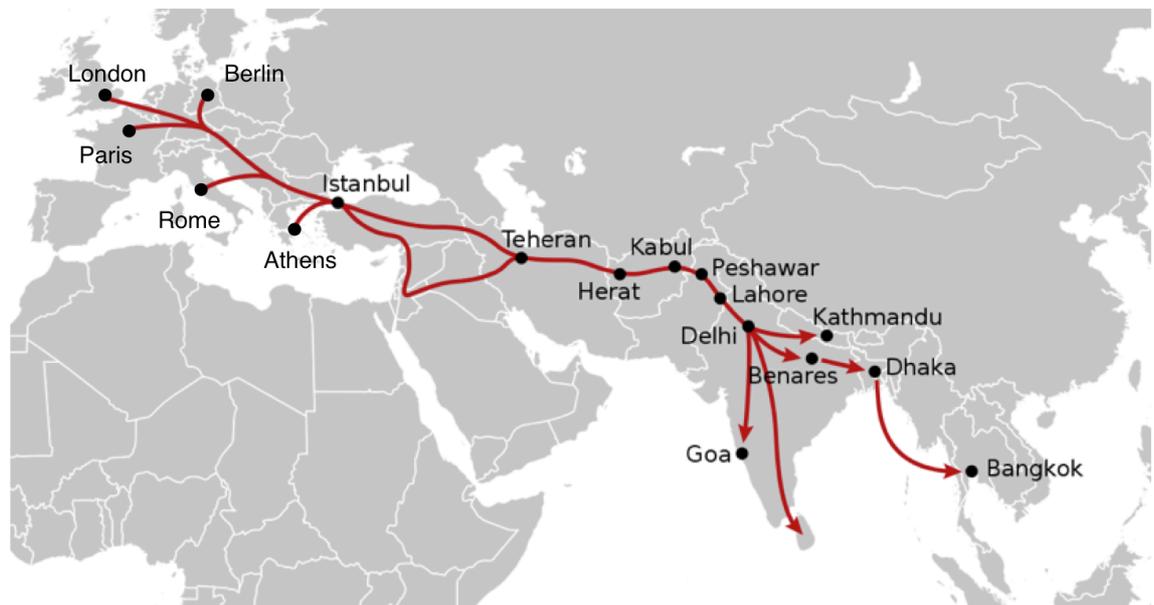
Figure 1.3 The Hippie Trail
Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hippie_trail (access date 18.05.2018)

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[2] https://theculturetrip.com/north-america/usa/california/articles/the-history-of-the-hippie-cultural-movement (access date.04.2018);
http://www.creativitypost.com/arts/the_beat_generation_worldview_in_kerouacs_on_the_road (access date: 23.04.2018)
[3] https://www.britannica.com/topic/hippie (access date: 23.04.2018)

The hippies from the capitalist West, and the hippies from communist East Europe travelled together to the Eastern parts of the World to express their freedom through nature, love, peace, mysticism. (Hellum, 2010: 173). They travelled from the UK and mainland Europe to Turkey and from there to Iran, Afghanistan, Pakistan, India, Nepal and Thailand (Figure 1.3).

Figure 1.4 The famous Pudding Shop in Sultanahmet, Istanbul
Source: http://www.messynessychic.com/2014/03/11/road-trip-to-afghanistan-snapshots-from-the-lost-hippie-trail/ (access date: 23.04.2018)

Istanbul was the main meeting point where the hippie-trail essentially began. The Lale Restaurant in Sultanahmet (Figure 1.4) also known as the pudding shop, was a very popular stop among hippies and travellers to the East. The restaurant's bulletin board served as an informal travel information sharing tool and a communication channel between over lander travellers. Many hippie communities with an alternative lifestyle could be found around the world by the end of the 1970s. They did not only exclude themselves from the norms of the Western life, but they also established a particular way of travelling as a reaction to the economic and political interests of the developing tourism sector (Cohen, 1973 as cited in Hellum, 2010: 174). Their distinctive travel consumption was centred on the local services, for example they would travel by local transportation, stay in local guest houses, and eat in local restaurants. These ideological characteristics of hippies still exist strongly among present-day backpackers (Westerhausen and Macbeth, 2003; Visser, 2003; Hellum, 2010). Furthermore,

some studies pointed out that today's backpackers have a positive impact on the local economies (Hampton, 1998; Scheyvens, 2002).
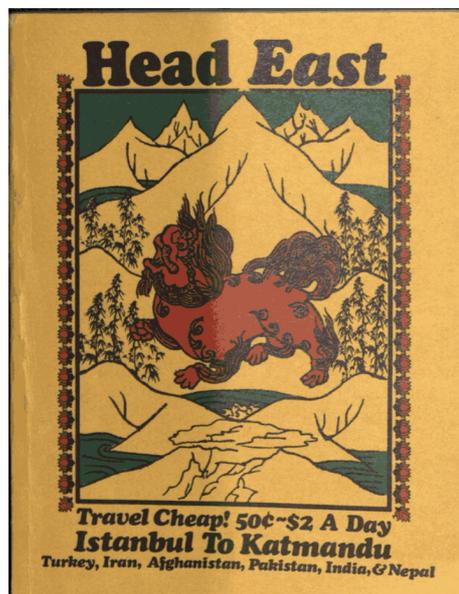
Figure 1.5 A Leaflet from a Travel Company and a Group of Hippies Near Lebanon
Source: http://www.midafternoonmap.com/2013/10/the-hippie-trail.html (access date: 24.05.2018);
http://www.messynessychic.com/2014/03/11/road-trip-to-afghanistan-snapshots-from-the-lost-hippie-trail/
(access date: 23.04.2018)

1.1.3. Drifter and Wanderer

The drifter is a type of tourist derived from the Cohen's (1972) tourist typology, who mainly participate in nature-based activities. In Cohen's study drifters were categorized as non-institutionalized tourists, known as individual tourists (as cited in Albayrak and Caber, 2017: 3). The conceptualization of the 'drifter' dates back to one of Cohen's personal experiences (Cohen, 2003: 96). He meets a young German guy while he is on a field-work in the central Andres of Peru in the late 1960s. The German approaches and asks Cohen if he could stay in his flat for several days. Later, Cohen finds out that the German arrived in Peruvian Sierra by passing in the wilderness over the Amazon River and its tributaries all the way from the Atlantic coastal regions of Brazil, which took around seven months. This self-reliant German guy has become Cohen's prototype of the 'original drifter' (Cohen, 1973 as cited in Cohen, 2003: 97). Although Cohen (2003: 96) does not directly link drifters with hippie movement, he points out that the origins of drifters come from the alienation of the youth from their societies in the U.S. and Western Europe, which is actually the same starting point of the hippie movement. Moreover, similar to hippies, drifters are also associated with the student revolutions of the 1960s. Cohen (2003: 105) argues that their attempts for creating alternative lifestyles elsewhere

was a reaction to Vietnam War. (Cohen, 1972: 168 as cited in Cohen, 2015: 1; Cohen 2003: 96).

Drifters are defined as international individuals, who venture away not only from their traditional and comfortable lives in their home countries, but also further away from the beaten track. They avoid establishments of tourism industry and have no fixed travel plan or a time table, neither a well-defined destination to reach. The drifters are mostly on extended break from their adulthood responsibilities and seek for spontaneous adventures and excitements. Moreover, they tend to wholly adapt themselves in local cultures that they are interacting with (Loker-Murphy and Pearce, 1995: 823; Paris, 2008: 7; Cohen, 2015: 1). On the other hand, the wanderer is a term proposed by Vogt (1976) as a tourist typology. A wanderer was described as a young traveller who arranges and plans his/her travel independently as opposite to mass tourists and seek a direct cultural contact, spontaneity, novelty, and risk. Different from the ideologies of drifters, wanderers were mainly motivated to travel by the need for independence, that is to say in search of personal growth and self-understanding (Loker-Murphy and Pearce, 1995: 823).

Although the drifter is the most commonly acknowledged and cited term in the literature as an ideal to contemporary backpackers, some scholars criticized this view. For example, Sørensen (2003: 852) discussed that today's backpackers do not reflect the characteristics of the Cohen's (1973) drifter. He also stated that contemporary backpackers are on the road only temporarily, with clear intentions of going back to "normal" life. In addition, O'Reilly (2006: 1000, 1014) suggested that the term drifter is no longer accurate for defining characteristics of today's backpackers, since the backpacking travel is no longer an alternative, but a mainstream activity. Cohen (1973: 90) also noted that the routes used by the early drifters started to become institutionalised, parallel to mass tourism (as cited in Godfrey, 2011: 14). Furthermore, Godfrey (2011: 14) stated that the popular routes of drifters have been gradually adopted by mainstream backpackers.

1.1.4. Youth Tourism

According to Loker-Murphy and Pearce (1995: 822), similar to the previously explained tourism movements of hippies and drifters, the development of youth tourism was initiated by the industrialization of the 19th century. In an attempt to get away from the rough conditions of the urban life, young adults from relatively richer countries of Europe were driven to spend their leisure time in the countryside to explore the beauties of the untouched natural landscapes. During the mid 1850s, Christian youth associations were officially founded in London to offer

cultural activities and provide accommodation facilities for the young Christians who were travelling to the other parts of England and outside the UK. By the 20th century, there were a range of youth organizations across Europe that contributed to create the appropriate conditions for the development of the youth tourism. In 1909, a German teacher called Richard Schirmann transformed a village school into a dormitory in order to accommodate students during the holiday season. In the following year, he persuaded the public authorities to make use of Altena Castle[4], as a place to house students. Later in 1919, the castle became the first hostel of the formally established Youth Hostel Association (YHA). In 1932, eleven associations across Europe founded the International Youth Hostel Federation (IYHF) in Amsterdam.[5]

In 2011, the HiHostels as an umbrella trade mark representing all the YHAs around the world announced that there were over than 4,000 hostels in 80 different countries[6], which could give an opinion about how the youth tourism movement became a mass phenomenon. The importance of the youth tourism market is increasing rapidly. In 2015, UNWTO estimated that 23% of all international travels were generated by youth and student travellers who ages 15 to 29 (Global Report on The Power of Youth Travel 2016). One of the most important characteristics of this youth population appeared to be their motivation to interact with local cultures and to spend their leisure time 'living like a local' which result a positive impact on the local economies. Since backpackers are young travellers, they are often considered in the youth tourism by official tourism authorities such as Tourism Australia.[7] Association of Turkish Travel Agencies (TURSAB) defines youth tourism as the sum of activities including transportation, accommodation and guiding services centred around education, sport, culture and entertainment. According to TURSAB (2015) report on youth tourism, the young population represents the 25% of the total domestic tourism movement, which could be an indicator of a possible domestic backpacker market in Turkey.

1.2. The Backpackers

The evolution of the marginal travel practice of hippies, drifters and wanderers transformed into the "backpacking" travel which is embraced by young people in search of freedom, personal development, and fulfilment (O'Reilly, 2006: 998). Starting from the late 90s, backpacker studies increased in the academic literature, especially in Australia (O'Reilly, 2006: 1000). In 1990, the term "backpacker" was initially introduced to the academic literature

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[4] http://intohistory.com/castle-hostel-altena/ (access date: 25.05.2018)
[5] http://blog.hihostels.com/2011/05/brief-history-of-hostelling/ (access date: 25.05.2018)
[6] http://blog.hihostels.com/2011/05/brief-history-of-hostelling/ (access date: 25.05.2018).
[7] http://www.tourism.australia.com/en/search.html?q=backpacker (access date: 18.05.2018)

by Philip L. Pearce. The concept of backpacking was generally categorized as a distinct form of tourism, and the practices of backpackers in the tourism movement were mostly differentiated from mainstream tourists (O'Regan, 2010 :87). Pearce (1990) identified five criteria distinguishing backpackers from other types of tourists: "a preference for budget accommodation", "an emphasis on meeting other travellers", "an independently organized and flexible travel schedule", "longer rather than brief holidays", and "an emphasis on informal and participatory holiday activities" (Pearce and Foster 2007: 1285; Paris, 2008: 9).

Budget accommodation is the central characteristic of the backpackers. Various scholars used this dimension as the identifying feature of backpackers (Loker-Murphy and Pearce, 1995; Nash et al., 2006; Pearce et al., 2009; Larsen et al., 2011). On the other hand, a significant number of the backpacker studies selected budget accommodation facilities such as youth hostel association (YHA) hostels, private hostels, camp sites and guest houses for their research area (Murphy, 2000; Mohsin and Ryan, 2003; Pearce and Foster, 2007; Pearce et al., 2009; Ooi and Laing, 2010; Harman et al., 2013; Hsu et al., 2014; Nok et al., 2017).

In regards to meeting other travellers, there are numerous studies indicating that backpackers are socially driven travellers in search of making new friends and interacting with fellow travellers or individuals from local cultures (Loker-Murphy 1997; Murphy 2001; Richard and Wilson, 2002; Mohsin and Ryan 2003; Maoz 2007; Paris and Teye 2010; Harman et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2014; Nok et al., 2017).

On the other hand, it is generally accepted that international backpackers tend to travel for long terms (Paris, 2008: 10). Loker-Murphy and Pearce (1995: 835) revealed that majority of the backpackers stayed in Australia for 4 to 12 weeks. O'Reilly (2006: 1014) studied 50 backpackers during two-year period and found out that some tend to travel for several months and others travel for several years. In another study (Cohen, 2011: 1541) backpackers stated that they had a travel experience between 3 to 17 years. Cohen (2011: 1535) recognized those backpackers as "lifestyle travellers" and labelled them as contemporary drifters. However, some studies revealed very shorter terms of stays among backpackers. For example, Hsu et al. (2014) studied international backpackers in Shanghai and examined their average length of stay. It was found that while the first-time backpackers tended to stay 6.44 days, the second-time backpackers stayed for 7.50 days (Hsu et al., 2014: 60).

Although some early researchers defined backpackers as having independently organized and flexible travel schedule (Pearce, 1990), this might be changing as the backpacker tourism is getting more of a mainstream phenomenon similar to the mass tourism. Sørensen, (2003) having spent 23 months on the field both as a backpacker and a researcher between 1993

and 2003 in different continents, found out that some of the backpackers arrange their airport transfers, and initial accommodation facility prior to their journey as well as having fixed dates of their return flights.

Concerning the activities of backpackers, Paris (2008: 17) stated that similar to other mass tourists, today's backpackers might visit popular sightseeing attractions at a destination. A global research (Richard and Wilson, 2004: 28) revealed that backpackers undertake activities such as visiting historical sites and monuments, walking and trekking, sitting in cafes or restaurants, shopping, visiting museums, attending cultural events, and sometimes working as volunteer or just to earn money. Pearce et al. (2009: 34) found out that international backpackers visiting Australia are mostly interested in activities such as socialising, enjoying beach and sun, urban sightseeing, interaction with nature, working in community. Reichel et al. (2009: 237), on the other hand, observed Israeli backpackers in South America involving adventurous sport activities in natural settings, such as trekking or mountain climbing. They also revealed that Israeli backpackers in Southeast Asia were mainly interested in experiencing drugs associated with a motivation of spiritual growth. In a similar vein, Maoz (2007: 128) also observed many Israeli backpackers spending their entire days and nights just eating, drinking smoking drugs and sleeping in some of the Israeli enclaves in India.

In addition to Pearce's five criteria, Nash et al. (2006: 526) used the age dimension as a supplementary criteria and defined the backpackers as travellers, aged between 20 to 24. In most of studies, the age is considered as one of the main characteristics of the backpackers. For example, Richards and Wilson (2004: 18) who conducted a global study with over 2300 international backpackers, found that more than 60% of the respondents were between 20 and 25 years old. On the other hand, Pearce et al. (2009: 25) found that the average age of 1555 international backpackers visiting Australia was 27. Even though different studies present inconsistent results regarding the age of backpackers, most backpackers tend to be relatively young individuals (Slaughter, 2004: 174). O'Reilly (2006: 1000) noted that young individuals are more enthusiastic to identify themselves as backpackers, while older ones choose to be called as traveller.

Paris (2010: 40) discussed that backpacking as a subculture has become very mainstreamed and lost connection with its roots of the counterculture ideology growing from the beatnik and hippie movements. He stated that the reasons of this disconnection could be found in the developments of the information and communication technologies. Today, most of the mainstream backpackers are virtually travelling, which means no matter where they are, they are connected with their networks of social life, home life and work life through

cyberspace, emails, social networking services, online communities, blogs and other internet-based technologies. This connection allows them to extent their personal identity during their journeys (Paris, 2010: 41, 43). Paris conducted an online global research to observe the backpacker's interactions between internet, communication technologies and the physical travel. Through a self-administered survey, respondents were asked to indicate their use and perception of the internet based on their last backpacking trip. Additionally, the questions were measured on a five-point Likert type scale. Finally, 117 backpackers from 15 backpacker-specific online communities participated to the research.

The majority of the backpackers indicated that they used the internet prior to their journey for information search regarding their target destination (mean= 4.61). Moreover, they searched backpacker forums and online backpacker travel communities (4.19), backpacker's blogs and websites (3.45). In addition, backpackers also indicated that they asked tips for their upcoming journeys from friends, family and other travellers online (3.79). However, guide books (e.g. Lonely Planet) were still popular among backpackers (4.38) (Paris 2010: 51).

On the other hand, backpackers stated that they use email to stay in touch with friends and family back home while on the road (4.51). Furthermore, they reported that their email addresses and/or social networking profiles represented their real address while away from home (3.89). Moreover, they preferred to stay at hostels with free internet or wi-fi connections (3.76). Furthermore, they added friends met during their trip to their social networking sites such as Facebook, Instagram, Myspace. (3. 73), made online bookings for future travel (3.70), used social networking sites to stay in touch with friends and family back home (3.49), and used online backpacker communities to find information for the rest of their journey (3.39). An interesting finding was that backpackers tended to change their travel plans during the trip after finding information online (3.56) (Paris 2010: 54).

Finally, regarding the post-trip online behaviour, backpackers reported that they uploaded pictures to share their travel experiences with their acquaintances and fellow travellers (4.24) and viewed pictures or videos which were posted online by the other travellers met during the journey (4.10). Moreover, they tended to keep the connection with the travellers met during the trip through the internet by using e-mails (3.93) or social networking sites (3.67). An important finding revealed that the experiences of other travellers which were shared online influenced backpackers to travel more (3.68). Additionally, the study reported that 96.4% of the backpackers carried a digital camera with themselves on the road. Other technological gadgets carried by backpackers during the journey were iPod/Mp3 player (64.9%), cell phone (64.9%), laptop (20.8%), video camera (6.6%), PDA (3.9%) (Paris 2010: 56, 58).

Today there is a relatively new term called 'Flashpacker' which is used for describing a backpacker with a greater disposable income. Although, flashpackers share similar characteristics with backpackers, they tend to travel with greater comfort and mix low cost and luxury travel. They mostly travel with technological gadgets such as laptops, digital cameras, mobile phones, music/video players, even GPS devices (Tourism Western Australia, 2008).

1.3. Characteristics of the Backpackers

The mainstream backpacker movement led to greater research projects, investigating the market world-wide. In 2002, a group of international researchers held a meeting in Bangkok which resulted in the creation of a 'Backpacker Research Group' (BRG) under the umbrella of the Association for Tourism and Leisure Studies (ATLAS) (Cohen, 2006: 11). In the same year, BRG conducted a large-scale transnational survey in collaboration with International Student Travel Confederation (ISTC). Over 2300 young students and travellers from eight countries, Canada, Czech Republic, Hong Kong, Mexico, Slovenia, South Africa, Sweden and the UK participated in the study (Richard and Wilson, 2004: 14, 15, 16). Alongside the examinations of participant's background, motivations, experience and behaviour, the respondents were also asked to classify themselves as either 'backpacker', 'traveller' or 'tourist'. One of the findings of this comprehensive research was the world-wide destination preferences of the participants. Table 1.1 indicates that backpackers were highly interested in travelling to South Asian destinations, such as Vietnam, Thailand, India, New Zealand, Australia. Turkey, on the other hand, once being a very important destination for hippies to start their journey on the hippie trail was still an attractive destination for backpackers of the 21st Century.

Table 1.1 Destinations Visited by the Participants of BRG Research

Destination	% visitors to destination		
	Backpacker	**Traveller**	**Tourist**
Australia	49.5	38.3	12.2
Canada	26.7	53.4	19.8
France	35.4	48.9	15.7
India	66.7	29.6	3.7
New Zealand	65.0	35.0	0
Thailand	75.4	20.3	4.2
Turkey	40.7	31.5	27.8
UK	30.8	52.2	17.0
USA	22.8	61.7	15.6
Vietnam	87.5	12.5	0

Source: Richard and Wilson, 2004: 21

The ATLAS study also revealed information about the travel characteristics of the backpackers around the world. The majority of the backpackers indicated that they use

backpacker hostels (69%) for accommodation (Richard and Wilson, 2004: 22). The other types of accommodation used by backpackers were as follows: youth hostels (36%), friends and relatives (29 %), independent guest houses (23%), camping (19%), hotels (19%), bed and breakfast (14%), self-catering (6%), caravan (1%). Additionally, the information sources used prior to the departure was reported in the study (Richard and Wilson, 2004: 23). The Internet was the most referred information channel by the backpackers (77.3%). Followed by family and friends (66.8%), guide books (60.5%), travel agency (28.5%), previous visit (21.7%), newspapers and magazine (20.6%), tour operator brochure (12.3%), tourist board (11.5%), television, radio (10.2%), airline (8.6%) and trade shows (1.4%).

A large-scale research project regarding the evolution of the backpacker market and its potential for Australian tourism was conducted by Pearce et al. (2009) in the name of Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre (STCRC). The aim of the research was to develop strategies for a sustainable backpacker market for the future of Australian tourism. The research covered 40 interviews and 8 workshops with stakeholders in Australia, Europe and Thailand, in addition, a quantitative survey with 1555 international backpackers visiting Australia. The backpacker survey had two different data collection process. The face to face survey were conducted in backpacker hostels in eight popular backpacker destinations: Sydney, Melbourne, Adelaide, Tasmania, Perth, Canberra, Gold Coast and Alice Springs in June-July 2009, while online surveys were conducted between November 2008 and March 2009. The majority of the backpackers participated to the research were from European countries (68.3%), mainly from U.K (22.5%) and Germany (15.2%). The research investigated a widescale of subjects related to backpacking travel such as transport, accommodation, trends in technology and information searching, backpacker trends, future travel plans.

The most frequent mode of transport used by backpackers within Australia was airplane (73.1%), followed by long distance bus (55.4%), train (36.9%), backpacker tour bus (27.4%), rental car (29.4%), backpacker caravan (16.8%) and car purchased in Australia (14.%). In terms of the accommodation facilities preferred by backpackers, it is found that backpacker hostels (81%) were the most frequently used type of accommodation, followed by youth hostels (YHA), friends and relatives (24%), camping (21.4%), apartment or flat (15.7%), caravan park (13.6%), caravan (11.2%), hotel/resort (9.3%), motel (8%), bed and breakfast/guest house (5.2%) (Pearce et al., 2009: 31, 32).

The most frequently consulted information source prior to trip was friends and family members (69.8%), followed by travel guide books such as Lonely Planet (58.8%), search engines such as Google (58.3%), other travellers (36.8%), stories/blogs on internet (36.7%). On

the other hand, it was observed that the information channels consulted during the trip were differed. Other travellers, during the trip, became the most referred information source. Additionally, Google was the number one search engine used among backpackers (48%). Online behaviours of backpackers were also investigated. Results indicate that sending email to communicate with friends and relatives at home (83%) and with other travellers (73%) were the most common among backpackers. Posting and looking travel related photos or videos were also popular (55%). In addition, 59% of the participants used Facebook for uploading travel related visual contents. Moreover, Facebook was also the most popular social media to stay in touch with travellers (64%) and friends and relatives at home (58%). At last, the research also investigated what kind of technologies were used by backpackers while travelling. The primary technological item used by backpackers was camera (88%), followed by mobile phone (64%) and MP3/iPod for music (58%) (Pearce et al., 2009: 38, 40, 41).

1.3.1. Research Topics in Backpacker Literature

There are various topics and directions in the academic backpacker research (Pearce et al., 2009: 12). Some of the existing and continuing resarch areas are as follows: gap between the ideology and the practice of backpacking (Cohen, 2004), differences in age, gender and nationalities (Boulware, 2004), impact of backpacking on destinations (Visser, 2004), roles of risk-taking and thrill seeking (Elsrud, 2001), backpacker experience as life extension (Cohen, 2011), new identities and backpacker roles (Welk, 2004), global differences among backpackers (Huxley, 2004), economic impact of backpackers (Scheyvens, 2002), the role of the internet influencing backpackers (Enoch and Grossman, 2010), itineraries and routes (Hampton and Hamzah, 2016). On the other hand there are fresh topics in the field of backpacker studies such as fads and fashions adopted by backpackers including volunteering (Ooi and Laing, 2010), backpacker – local community interaction and perception (Luo et al., 2015).

1.4. Backpackers in Turkey

Harman et al. (2013) were the first researchers who conducted a scientific research about backpackers in Turkey. In order to bring insights about the market, they explored the motivation of international backpackers visiting Istanbul through a face to face survey. More specifically, the researchers intended to observe statistical differences among backpacker's travel motivation according to their age, gender, nationality and their self-identification (Harman et al. 2013: 280, 281). A total of 887 backpackers visiting Istanbul during March and April 2012 constituted the research population. 64.8% of the respondents were from European countries. German

travellers were the majority of this group, with 19.3%. Since the respondents were mainly between 16-29 years old (71.7%), it was concluded that Turkey were generally preferred by young European backpackers. Additionally, 12.9% of the sample were formed by travellers from Australia.

This research included 26 motivational items which was measured on a five-point Likert type scale. As a result of factor analysis, the study revealed seven motivational factors of backpackers for visiting Istanbul as follows: improving knowledge about world, experience seeking, socialization, rites of passage, search for quietness, backpacker identity and skill performing. The most important factor of the backpackers to visit Istanbul was 'improving knowledge about world' (Harman et al. 2013: 287, 288). In terms of motivational differences according to the traveller's ages, it was found that backpackers between 16-24 years old had higher motives in experience seeking, socialization and rites of passage (Harman et al. 2013: 289). Regarding to the motivational differences among genders, the study indicated that female backpackers had higher motives in experience seeking, improving knowledge about world and rites of passage. Australian respondents were generally more motivated than other nationalities, which was concluded as Australians have higher tendencies to travel as backpacker (Harman et al. 2013: 291). Finally, compared to travellers and tourists, the respondents who identified themselves as backpacker indicated higher motives in all dimensions except search for quietness.

Following his study about backpackers in Istanbul, Harman (2014) conducted a research to investigate independent travel market in Turkey. In this regard, he examined the travel motivation of Turkish independent travellers through a self-completed electronic questionnaire which contained 28 motivational items measured on a five-point Likert type scale. The survey was published on a backpacker specific website (www.sirtcantalilar.com) for the data collection. Additionally, the members of the website were requested to fill out the questionnaire through this website's Facebook and Twitter pages (Harman, 2014: 114, 115). As a result, 163 travellers participated in this study who were mostly below 30 years old (60%). The 58% of the population were male and 45% of the respondents were employed. 73% of the respondents stated that they have travelled abroad previously. In terms of the travel motivation of the participants, six motivation domains were identified; exploring other cultures, socialization, having experience, performing abilities, personal development and relaxation.

In the same year, Pazarbasi (2014) investigated travel motivations of tourists walking the Lycian Way in Turkey. The Lycian way is located in the south-west Mediterranean coast of Turkey between the towns of Fethiye and Antalya, which is also known as the Teke Peninsula

where was once the homeland of the Lycian civilization. The total length of the marked paths on the way is around 500 km, passing through impressive coastal views, beautiful forests and ruins of ancient Lycian cities such as Pinara, Xanthios, Letoon, Myra and Olympos. Today, the ancient Lycian way is a very famous trekking route for travellers around the world and recognized as the world's top-10 distance walks.[8] Since tourists walking the Lycian way travel with a backpack and mainly camping during their journeys, there is an association with backpacking culture. Therefore, it is important to review this study for the current research. Furthermore, Pazarbasi (2014: 77) stated that her scale of motivation was originated directly from Harman et al.'s (2013) study about backpackers visiting Istanbul.

The research was undertaken with a face to face survey method on 6 different stages of the Lycian way. As a result, 407 usable surveys were collected from the tourists (Pazarbasi, 2014: 78). The majority of the respondents were older than 46 years (43.5%), while only 21.9% of the participants were below 30 years old. This indicated that travellers walking the Lycia way are generally middle-aged. On the other hand, the sample was mainly formed by Turkish travellers (65.6%), followed by travellers from Germany (20.6%), England (3.7%) and France (2%). In terms of accommodation preferences of the respondents, while 37.3% preferred to camp, 33.4% of the participants favoured to stay at a cheap and clean hotel. The least favoured accommodation facility was five-star hotels (Pazarbasi, 2014: 83, 84 ,87). Finally, as a result of factor analysis, five dimensions were identified for travel motivation of the tourists walking the Lycia Way as follow, socializing and self-realization, travelling independently, knowing the world, searching for experience and quietness seeking (Pazarbasi, 2014: 93).

There is no statistical information of domestic backpackers in Turkey, neither an academic research. However, it could be virtually observed through social media communities that the numbers of young people are increasingly involving in backpacking. For this, one should search for Facebook groups such as InterTurkey and Interrail Turkey as well as their sub groups such as OtostopTurkey (Hitchhike Turkey) or Interrail Turkiye Otostop. In total these groups have more than 500.000 of members on Facebook. The emergence of the increasing numbers of backpackers in Turkey and these virtual communities could be arguably found on the base of the interrail culture, which is the most popular way of travelling by train among backpackers in Europe (Johnson, 2013).

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[8]Lonely   Planet: https://www.lonelyplanet.com/turkey/planning/highlights/3cbb1766-33b0-4b6c-8c71-40290516d145/a/nar/3cbb1766-33b0-4b6c-8c71-40290516d145/360857 (access date: 12.05.2018)

CHAPTER TWO
TRAVEL MOTIVATION

In this part the concept of motivation is presented briefly at first, followed by the early definitions of term 'motivation' and the theories developed for the conception. In the second section of the chapter, the tourism motivation is addressed, and the tourism motivation theories are reviewed in detail. Following the travel motivation part, in the third section, a review of the tourism motivation literature with an emphasis on backpacker motivation is given. The last section of this chapter presents the facts of market segmentation approach as well as previous studies about this topic.

2.1. The Concept of Motivation

The concept of motivation is essentially investigated by the science of psychology in order to understand why people behave in certain ways. The energization and direction of behaviour are represented by motivational concepts which give an explanation to the "why" and "how" of human action (Elliot, 2014: 4).

According to Britannica (1983: 556), the root of the word motivation comes from the Latin term *motivus* ("a moving cause"), which is derived from *motus* ("moved"). The motivational ideas and concepts have been argued in scholarly thought since the time of ancient Greek philosophers such as Democritus, Aristoteles and Plato[9] (Elliot, 2014: 4; Pakdel, 2013: 240). However, the concept of motivation was still not in the Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology when it was published for the first time in 1911; only the word 'motive' was listed, but with regard to an awareness of desire or purpose rather than a moving force (Britannica, 1983: 557). The term instinct, however, was a popular concept to explain the underlying motivations for human behaviour.

Following the evolution theory of Charles Darwin, a German professor called Wilhelm Maximilian Wundt (1832-1920) distinguished psychology as a science apart from philosophy and biology. As a founding figure of modern psychology, Wundt was also the first person ever coined the term 'instinct' in the 1870s to refer to any repeated human behaviour (Carlson, 2010;

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[9] The Greek philosophers are the key contributors to a school of thought called Hedonism, which argues that human behaviour is primarily stimulated in search of pleasure and happiness (Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy, 2018:1).

https://www.psychestudy.com/general/motivation-emotion/instinct-theory-motivation access date: 09.03.2018).

However, one of the major problems of the instinct theory was that many instincts identified by the scholars were not actually common. A good example of this statement is that not every mother instinctually careful about their children (Sincero, 2018: 2). Additionally, it is claimed that instinct theory is operative for explaining animal behaviour, however, instincts are not essential sources of human action. Instead, human behaviour is an outcome of a learning process of interactions with the surroundings (Albert, 2017: 1).

Kotler (2017: 173) noted that most theorists agreed that most human behaviour is learned and based on previous experiences. As one of the most respected figures in psychology, Sigmund Freud claimed that people are not aware of what actually shape their motivations. Because those learned experiences are stored in human's subconscious. Therefore, a person may have unconscious needs or motives. For example, an aging person who buys a sports car could state his reason as he just wanted to feel the wind. However, in a deeper level, he may be motivated to impress others or to feel young and independent again (Kotler, 2017: 169).

Over the years many researchers have developed theories concerning motivation of individuals and groups of people. Table 2.1 presents a summary of some foremost theories in psychology that have been associated with the concept of motivation (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2009: 253). From business perspective, Kotler (2017: 130) stated that insights about customer motivation could help marketers to evaluate the market potential and conduct adequate promotion activities as well as developing desirable products for the customers.

Table 2.1 Human Motives and Needs in Psychology Theory and Research

Theorist/Researcher	Theoretical Approach	Motives or Needs Emphasized
Sigmund Freud	Psychoanalytic theory	Need for sex, need for aggression. Emphasis on unconscious needs
Carl Jung	Psychoanalytic approach	Need for arousal, need to create and self-actualize.
Alfred Adler	Modified psychoanalytic	Need for competence, need for mastery to overcome incompetence
Harry Stack Sullivan	Modified psychoanalytic	Need for acceptance and love.
Karen Horney	Modified psychoanalytic	Need to control anxiety, need for love and security.
Clark Hull	Learning theory	Need to reduce tension.
Gordon Allport	Trait theory	Need to repeat intrinsically satisfying behaviours.
Albert Bandura, David McClelland, John Atkinson	Social learning theory, social approaches	Need for self-efficacy or personal mastery. Need for achievement.

Carl Rogers	Humanistic	Need for self-development.
Abraham Maslow	Humanistic	Hierarchy of needs from physiological needs, to safety needs, to love and relationship needs, to self-esteem, to self-actualization.
D. E. Berlyne	Cognitive approaches	Need to satisfy curiosity, seek mental stimulation.
Rom Harré	Ethogenic (social and philosophical)	Need to earn respect and avoid contempt of others.
Stanley Cohen and Laurie Taylor	Sociological theory	Need to escape, need for excitement and meaning.
George Kelly	Personal construct theory	Need to predict and explain the world.
Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi	Humanistic approach	Need for peak experiences.

Source: Goeldner and Ritchie, 2009: 253

2.2. Travel Motivation

The second half of the 20th century witnessed the emergence of many new study fields both in natural and social sciences. In search of understanding "who travels where, how, and why", consumer psychology of tourism, hospitality and leisure (CPTHL) was one of those emerging fields, incorporating sociology, geography, transportation, marketing, psychology, social psychology, accommodation management, leisure science, strategic management and economics (Woodside, 1999: 1).

However, long before the travel motivation literature, the ancient civilisations such as Romans and Greeks had travelled to their summer resorts to escape from the heat of their cities and to take a holiday there. Moreover, in those times travelling to the east and visiting monuments of Egypt for buying precious items as souvenirs was a tradition of people from high status (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2009: 249). While some travellers of the Middle Age were more motivated for joy and feasting, a significant proportion desired to become a pilgrimage. Arriving at 18th century, many young people of the noble-born motivated to expand their knowledge by travelling to destinations abounding in art and science (Porges, 1981).

After the revolution of the industry, and the rapid advancements in the transport technologies led the involvement of middle-class people in the travel movement with similar motives of their ancestors. Today, travel is not a practice of affluent only, and tourism has transformed into a massive industry. As Pearce (2005:50) noted, since, it is the key factor that underlies all tourist behaviour and is fundamental to tourism development, the travel motivation of people has been one of the major topics in tourism studies. The travel motivation is described as a set of desires and needs that drive people into travelling and govern their destination and transportation choices (Pearce and Caltabiano, 1983: 16; Albayrak, 2013: 149). The major

motives and underlying dimensions of travel motivation has been discovered by the key researchers in the early literature (Cohen, 1972, 1979; Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977, 1981; Gray, 1970; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Pearce and Caltabiano, 1983; Plog, 1974; Uysal and Jurowski, 1994), whose findings still guide to contemporary research on the travel motivation.

2.2. Travel Motivation Theories

2.2.1. Hierarchy of Needs and its Adaptation in Tourism (Travel Career Ladder)

> Man is a wanting animal and rarely reaches a state of complete satisfaction except for a short time. As one desire is satisfied, another pops up to take its place. When this is satisfied, still another comes into the foreground, etc. It is a characteristic of the human being throughout his whole life that he is practically always desiring something (Maslow, 1987: 24).

In the 1940s, American psychologist Abraham Maslow developed a model what he called a hierarchy of needs. Although the theory is originated in Maslow's clinical researches, the hypothesis became one of the most influential motivation theories in the academic world and served as a base for many researchers' theoretical analysis from different perspectives (Hsu and Huang, 2009: 287-288). Pearce (1993: 877), supporting the previous statement, noted that Maslow's theory is easily applicable to studies in the tourism field.

According to this theory, individuals are constantly seeking to satisfy their needs, and there is a certain hierarchy between those needs. A pyramid-shaped model was drawn to present the hierarchical needs (McLeod, 2007: 2). In the earliest version of the theory (Maslow, 1943), the bottom of the pyramid was formed by basic (relatively stronger) needs, which must be fulfilled before a person is stimulated by the higher needs (Šimková and Holzner, 2014: 661, Petri and Govern, 2012: 334; McLeod, 2007: 2). The initial version of the five-stage pyramid model is presented in Figure 2.1. Maslow defines the needs as so-called physiological drivers (Maslow, 1987: 35) that are taken as the initial point for his motivation theory.

Figure 2.1 The Hierarchy of Needs
Source: https://www.simplypsychology.org/maslow.html)

Physiological Needs: Rizaoglu (2003: 73) stated that physiological needs are appeared because of biological deficiencies. Such motives are needed to be satisfied for the survival of the physiological existence of a person. For example, in a basic sense, if an individual lacking food, his or her body will stimulate the person to increase a motive to seek for food.

Safety Needs: The second stage of the hierarchy of needs consists motives which drive people to secure their physical safety in their environment. (Petri and Govern, 2012: 334; Rizaoglu, 2003: 75). The human behaviour is predominately stimulated by safety needs in times of emergency. For example, when a person's life is in danger, none of the higher needs are significant. Alongside physical safety needs, one may have a motivation to secure their economic status (income, job, saving accounts) as well as social status (appreciation of others, insurance, property).

Love and Belonging Needs: Humans are social beings by their nature and possess the need of having sincere, emotional and sustainable relationships with others (Waytz, 2014: 1; Rizaoglu, 2003: 75). An individual´s mental journey is full of considerations of others' thoughts and feelings about him/her as others, including family members, play an important role of being the source for both support and happiness (Gleitman et al., 2010: 485). Therefore, in a society, the interactions of individuals are strongly shaped by this motive of love and belonging.

Esteem Needs: The esteem needs emerge following the fulfilment of love and belonging needs. Esteem needs can be felt by a person in two different types; self-esteem and esteem from others. The desire for achievement, self-knowledge, independence, self-confidence, success, can be considered as self-esteem needs, while, reputation, appreciation by others, status and recognition can be identified as esteem needs from others (Petri and Govern, 2012: 336; Rizaoglu, 2003: 76).

Self-actualization Needs: According to Maslow's humanistic approach, self-actualization refers to the full understanding of one's own potential and abilities for achieving personal aspirations (Gleitman et al., 2010: 486, G17). Some researchers concluded that a few can reach this state of mind (Özturk, 2016: 53).

The most commonly referred five-stage version of the theory is presented above. However, it is important to note that Maslow has revised his theory after more than 30 years from the time he first proposed it. He added two more need/desire to his model, namely *Desire to Know and to Understand* and *Aesthetic Needs* (Maslow, 1987: 48, 51). The first need is about to satisfy one's curiosity and desire to learn and increase knowledge, while the second is about seeking for order, symmetry and excellence (Özel, 2010: 66).

In 1983, Philip L. Pearce and Marie L. Caltabiano proposed a new travel motivation model which is based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs. They have investigated 400 travellers' experiences, and the participants were asked to express one positive and one negative travel experience on the survey. The coding scheme used by the researchers during the data collection was based on the five-fold classification of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Following the analyses which indicated that more experienced travellers had higher order needs, researchers claimed that there is a "motivational career in travel" (Pearce and Caltabiano, 1983: 16).

Following the above-mentioned study, Pearce extensively delineated the concept of Travel Career Ladder (TCL) in his book called The Ulysses Factor (1988). Since then, the TCL model has been cited widely in the literature (Ryan 1998: 936). The main idea of TCL framework was that a person's travel motivation changes throughout his or her lifetime based on their travel experiences (Hsu and Huang 2008:16); as tourists gain more experience on travel, the desire for fulfilling higher needs increases.
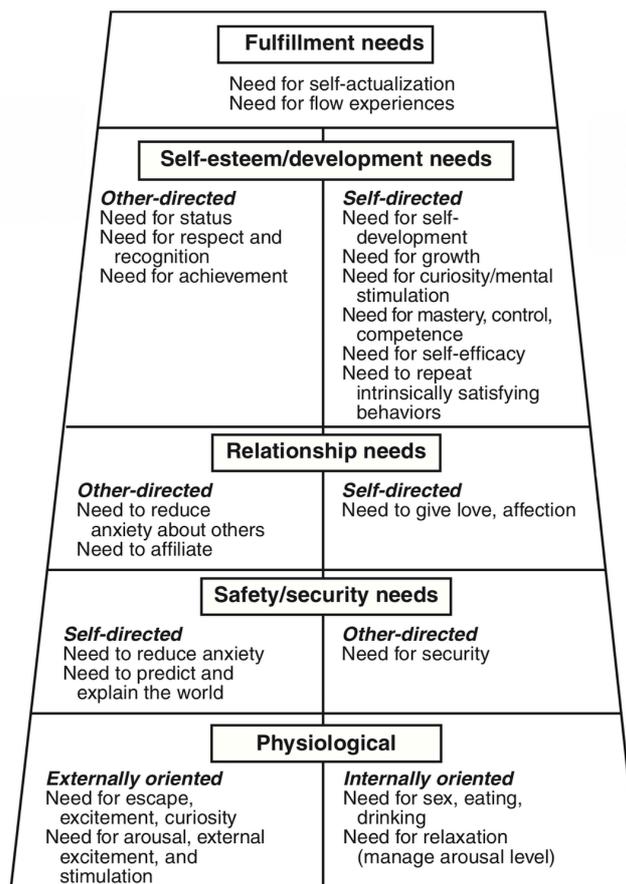
Figure 2.2 Travel-Career Ladder Concept
Source: Goeldner and Ritchie, 2009: 261

Travel career ladder similar to the Maslow's hierarchy of needs, consists of five levels, namely 1) relaxation needs; 2) safety/security needs; 3) relationship needs; 4) self-esteem and

development needs; 5) self-actualisation/fulfilment needs. However, Pearce (2005: 53) states that the ideas of Maslow were not the single contributor to the development of TCL framework. He emphasised on the concept of 'career' and its adaptation in leisure and tourism, stating that the notion of career was as much important as hierarchy of needs for the construction of TCL model. The levels of TCL and the motives stimulate people to travel on each level presented in Figure 2.2.

Ryan (1998) attempted to evaluate and criticize the concept of TCL. He stated that Pearce developed a psychometric scale opposite to Maslow's idea and the items covering the process of a tourist's self-actualization are not identified definitively (Ryan, 1998: 951). Moreover, Ryan's main question concerned the purpose of the model, and he claimed that the ladder theory is not predictive (Ryan, 1998: 952). Pearce (2005: 54) mentioned about the critics have been given over the term ladder. As a rejoinder, he presented a research (Lee and Pearce, 2002) to de-emphasise the hierarchical origins of the TCL model and proposed a new concept called Travel Career *Pattern* (TCP), which is reviewed below.

Initially, there was a pool of 143 motivational items to be used in the research, which were extracted from almost all the previous studies carried out in the tourism and leisure motivation literature. However, the list was compressed to 74 items after a panel, where the items were reviewed by a focus group. Then, the items were measured on a nine-point Likert type scale. By using a self-administered survey, they collected data from a total of 1012 participants. The study yielded 14 motivation factors from the 74 motivational items as follows in an order of importance: 1) novelty; 2) escape/relax; 3) relationship (strengthen); 4) autonomy; 5) nature, 6) self-development (host-site involvement); 7) stimulation; 8) self-development (personal development); 9) relationship (security); 10) self-actualisation; 11) isolation; 12) nostalgia; 13) romance; 14) recognition (Pearce, 2005: 58).

Following, travel experience levels of the participants were analysed. The research had three variables for this analysis; international travel experience and domestic travel experience and age. The first two variables had four options to be answered; inexperienced (0 trips taken), somewhat experienced (1-4), experienced (5-10), very experienced (more than 10 trips). Then a set of cluster analyses were conducted to above-mentioned variables, which generated two separate groups; high travel experience group and low travel experience group (Pearce, 2005: 62, 63).

Finally, in order to create a link between motivation and experience, independent t-tests are performed on motivation factors by the high and low travel experience level groups (Pearce, 2005: 64). It was found that escape/relax, novelty, relationship, and self-development factors

were the principal motivation of all participants. For the high travel experience group, it was observed that they had more importance on the motivation item called "self-development through host-site involvement", and "nature seeking". Travellers with low travel experience emphasised different factors such as stimulation, romance, self-actualisation, nostalgia, security, personal development, and recognition (Pearce, 2005: 65). It was observed that the low travel experience groups rated lower importance on *self-actualisation* and *self-development* motives. This was one of the most important outcomes of the research, which stands against the hierarchical Travel Career Ladder theory, and it was concluded that TCP model is based on a pattern of motivations rather than a hierarchical order of needs and motives (Pearce, 2005: 66).

The new concept of travel career can be seen in Figure 2.3. According to this model (Pearce, 2005: 79), the potential tourist, regardless of his or her travel career, will mostly be driven by the core travel motives such as escape/relax, novelty, and relationship, as well as less significant motives such as social status, nostalgia or isolation. As tourists grow older in age and develop their travel career by previous travel experiences, their internally-oriented motives (e.g. self-actualisation) will shift to externally-oriented motives (e.g. nature).
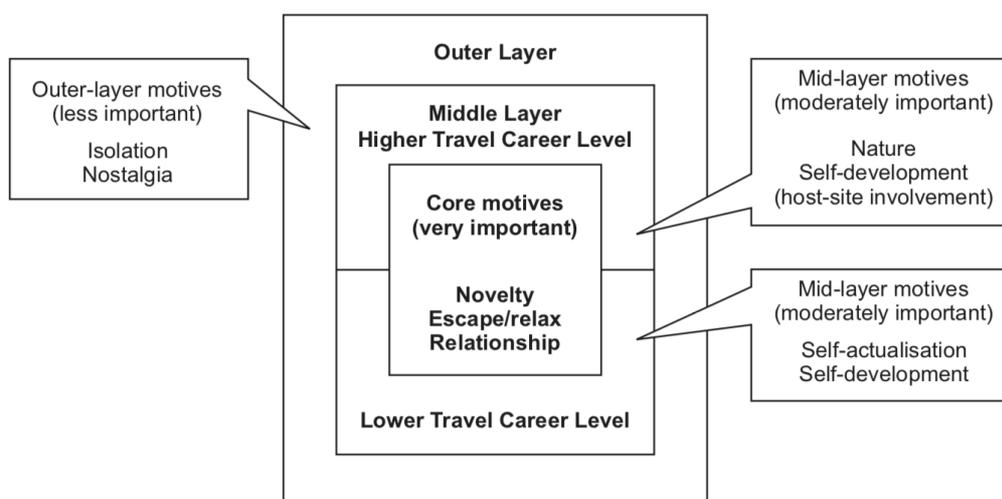
Figure 2.3 Travel career-pattern (TCP) concept
Source: Pearce, 2005: 79

Paris and Teye's (2010) study evaluated backpackers from the Pearce's Travel Career Pattern perspective. They examined 359 international backpackers in terms of their travel motivation and previous travel experience. In order to analyse backpacker's general travel motivation, backpackers were requested to rate 26 motivation statements on a five-point Likert type scale. On the other hand, travel experience was analysed through four variables; the number of international trips, number of countries visited, and number of global regions visited.

The research was performed with an online questionnaire through backpacker-specific groups on Facebook.com and Thorn Tree forum (Paris and Teye 2010: 248, 254). Firstly, factor analysis was conducted for the exploration of the underlying motivational dimensions of backpackers, which generated six factors as follows: cultural knowledge; independence; experiential; budget travel; personal/social growth; relaxation. Following the factor analysis, a K-means cluster technique was used to classify backpackers based on their travel experience, which yielded two groups of backpackers: 1) high travel experience (40.4%); 2) low travel experience (59.6%). Finally, in order to observe motivational differences between experience groups, independent *t*-tests were used. The cultural knowledge was the most important motivational factor for both groups, while relaxation was the least significant motivation factor. The mentioned two motivational factors were identified as the core of the backpacker motivation. On the other hand, independence, experiential and budget travel motives were more important to the backpackers in the low travel experience group, which concluded the motivations of backpackers may change over time (Paris and Teye 2010: 255, 256).

2.2.2. The Sunlust – Wanderlust Model

This theory of travel motivation proposed by Henry Peter Gray in 1970. According to Gray, there are two main motivational factors that shape one's travel behaviour. The concept of *Sunlust* refers to a tendency towards the sun in a basic sense, however, it encompasses the motivation of the traveller towards warmer, more beautiful and comfortable places than their environment. The concept of *wanderlust*, on the other hand, refers to a desire to exchange the known for the unknown to seek new experiences, places and cultures and to satisfy the need of exploration and learning (Dey and Sarma, 2006:31; Houston, 2013:15). The differences in the characteristics of sunlust and wanderlust tourists are presented in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Differences Between Sunlust and Wanderlust

Sunlust	Wanderlust
Includes travels for holiday reasons.	Includes travels for tourist reasons.
Travels to one country.	Travels to more than one country.
Tourists make use of local opportunities and accommodation facilities.	Tourists seek for different cultures, food and beverages and accommodation facilities.
It is expected from the destination visited to have certain characteristics (especially in terms of climate).	The visitor is more interested in physical settings. Climate is not important.
Arriving to the tourism destination is more important than the travel itself.	The travel itself is important throughout the journey.
Emphasis on domestic travel.	Emphasis on international travel.
Tourist is interested relaxing travels.	Tourist is interested in educative travels.

Source: Gray, 1970: 14 as cited in Özel, 2010: 68

Tsephe and Obono (2013) attempted to develop a model of the motivational factors for participating in rural tourism. They identified 9 motivational factors from a literature review. Following, the 9 factors were placed differently according to five tourism motivation theories frameworks. In terms of the Sunlust and Wanderlust Theory, six factors were identified as sunlust motivation; pleasure and relaxation, memorable and life time experience, adventure, enrich themselves, learn about local nature, on the other hand, three factors were identified as wanderlust motivation; escape, safety and affordability (Tsephe and Obono, 2013: 274, 275, 276).

2.2.3. Push and Pull Factors Theory

Hsu and Huang (2008:18) stated that although there is still an absence of a universally accepted conceptualization of the tourist motivation, the push and pull model is widely accepted by many tourism researchers. The model was proposed by Graham M.S. Dann in 1977. It is claimed that two motives or two forces which are essential to travel decision, which push or pull a person into a travel activity (Yoon and Uysal, 2005: 46; Özel, 2010: 70).

Push factors are related to the tourist's desire to travel and defined as internally generated motives that cause tourists to seek signs in objects, activities, events, situations that have the potential of reducing their needs. In turn, pull factors are externally generated forces and have been conceptualised as the features, attractions, attributes of destinations (Gnoth, 1997: 290, 291; Kim et al., 2003: 171).

Push factors include intrinsic psychological motivators such as social interaction, the desire for escape, rest and relaxation, health and fitness, adventure and self-exploration. Pull motivations, on the other hand, arise from the attractiveness of a destination's environmental features, including beaches, sunshine, recreation facilities, cultural attractions, and cheap airfare (Chen and Chen, 2015: 417; Hsu and Huang 2008: 18).

In 1976, Dann investigated the travel behaviour of 422 tourists visiting the Barbados Island between January and February. From a sociological perspective on travel motivation, he determined two types of tourist: the anomic tourist and the ego enhancement tourist (Dann, 1977: 191, 192). Anomie and ego enhancement conceptualisation are identified and proposed as two essential travel motives. The term anomie which was invented by sociologist Emile Durkheim refers to a problematic society whose norms are not recognised by its individuals. (Dann, 1977: 186; Raskoff, 2017: 1). By sensing a connection between the anomic society and "what makes tourist travel", Dann (1977: 187) defined the possible push factor of anomic tourist as "the desire to transcend the feeling of isolation obtained in everyday life, where the tourist

simply wishes to get away from it all". In other words, the anomic tourist has the motivation to get away from the problematic society that he/she lives in and to interact with new people during their journeys.

Dann (1977: 187) stated that ego-enhancement emerges from personality needs as anomie. An individual does not only wish to satisfy the need for social interaction but also want to be recognised by the others. People feel the need of enhancing or boosting their ego occasionally. "Status" is the description of such recognition by others in a sociological terminology. Thus, people desire higher status, and this desire motivates much of consumer behaviour; the purchase, use, display, and consumption of goods and services are often recognised as means of enhancing social status (Eastman et al., 1999: 41). For ego-enhancement tourists, travel is an alternative strategy to increase their status within their society. This tourist type may feel happy by travelling a new destination and be satisfied by sharing their holiday experiences with others.

Following the Dann's study, in 1979 John L. Crompton investigated the motivation of pleasure vacationers which affect their destination choice. He used a detailed unstructured interview method to conduct the research with 39 participants (Pearce, 2011: 44; Hsu and Huang 2008: 18). Crompton (1979: 408) empirically identified nine motives and divided them into two clusters. The first was classified as socio-psychological motives included seven dimensions; 1) escape from a perceived mundane environment; 2) exploration and evaluation of self; 3) relaxation; 4) prestige; 5) regression; 6) enhancement of kinship relationships; 7) facilitation of social interaction. The other two motives were classified in the cultural category, as follows: 8) novelty; 9) education. Crompton described his socio-psychological motives acted as push factors for holiday taking, while, the cultural motives as pull factors (as cited in Hsu and Huang 2008: 18).

The push and pull factors theory was employed by many researchers in tourism field (Goossens, 2000; Kim et al., 2003; Awaritefe, 2004; Yoon and Uysal, 2005; Chen and Chen, 2015; Xu and Chan, 2016; Caber and Albayrak, 2016). For example, Awaritefe (2004: 303, 310, 311) carried out a qualitative research with 376 international participants to find out the relative importance of and relations between push and pull motivations of visitors' destination choices. The study was performed in seven different main tourism destinations of Nigeria. The analysis yielded three push factors, namely phycological–tension reducing (recreation/leisure); self-actualization -cultural/education (inductive–arousal seeking) and belonging and love. On the other hand, five pull factors were identified, namely dynamic factor (goods and services, safety); current decision (low cost, place comfort), static factor (location); commercial;

information/advertisement destination (Awaritefe, 2004: 317, 318). The most important motivational factors for destination selection were arousal seeking motives; the need for culture/nature and educational activities, followed by leisure/recreational needs (Awaritefe, 2004: 321). The study indicated that travel motivation among respondents was differed between foreign and domestic tourists as well as between visitors to various destinations. Foreign tourists were more interested in the environment, especially "nature/culture-based educational activities". On the other hand, domestic tourists were mostly interested in recreation and leisure. In conclusion, the research revealed that foreign tourists were principally push oriented, while domestic tourists were pull oriented travellers (Awaritefe, 2004: 322).

The studies and research carried out in the travel motivation literature is generally based on a couple of different theories. The following part will review another theory of motivation which was developed in the discipline of psychology and later applied to the tourism field.

2.2.4. The Seeking – Escaping Dichotomy

In 1980, Iso-Ahola proposed a theory of motivation which can be applied to tourism, leisure and recreation (Snepenger et al., 2006: 140). In a psychological perspective, he claimed that the motivation is an internal force which is the most significant determinant of travel behaviour (Özel, 2010: 78; Wolfe and Hsu, 2004: 31).

In 1982, Iso-Ahola published a paper as a rejoinder to Dann's assessment of tourism motivation and proposed a social psychological model for tourism motivation. In that work, he developed a model explaining travel motivation that is based on two fundamental motives. (Snepenger et al., 2006: 140). This two-dimensional travel motivation composed of escaping (everyday environments and problems, routine, tension, etc.) and seeking (intrinsic rewards) motivations. While escape motive refers to a desire to a getaway from the chaotic social and individual environment, seeking motive refers to a desire to receive psychological benefits as a result of travelling to another destination (Özel, 2010: 78; Simkova and Holzner, 2014: 662).

Snepenger et al. (2006: 140) stated that according to Iso-Ahola, escape and seek motives are not mutually exclusive and can affect an individual's tourist behaviour simultaneously. Furthermore, both of the dimensions have a personal and interpersonal component (Figure 2.4). It is argued that people tend to travel to another destination from their address to leave behind their personal and interpersonal problems of daily life, and at the same time to gain personal and/or interpersonal rewards (Hsu and Huang 2008: 21).
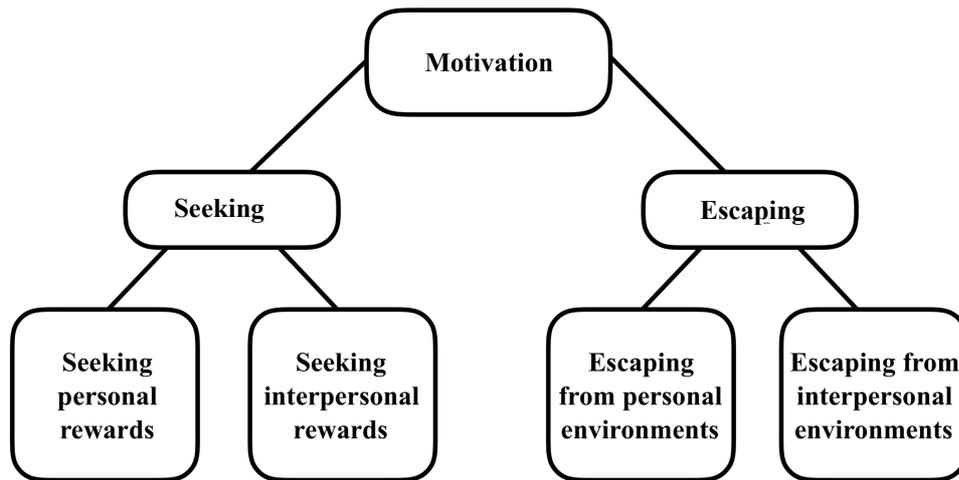
Figure 2.4 Escape / Seek Dimensions of Leisure Motivation
Source: Hsu and Huang 2008:21

Snepenger et al. (2006:142) attempted to test Iso-Ahola's motivation theory in the tourism context and generated 12 items that explained the four motivation dimensions, which could be seen in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Escaping and Seeking Dimensions

Dimension	Motives
Personal escaping	To get away from my normal environment To have a change of pace from my everyday life To overcome a bad mood
Interpersonal escaping	To avoid people who annoy me To get away from a stressful social environment To avoid interactions with others
Personal seeking	To tell others about my experiences To feel good about me To experience new things by myself
Interpersonal seeking	To be with people of similar interests To bring friends/family closer To meet new people

Source: Snepenger et al., 2006:142

2.2.5. The Allocentrism – Psychocentrism Model

Stanley Plog has developed the allocentrism/psychocentrism model in 1974, which is used for tourist classification and was the initiator for the future tourism typology studies (Simkova and Holzner 2014: 662). In his theory, he examined the relationship between personality and motivation and expressed that the personality and characteristics of an individual have an effect on his/her motivation (Özel, 2010: 69). In other words, motivation is based on the personality. The theoretical background of this typology is explained below.

Plog was financially supported by 16 airline industry companies to conduct a research to uncover why a large percentage of the American population did not choose to fly in the late 1960s. (Plog, 2002: 243). After performing in-depth, face to face interviews with non-flyers, Plog found that those people shared similar personality tendencies. Following, the people who shared similarities based on their personalities were labelled into one of five groups; 1) psychocentrics; 2) near psychocentrics; 3) mid-centrics; 4) near allocentrics; 5) allocentrics (Caber and Albayrak, 2016: 75). The distribution of these groups on a normal curve is drawn below in Figure 2.5.
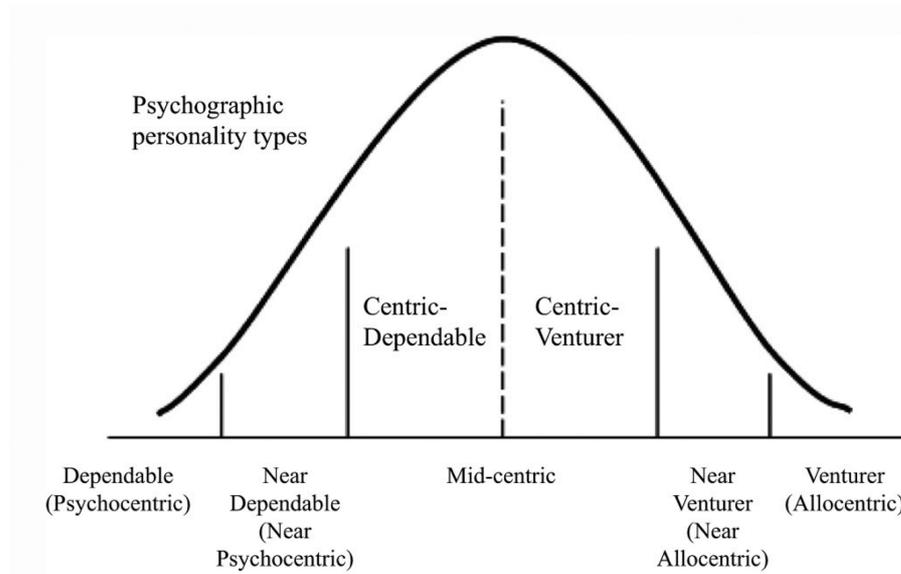
Figure 2.5 Psychographic Personality Types
Source: Hsu and Huang 2008:23

Hsu and Huang (2008: 22) stated that the non-flyers were in the group of psychocentrics, who shared the following tendencies: 1) Territory boundness (a tendency to travel less in a life cycle); 2) Generalized anxieties (a heavy feeling of insecurity experienced in daily life); 3) A sense of powerlessness (A feeling of having less control over one's destiny). Allocentric people positioned on the opposite side of psychocentrics who were venturesome and self-assured. The main characteristics of Psychocentrics and Allocentrics can be seen in Table 2.4.

Plog (2002: 245) updated his model by re-labelling the initial terms; *dependables* for psychocentrics, and *venturers* for allocentrics. He illustrates venturers as people who are strongly self-confident and excited to explore the world around them. They continuously search for new experiences to get away from the ordinary. They have a motivation to find new destinations before they are discovered by others and to adjust themselves in the local culture by eating local foods and accommodating in less comfortable facilities than hotels and motels. One of the other important characteristics of the venturers is observed on their return to

everyday environment. They have a very high tendency to narrate their exciting journeys with friends and family members, which often result in influencing the others. Even though their friends and family may not be venturesome by nature, their way of describing their travels make others feel comfortable and encourages them to duplicate those trips (Plog, 2002: 246).

On the other hand, dependables usually tend to follow the guidance of others, and more likely to choose to travel to popular and well-developed destinations. Furthermore, they would easily become a repeat visitor for a destination once they discovered it. They are interested in warm and sunny destinations where services such as fast-food restaurants, cinemas, etc can be found so that they could feel themselves at home.

Table 2.4 Characteristics of Psychocentrics and Allocentrics

Psychocentrics / "Dependables"	Allocentrics / "Ventureres
Intellectually restricted	Intellectually curious
Low risk-taking	Moderate risk-taking
Withhold income	Use disposable income
Territory bound	Exploring / searching
Sense of powerlessness	Feel in control
Non-adventurous	Adventurous
Lacking in confidence	Self-confident
Prefer the familiar in travel destination	Prefer non-touristy areas
Prefer destinations they can drive to	Prefer flying to destinations
Travel less	Travel more frequently
Naive, nondemanding, passive traveller	Demanding, sophisticated, active traveller
Want structured, routinized travel	Want much spontaneity in trips
Enjoy crowds	Prefer small numbers of people
Buy souvenirs, trinkets, common items	Buy native arts/crafts
Prefer returning to same and familiar places	Want different destinations for each trip
Like commonplace activities at travel destinations	Enjoy sense of discovery and delight in new experiences, before others have visited the area
Prefer sun-and-fun spots, including considerable relaxation	Prefer novel and different destinations
Want standard accommodations and conventional meals	Seek off-the-beaten-path, little-known local hotels, restaurants meals
Prefer familiar atmosphere (hamburger stands, familiar-type entertainment, absence of foreign atmosphere)	Enjoy meeting and dealing with people from a strange or foreign culture
Little interest in events or activities in other countries	Inquisitive, curious about the world and its peoples
Complete tour packaging appropriate, with heavy scheduling of activities	Tour arrangements should include basics (transportation and activities hotels) and allow considerable freedom and flexibility
Spend more of income on material goods and impulse buys	Spend more of income on travel

Source: Plog, 1991 as cited in Goeldner and Ritchie, 2008: 556

2.3. A Review of Travel Motivation

Hsu et al. (2010: 282) noted that travel motivation has been subjected to a wide range of different studies such as, travel motivation of different niche markets; differences in motivation among tourists based on their origins, cultural backgrounds, number of visits, destinations visited, socio-demographic characteristics and environmental attitudes. One of the most traditional way to study travel motivation is to investigate the motivational factors influencing destination choice behaviour. For example, in this area, Goossens (2000: 301) developed a conceptual model for travel decision process. He employed push, pull and hedonic factors in a marketing context, which can be seen in Figure 2.6. On the left side of the model, he positioned the push factors which refers to needs and motives such as escape from the everyday environment, relaxation, social interaction, etc. While on the right, the pull factors as touristic attractions were situated referring to the marketing stimuli for the consumer (Goossens, 2000: 305).
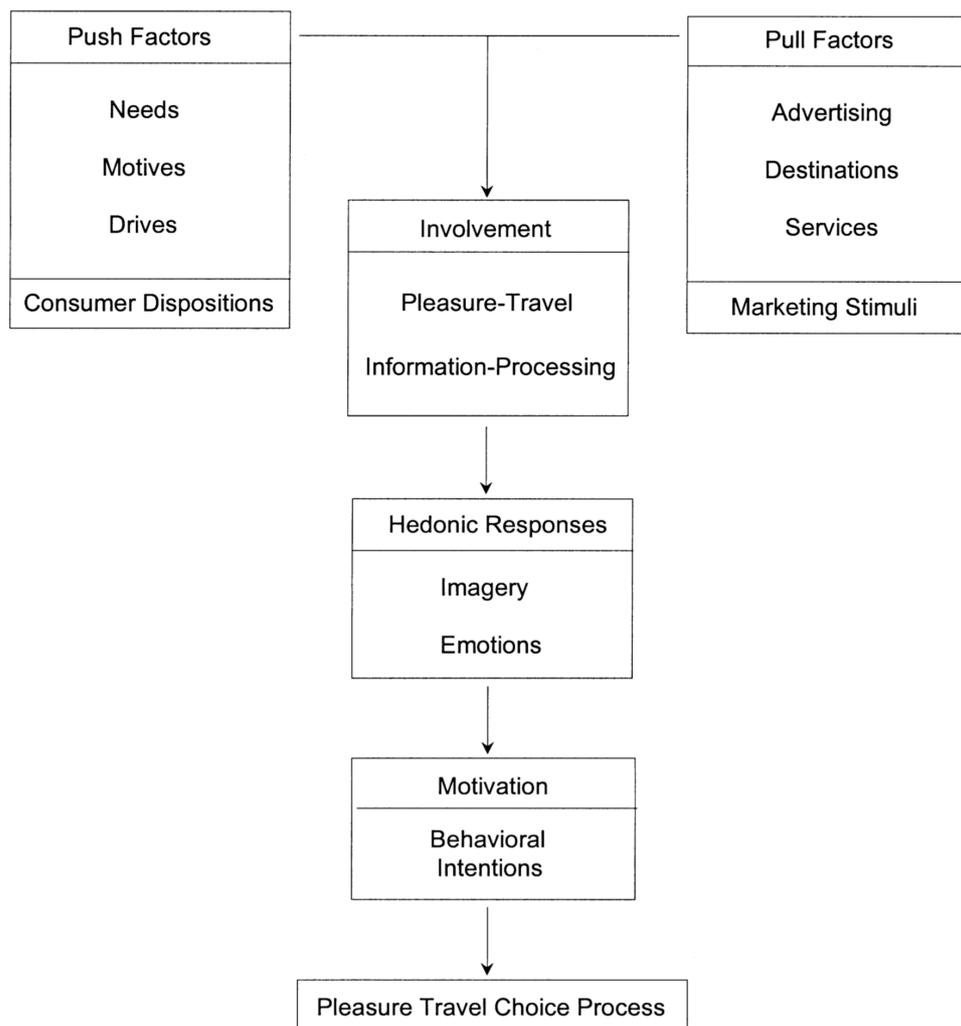
Figure 2. 6 Model of a Hedonic Tourism Motivation
Source: Goossens, 2000: 304

Involvement refers to a phase where the integration of push and pull factors is experienced by the tourist. Involvement was defined as a psychological state of motivation or arousal which is unobservable and characterized by the perception of emotional needs and benefits (Goossens, 2005: 305, 306). At the next phase, imagery was identified, from a hedonistic perspective, as an active process of daydreams and fantasies. While, pleasure and desire, deriving from subjective emotional experiences, considered as relevant emotions to the model. The study was offered four propositions as a result of the study:

(i)   Enactive imagery has a stronger potential to provoke emotional experiences and behavioural intentions.

(ii)   Hedonic response and stimulus will produce stronger behavioural intentions and emotional experiences.

(iii)   During the information gathering and processing stage, tourists are more likely to use affective choice mode for the expressive destination features such as (hedonic) photographs in brochures and travel magazines. Following, tourists evaluate the features of a destination in terms of price and the quality during the information processing mode.

(iv)   Finally, hedonistic responses given to visual and vivid information of a destination's attributes combining with push and pull factors expected to shape the motivation of the individual to plan a trip (Goossens, 2005: 313, 316, 317).

On the other hand, motivation of visitor attendance to festivals have become a popular research area in tourism literature starting from the early 1990s. Crompton and McKay (1997: 425, 431, 435) investigated 1.496 participants' motivation to participate events at the 10-day long San Antonio Festival in Texas, USA. They used escape-seeking dichotomy and push-pull factors for their research. Six factors underlying visitors' motivation for attending activities were found, as follows in importance order: cultural exploration; novelty/regression; gregariousness; recover equilibrium; known-group socialization; External interaction/socialization. It was concluded that, there were multiple simultaneous motives for attending the San Antonio Festival. Some of the previous studies did also reveal multiple simultaneous motives for visiting a festival (Nicholson and Pearce, 2001 as cited in Xiang and Petrick 2006: 242). Additionally, seeking motivation was found to be more dominant than the escape motivation of Iso-Ahola's dichotomy (Crompton and McKay, 1997: 437).

Schofield and Thompson (2007: 330, 333) similarly examined the motivational factors of 539 participants visiting the 2005 Naadam Festival in Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia as well as participants' intention to revisit the festival. The top three motivations of the participants were

to new and different things, to learn more about Mongolian culture and to experience Mongolian culture. Moreover, significant differences in the festival motivation were found by origin, age and gender. For example, the domestic tourists were significantly more motivated by sports and family-oriented variables than international tourists. On the other hand, the cultural aspects of the festival were more important for the international visitors. Moreover, the males were more motivated by the sporting and competitive elements of the Ulaanbaatar festival, whereas female participants paid higher attention to meeting people from other countries (Schofield and Thompson 2007: 334, 335, 336). The motives corresponding to 'novelty' and 'culture' were the most important factors influencing visitors' motivation, which supported Crompton and Mackay's (1997) study.

Huang et al. (2014), more specifically, conducted a research on visitors attending a theatrical performance called "Impressions of Liusanjie" in Guilin, China. By surveying visitors after the performance, they intended to understand the relationship between motivation to visit, performance evaluation, behavioural intentions and satisfaction. They considered motivation as an internal factor that can be associated with the realization of potential satisfaction, and that relates positively with the notion of satisfaction (Huang et al. 2014: 282). The results showed that tourist's evaluation of a theatrical performance was directly influenced by motivational considerations. It was observed that when a tourist participated in the process of performance evaluation, this led to a positive impact on the degree of satisfaction (Huang et al., 2014: 291). As a result, the study reveals an indirect influence of motivation over tourist's satisfaction. Researches indicated that tourists will achieve a degree of satisfaction through an evaluation process of the purchased tourism product, rather than their motivation for watching the theatrical performance (Huang et al., 2014: 292).

The national parks which are recognised as important tourism and recreational resources attracted many researchers for motivational studies (Uysal et al., 1994; Kim et al., 2003; Van Der Merwe and Saayman, 2008; Kruger and Saayman, 2010). Kim et al. (2003: 169, 172) conducted a large investigation about the influence of push and pull factors over the visitation of 2720 domestic participants to six different national parks located in South Korea in 1999. A self-completed survey instrument containing 24 motivational items (12 push motives and 12 pull motives) on a five-point Likert type scale was used for the data collection process. As a result of factor analysis, seven underlying factors of participants' motivations were identified. The four of those were push factors, which are given in order of importance as follows: 1) appreciating natural resources and health; 2) adventure and building friendship; 3) family togetherness and study; 4) escaping from everyday routine. While the other three were pull

factors, 1) accessibility and transportation; 2) information and convenience of facilities; 3) appropriate area for children's study on natural resources (Kim et al., 2003: 174).

Caber and Albayrak (2017: 55) pointed out that studies in travel motivation field display an increasing interest in more specific groups recently, rather than investigating general tourism motivations. For example, Chen and Chen (2015: 416) conducted a research by employing push and pull framework to identify motivations of international birdwatchers. A sample of 257 multinational participants contributed to the study mostly through an online survey. The forty-five motivational items consisting of 19 push and 26 pull motives were presented in the survey and measured on a seven-point Likert type scale. The study yielded six push motivational dimensions, as follows from the highest importance: 1) bird-related (birdwatching); 2) novelty seeking; 3) contribution and sharing; 4) spiritual refreshment; 5) relationship building; 6) competition. On the other hand, four dimensions underlying birdwatchers' pull motivations were; 1) avian resources; 2) professional guides; 3) facilities and infrastructure; 4) local culture and traditions (Chen and Chen, 2015: 419, 421).

Another interesting study targeting an alternative tourist segments was carried out by Caber and Albayrak (2017) who studied the motivations of rock climbers in Turkey. This study was actually the first one in the literature considering the rock climbers as a tourist group (Caber and Albayrak, 2017: 82). Five months later than the initial interview phase, the data collection process was carried out on-site by a survey instrument through participation of 473 rock climbers. The participants were asked to indicate their level of importance on fifty-six motivational items on a seven-point Likert type scale. The researchers performed factor analysis on the collected data of motivational items, which produced six push and five pull factors as a result (Caber and Albayrak, 2017: 77, 78). The push motivations of rock climbers were identified as follows: physical setting, recognition, creativity, challenge, catharsis and risk taking. The strongest push motivations of participants for the rock climbing activity was the physical settings and the sense of challenge. On the other hand, the five pull motivations were labelled as follows: reclusiveness, climbing tourism infrastructure, climbing novelty seeking, non-climbing sport and leisure activities, destination novelty seeking. Additionally, they found pull motivations had more influence on overall satisfaction than push factors.

2.3.1 Backpacker Motivation

This section is concentrated into the literature related to backpacker motivation studies. The extent of the review includes seventeen research studies, which were conducted between the years of 1997 and 2017. Information regarding the destinations of the studies, year of the

investigations, sample size and profile subjected to studies and motivational factors extracted from each study are presented in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5 A Review of Backpacker Travel Motivation Studies

Destination	Year	Sample Profile	Sample Size	Motivational Factors	Author (s) / Research Method
Australia	1997	International	690	The top six motives in an order of importance: Seek exciting/active/adventurous things to do; Meet the local people and characters; Enjoy and improve one's knowledge of the country's physical and environmental settings; Enjoy and improve one's knowledge of the country's history and culture; Mix with fellow travellers; Fulfil a life-long dream and ambition	Loker-Murphy, Quantitative
Northern Australia	2003	International	475	The top six motives in an order of importance: Broaden knowledge about the world; Make new friends; Preference of travelling lifestyle; Self-testing; The advice of friends and relatives; A long desire to specifically visit the Northern Territory.	Mohsin and Ryan/ Quantitative
World-wide Mailing	2004	International	2300	The top six motives in an order of importance: Explore other cultures; Experience excitement; Increase my knowledge; Relax mentally; Have a good time with friends; Interact with local people.	Richards and Wilson/ Quantitative
South Africa	2005	International	95	Top three push motives: Discover new places and things; Broaden knowledge about the world; Escape from everyday work, home and leisure scene/monotony of the daily routine Top three pull motives: Unique mix of adventure, Cultural and wildlife attractions; Getting to know native cultures; Seeing the big five and wild animals	Niggel and Benson/ Quantitative
Manali, Kassol, Dharamkot, Bhagasuh, Pune (India)	2007	Israeli	25	Motivations of reversal: Relax; Experience drugs; Feel free; Experience the 'orient'; Search for a new identity. Motivations of continuity: Experience friendship and a strong bond with fellow Israeli backpackers.	Maoz/ Qualitative

Destination	Year	Sample Profile	Sample Size	Motivational Factors	Author (s) / Research Method
Northern Australia	2007	International	400	Learn about/develop self; Learn about/experience country and culture	Pearce and Foster/ Quantitative
Norway	2008	International	- (25 Hostels)	The importance of the Norwegian landscape; Importance of having historical familial ties to Norway; Use of Norway as a 'platform' for particular encounters.	Butler/ Qualitative
Central/ South America and Southeast Asia	2009	Israeli	579	Backpackers to South America: Extreme sports; Time-off; Checking the possibility of living elsewhere; Entertainment; Getting acquainted with new cultures. Backpackers to Far East: Spiritual growth; Detachment from modern life; Detachment from Israeli society; Experimenting with drugs; Seeing new places.	Reichel et al./ Qualitative
Australia	2009	International	1555	The top six motives in an order of importance: Experience something different; Gaining new perspective on life; Getting away from daily routine/pressure; Meeting new people; Developing my knowledge of visited place; Being independent.	Pearce et al./ Quantitative
World-wide-web	2010	International	359	Cultural knowledge; Independence; Experiential; Budget travel; Personal/Social growth; Relaxation.	Paris and Teye/ Quantitative
Norway	2011	International	2000	Reward Max/escape; Ego-enhancement; Culture/Knowledge; Social motive; Luxury motive, Relaxation.	Larsen et al. / Quantitative
Istanbul	2013	International	887	Experiential; Learn about the world; Socialization; Rite of passage; Relaxation; Backpacker identity.	Harman et al./ Quantitative
Cape Coast-Elmina (Ghana)	2013	International	184	Push factors: Escape; Adventure; Heritage; Pull Factors: Historical/cultural attractions; Service delivery; Ecological Attractions.	Dayour/ Quantitative
Tibet, Hainan, Qinghai, Yunnan, Zhejiang, Jiangsu (China)	2014	Chinese	421	Social Interaction; Self-actualization; Destination experience; Escape and relaxation.	Chen et al./ Quantitative

Destination	Year	Sample Profile	Sample Size	Motivational Factors	Author (s) / Research Method
Shanghai	2014	International	200	Enhancement; Inquisitiveness; Getaway.	Hsu et al./ Quantitative
Scotland	2015	International	54	Push factors: Escape; Knowledge seeking. Pull factors: Scotland's scenery; Positive word of mouth; Geographic location; Genealogy; The English Language; Job opportunities; Outdoor activities; Tangible cultural and natural features.	Hindle et al./ Qualitative
Hong Kong	2017	International	250	Top three push motives: Learning new things; Independence; Experience unfamiliar life. Top three pull motives: Unique local food; Friendship with people of different countries; Local lifestyle.	Nok et al./ Quantitative

There are two global studies which were conducted in order to explore international backpackers' characteristics as well as their motivations. The first one of them was a major study conducted in 2002 by ATLAS Backpacker Research Group (Richard and Wilson, 2004). 2300 students and young travellers across the world participated in the survey through e-mails. The participants were from Canada, Czech Republic, Hong Kong, Mexico, Slovenia, South Africa, Sweden and the UK. The most six important motivations for backpacking found out to be to explore other cultures, to experience excitement, to increase one's knowledge, to relax mentally, to have a good time with friends, and to interact with local people. The other research was carried out on the social networking sites of Facebook and Lonely Planet's Thorn tree forum (Paris and Teye, 2010). The survey of this study was posted on 15 different backpacker specific online communities on Facebook and under 22 regional threads on Thorn Tree forum. As a result, 359 suitable questionnaires were returned for the further analysis. The study indicated backpackers had six different motivations for backpacking as follows: cultural knowledge, independence, experiential, budget travel, personal/social growth, relaxation.

The researches about the travel motivation of backpackers were also carried out in various countries such as Australia, Norway, Scotland, Turkey, China, India, Ghana and South Africa. Australia was the most popular country subjected to the backpacker motivation studies. As seen Table 2.5, four studies reviewed in this section were from Australia. Each of the studies had targeted international backpackers and used quantitative research methods.

The first and the earliest research was conducted by Loker-Murphy (1997). She targeted international backpackers who had planned to stay in Australia at least for one week. A total of 690 usable questionnaires were collected from YHA and private hostels around Australia. The motivational items on the survey were based on one of the Pearce's (1991) study which applied the TCL model. The most common six motivations of backpackers visiting Australia is given in order of importance as follow; to seek exciting/active/adventurous things to do, to meet the local people and characters, to enjoy and improve my knowledge of the country's physical and environmental settings, to enjoy and improve my knowledge of the country's history and culture, to mix with fellow travellers, and to fulfil a life-long dream and ambition.

The second research about backpacker's travel motivation in Australia was carried out by Mohsin and Ryan (2003). They assessed 475 backpackers' motives, behaviours and satisfactions who visited the Northern Territory of Australia. The survey was implemented at hostels in three different regions of Northern Territory (Darwin, Alice Springs and Yulara). The findings of backpackers' motivations indicated that the strongest motivation was to broaden knowledge about the world. This motive, on a seven-point Likert type scale, was the only one which rated above 6 by the participants. To make friends (mean= 5.22) was the second strongest motivation (5.22) which was followed by a preference of travelling lifestyle (4.76), self-testing (4.61), the advice of friends and relatives (4.33), a long desire to specifically visit the Northern Territory (4.29). On the other hand, in search of employment (2.84) and in search of a right partner (2.54) motives were rated as the least significant factors influencing backpacker to travel to Northern Territory of Australia.

The third study undertaken in Australia was also concentrated in Northern Australia. Pearce and Foster (2007) attempted to explore three different aspects of backpackers. Firstly, they wanted to understand what kind of generic skills that backpackers developed after their extended travels and to what extent did travel contributed to this progress. Secondly, the motivational patterns of backpackers to travel was explored. Finally, the researchers assessed the perception of backpackers about the significance of skills developed for a future employment. As a result, 372 usable surveys were collected from various backpacker hostels in Northern Australia. In terms of travel motivation of backpackers, four factors were identified as follows: learn about/develop self, learn about/experience country and culture, travel for social aspects/play, travel for escape and excitement.

The other research was a large evaluation report of backpacker market in Australia which was conducted by Pearce et al. (2009). A total of 1555 backpackers participated to the research. The most important motivations found in this study were to experience something

different, to gain a new perspective on life, to get away from daily routine/pressure, to meet new people, to develop my knowledge of the visited place, and to be independent.

Additionally, there were two studies concerning the backpacker travel motivation conducted in Norway. The first study was carried out by Butler (2008). He travelled around Norway and visited 25 hostels recommended by Lonely Planet. As a result of his qualitative interviews with the guests, he found out that backpackers visit Norway because of the importance of the Norwegian landscape, the importance of having historical familial ties to Norway, and use of Norway as a 'platform' for particular encounters. The second study which was conducted by Larsen et al. (2001) targeted 2000 visitors in Norway. They wanted to explore and compare travel motivations, subjective judgments of risk, tourist worries and tourists, self-identification of the visitors. Among the 2000 visitors, while 1880 participants identified themselves as tourists, 211 recognized themselves as backpackers. As a result of the study, six motivational factors of the participants were identified as follows: reward maximization/escape, ego-enhancement, cultural awareness/knowledge, relaxation, luxury, social being together. The findings indicated that both of the groups had similar patterns of motives to travel. The most important motivation for both groups was reward maximization and escape. While the second most important motive was knowledge/cultural awareness for backpackers, it was ranked as the third most important factor for mainstreamers. On the other hand, while ego-enhancement was rated as the second important factor by the mainstream tourists, this factor was the third most important motive for backpackers. Following, both groups had the same rank orders of motives as follows: social, luxury and relaxation.

Another research about backpacker's travel motivation in Northern Europe was carried out in Scotland by Hindle et al. (2015). In order to understand underlying motivational factors of backpackers for visiting Scotland, they have interviewed 54 international backpackers at hostels in various destinations of Scotland and collected qualitative data. The researchers employed push and pull factors for exploring motivations of the visitors. As a result, while the main push factors of the backpackers visiting Scotland were escape and knowledge seeking, the main pull factors were Scotland's scenery, positive word of mouth, geographic location, genealogy, the English language, job opportunities, outdoor activities, tangible cultural and natural features.

By the 2000s, the emergence of backpacker studies in non-Western countries could be observed. For example, Nigel and Benson (2005) carried out a quantitative research about backpacker's motivation for visiting South Africa. The data collection process of the study was undertaken with 95 international backpackers in either buses or hostels at four different

destinations. The findings of the study indicated that backpackers were mainly pushed to discover new places and things, to broaden knowledge about the world, to escape from everyday work, home and leisure scene/monotony of the daily routine. They were pulled for a unique mix of adventure, cultural and wildlife attractions, getting to know native cultures and seeing the big five and wild animals. Another research carried out in Africa was in Ghana (Dayour, 2013). The research investigated motivations of backpackers visiting the regions of Cape Coast and Elmina in the south of Ghana. A survey for collecting quantitative data was used as the research instrument which contained push and pull motivational items. The data collection process was undertaken at 22 different budget accommodation facilities. As a result, 184 international participants provided usable questionnaires to be analysed. Findings indicated that factors that pushed backpackers to visit Ghana were escape, adventure, and heritage. On the other hand, backpackers were pulled by the historical and cultural attractions, service delivery, and ecological attractions.

At the same year, Harman et al. (2013) examined travel motivation of backpackers visiting the city of Istanbul in Turkey. The quantitative data were collected through either face to face surveys or the internet. As a result, the process yielded 887 usable questionnaires for further analysis. The findings of the study indicated that international backpackers who visited Istanbul had the following motivational factors; experiential, learn about the world, socialization, rite of passage, relaxation, backpacker identity.

In recent years, the numbers of studies in non-Western countries continued to increase. China is a good example of this increase. Hsu et al. (2014) examined 200 international repeat backpackers' travel motivation visiting Shanghai. The findings indicated that backpackers were motivated by the factors of enhancement, inquisitiveness, get away. Recently, Nok et al. (2017) attempted to explore travel motivation of 250 international backpackers and their contribution to the sustainable tourism in Hong Kong territory. The results of analysis regarding the motivation indicated that while the most important three push motives of backpackers were learning new things, independence, experience unfamiliar life, the top-ranked three pull motives were unique local food. friendship with people of different countries, local lifestyle.

On the other hand, there were studies regarding backpacker motivation which were only focused on one nationality. For example, Maoz (2007) investigated Israeli backpacker's motivations and travel patterns in six different backpacker destinations of India. The researcher used a qualitative method for the study which included 25 in-depth interviews, participant observations, field notes and informal conversations with backpackers. Maoz (2007) evaluated Israeli backpacker's motivation under two dimensions. The first one of these dimensions was

called motivations of reversal which included motives such as to relax, to experience drugs, to feel free, to experience the 'orient', to search for a new identity. The second dimension was identified as motivations of continuity. This dimension included the following motivations; to experience friendship and a strong bond with fellow Israeli backpackers.

The other research regarding Israeli backpacker's travel motives was conducted by Reichel et al. (2009). Specifically, the researchers were interested to compare backpackers who travelled to different destinations in terms of their attitudes and activities. The study sample was consisted of 579 Israeli backpackers who had travelled once in the last 3 years. The majority of the participants were mainly travelled to countries in the Far East (n= 233) and South America (n= 179), while the rest travelled to destinations in Europe and Africa. The results indicated that travel motivations of backpackers were dissimilar depending on the destination visited. Backpackers who travelled to South America were mainly motivated for doing extreme sports, time-off, checking the possibility of living elsewhere, entertainment, and getting acquainted with new cultures. On the other hand, backpackers who travelled the Far East had motivations for spiritual growth, detachment from modern life, detachment from Israeli society, experimenting with drugs and seeing new places.

Finally, Chen et al. (2014) examined 421 Chinese backpackers in 7 different popular backpacking destinations in China. Their findings indicated that Chinese backpackers were mainly motivated by social interaction, self-actualization, destination experience, escape and relaxation.

2.4. Market Segmentation by Travel Motivation

It is not possible to consider all people in the tourism movement as a homogenous group who share common desires and demands. They are interested in travelling to different destinations in different ways (Dolnicar, 2008: 129). While some of them prefer to stay in luxurious hotels, others might prefer cheaper accommodations like hostels or campsites. There are tourists who are enthusiastic about experiencing new cultures, while some tourists would travel thousands of kilometres to explore a cave or climb a mountain. In order to supply appropriate services and goods for different kind of tourists, the recognition and identification of the differences in tourist population are crucial for the tourism industry.

This is the point where the market segmentation studies play a crucial role. Guttentag et al. (2018: 343) stated that segmentation studies provide actionable insights on targeting, positioning, and competitive analyses which could be implemented as important strategic tools for marketers. The major segmentation variables used in the marketing researches are presented in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6 The Major Segmentation Variables

Variable	Examples
Geographic	Nations, regions, states, counties, cities, neighbour-hoods, population density (urban, suburban, rural), climate
Demographic	Age, life-cycle stage, gender, income, occupation, education, religion, ethnicity, generation
Psychographic	Lifestyle, personality
Behavioural	Occasions, benefits, user status, usage rate, loyalty status

Source: Kotler and Armstrong, 2017: 213

Flognfeldt Jr. (1999: 111) stated that the nationality of tourists is one of the most common geographic variables that employed for market segmentation studies in the tourism field. For example, Lee et al. (2004) conducted a segmentation study on festival motivation by nationality and satisfaction. The sample consisted of 521 international visitors to the 2000 Kyongju World Culture Expo which was held in South Korea. The sample was mainly formed by 205 Korean visitors, followed by 103 Americans, 22 Europeans, 36 Japanese, 18 Chinese, 14 other Asians, and 12 from other countries (Lee et al., 2004: 65). The initial factor analysis was performed on 34 motivational items which were measured on a five-point Likert type scale. The analysis yielded following factors; cultural exploration, family togetherness, novelty, escape, event attractions, socialization. Afterwards, a K-means clustering method was performed on the factors generated, which suggested a solution of a four-cluster segmentation,

namely, 1) friends and family seekers; 2) multi-purpose seekers; 3) escape seekers; 4) event seekers (Lee et al., 2004: 66). Finally, in order to draw a significant profiling information by nationality, each cluster was classified into two groups as domestic visitors and foreign visitors (Lee et al., 2004: 68).

On the other hand, Bieger and Laesser (2001: 155, 156) stated that socio-demographic characteristics are not as a significant determinant for segmentation of groups as before, because there are now so-called 'hybrid' consumers, "who 'zap' from one option to another". They further noted (Bieger and Laesser: 2002: 69) that segmenting travellers based on their motivations was one of the most effective methods in the tourism field for promoting destinations. Eventually, the market segmentation studies in the tourism field indicated a trend of using psychographic rather than geographic or demographic variables. The most employed psychographic variable in tourism studies was the motivational factors of individuals for participating in touristic activities.

For example, Shoemaker (1989) made a market research about American senior citizens. He aimed to segment senior travellers based on their motivation to travel for pleasure. The research was undertaken in the state of Pennsylvania, with the residents who were 55 years old or older. In order to collect data for the study, 5,000 self-administered questionnaires were mailed to randomly selected residents (Shoemaker, 1989: 15). Respondents were requested to rate 14 reasons presented in the survey which influence their decisions to travel. K-means cluster algorithm was used to segment senior citizens into sub-groups (Shoemaker 1989: 15, 16). Finally, eleven variables were used for cluster analysis, which generated three clusters, namely 1) family travellers; 2) active resters; and 3) older set (Shoemaker, 1989: 17, 18).

Another segmentation study based on travel motivation was conducted by Andreu et al. (2005), who investigated British tourists visiting Fethiye and Marmaris destinations in the southwest part of Turkey for a summer holiday. The investigation was carried out with 260 British participants on their arrival to Dalaman airport. A self-completed questionnaire was used as the data collection instrument, where 17 motivational items were presented on a seven-point Likert type scale (Andreu et al., 2005: 4, 5). In order to understand underlying reasons of British tourists to visit Turkey, exploratory factor analysis was executed on those items. The analysis generated five factors, from the highest importance to the lowest as follows: getting away from routine, diversity of entertainment in a value for money destinations, different socio-cultural environment, ease of access-communication, enjoy Turkish tourist attractions (Andreu et al., 2005: 6). Following a multi-step cluster analysis on the factor scores divided the sample

into five segments: 1) exigent/fuzzy tourists; 2) active tourists; 3) recreational-type tourists; 4) escape tourists; 5) relax-quiet tourists (Andreu et al., 2005: 6, 7)

The academic interest in adventure tourism market in Turkey is increasing. For example, Albayrak and Caber (2017) attempted to segment white-water rafting market in Antalya, based on German tourists' motivations. The researchers concentrated on the German tourists because they are the one of the most essential market segments in the destination. The research area was the Koprulu Canyon National Park where white-rafting tours are commercially organized by local agencies. The motivations of tourists were examined by 32 motivational items under four core dimensions as follows: intellectual, social, competence/mastery, and stimulus avoidance (Albayrak and Caber, 2017: 3, 4). The items were presented to participants on a seven-point Likert type scale through a self-administered survey before the activity. As a result, 375 usable questionnaires were put into the analysis process. K-means clustering technique with a non-hierarchical algorithm was conducted by using the four motivation dimensions. Following the analysis, four clusters were identified as follows: 1) active vacationers; 2) reluctant vacationers; 3) moderate vacationers; 4) challenge seeker vacationers (Albayrak and Caber, 2017: 4, 5).

An interesting motivation-based segmentation study was carried out by Guttentag et al. (2018) subjecting the tourists who prefer to use Airbnb for their accommodation. The targeted sample profile for the research was the people who had used Airbnb within the previous year. Data collection process was performed by an online survey, which resulted in in 844 usable questionnaires for further analyses. The majority of the respondents (72.4%) were involved in the study from the Canadian travel-themed groups on Facebook, and the rest of the sample was derived from various sources such as MTurk (an opt-in online panel), Twitter, Reddit and travel blogs (Guttentag et al., 2018: 345, 347). The online questionnaire has included 17 items regarding the motivations for using Airbnb on a scale of six-point Likert type. All of the 17 motivational items were subjected to the two-stage cluster analyses which finally yielded a five-cluster solution. The clusters were labelled as follows: 1) money savers; 2) home seekers; 3) collaborative consumers; 4) pragmatic novelty seekers; 5) interactive novelty seekers (Guttentag et al., 2018: 349, 350).

Some examples of market segmentation studies in the tourism field were reviewed above in detail. At last, the next section presents segmentation studies regarding the backpacker market specifically.

2.4.1. Backpacker Segmentation

One of the earliest motivation based-segmentation studies of backpackers was carried out by Loker-Murphy (1997) in Australia. They conducted a self-administrative survey to 690 international backpackers between 31 October 1991 and 19 February 1992. The research was carried out around Australia in YHA hostels and private hostels at main attraction points of backpackers (Loker-Murphy 1997: 27). The 10 motivational items used in their questionnaire were identified with respect to Pearce's Travel Career Ladder and measured on a five-point Likert type scale. The main motivations of the backpackers were as follows: to meet local people and characters (mean= 3.73), to seek exciting/active/adventurous things to do (3.76), and to enjoy and improve their knowledge of Australia's physical setting and environment (3.37) (Loker-Murphy 1997: 32, 33). After identifying 3 motivational factors, the researchers clustered backpackers in Australia into four segments based on those factors as follows: 1) social/excitement seekers (21.3 %); 2) escapers/relaxers (20.4%); achievers (23.8%); and self-developers (34.5%) (Loker-Murphy 1997: 32, 35).

Thereafter, clusters were compared across descriptive variables, expenditure differences, accommodation preferences, activity structure preferences, word of mouth recommendations, and destination visited. As a result, Loker-Murphy (1997: 41, 42) indicated that backpackers in Australia are motivated by different reasons and are not homogenous. Not every backpacker travel for meeting other people and have a good time or for developing themselves. The escapers/relaxers were heavily motivated by the needs at the lowest level of the travel career ladder as follows: to escape, relax, and seek adventurous and exciting things, and mostly consisted of New Zealanders. The social/excitement seekers were mostly motivated by social needs, with a high desire to meet with locals as well as the need for excitement and adventure. The self-developers attributed most importance to self-esteem and development motives. Especially they desired to increase their knowledge about Australia's physical settings and environment. The achievers were mostly motivated by self-fulfilment needs. They were also driven by other motives such as meeting with local people, seeking adventure, learning about Australia, and so on. Finally, achievers indicated that the pursuit for satisfying many of the motives was the way of achieving self-fulfilment needs.

10 years after Loker-Murphy's research, Pearce and Foster (2007) attempted to classify backpackers in Australia once again. They examined 372 international backpackers through a questionnaire requesting them to rate the importance of 16 motivational statements to travel as a backpacker (Pearce and Foster, 2007: 1290, 1293). Researchers employed a factor-cluster approach for segmenting participants. Factor analysis yielded four motivational dimensions of

backpackers in Australia; learn about/develop self; learn about/experience country and culture; travel for social aspects/play; travel for escape and excitement. Following, K-mean cluster analysis was performed on the mean scores of each motivational factor. The analysis clustered backpackers into four distinct groups; 1) externally-driven thrill seekers; 2) self-development focussed; 3) high involvement socialites; 4) serious-minded generalists (Pearce and Foster, 2007: 1294, 1295). Externally-driven thrill seekers (22.3%) were highly motivated by the escape and excitement factor, while they were the only group who did not care about developing personality and understanding one's self more. On the other hand, self-development focused travellers (26.4%), as it can be understood by their label, were highly motivated by the factor learning about/developing self, as well as, by travelling for escape/excitement. Although, travelling for social aspects/play was not a significant factor for them. The third group, high involvement socialites (32.1%) had the highest score on the factors associating with socialization, entertainment and cultural growth. Lastly, serious-minded generalists (19.2%) were the least interested group in terms of escape and excitement (Pearce and Foster, 2007: 1294, 1295).

Chen et al. (2014) attempted to segment Chinese backpackers based on their travel motivations. In order to generate motivational items to address to the study, the authors made an initial online content analysis. In this context, Chinese backpacker's blogs and posts from major online backpacking forums were analysed. In addition to this process, eleven interviews were performed to generate more detailed information about backpackers' motivation. Finally, under the guidance of relevant literature, 22 items were constructed on a seven-point Likert type scale (Chen et al., 2014: 357). A self-completed survey was used as the data collection instrument. 84.5% of the total sample participated to the survey were generated from international youth hostels in various popular backpacker destinations in China, such as Tibet, Yunnan, Qinghai, Hainan, Zhejiang and Jiangsu. 15.4% of the research population was formed by the Chinese backpackers who were known to the authors. In the end of the data collection, information from 421 respondents were put into statistical analyses (Chen et al., 2014: 360). Exploratory factor analysis produced four underlying dimensions of Chinese backpacker's motivations, namely social interaction; self-actualization; destination experience; escape and relaxation. Following, K-mean cluster analysis segmented backpackers into three groups: 1) self-actualizers; 2) destination experiencers; 3) social seekers (Chen et al., 2014: 362).

The self-actualizers formed the largest group (49.5%) among the Chinese backpackers participated in the study. They were highly motived by internally driven motives such as, to know and understand myself, to improve my personal skills, to test myself and to develop my

personal capacity. Another significant factor motivating them to travel as a backpacker was escape and relaxation. Following the self-actualizers, destination experiencers generated the second largest group (34.4%) among backpackers. This group was principally motivated by the destination experience factor which was the single positive significance in this cluster. This factor contained motives such as to communicate with local people, to know and understand the local culture, history and society and to experience the local way of life. The last and smallest group was the social seekers (16.2%) whose main motivational factor was to seek social interaction (Ganghua et al., 2013: 361, 362).

It is important to mention that there were some other scholars attempted to classify backpackers into sub-groups with respect to other variables rather than the motivational factors. For example, Uriely et al. (2002) interviewed 38 Israelis' backpackers and made a segmentation based on the Cohen's (1979) phenomenology of tourist experiences. The participants were ranging from 21 to 26 years old who had at least taken a three months long journey to overseas destinations such as Australia, New Zealand, South and East Asia, Latin America, and Africa (Uriely et al., 2002: 528, 529). The study discovered four distinctive groups among the participants and labelled them as 1) experimental and experiential backpackers; 2) humanistic backpackers; 3) diversionary and recreational backpackers; 4) multitype backpackers. The motivation of the first group was 'to interact in the local "centre" while travelling', 'to meet the other', and 'to explore and practice Eastern philosophies and meditation techniques'. However, people in this group were not committed to adapt themselves into Eastern philosophies and lifestyles. The humanistic backpackers, on the other hand, were more interested in participating in foreign culture and to seek meaningful experiences. The backpackers in the third group were mainly interested in pleasure-related activities. They would travel to take a break from their responsibilities in the home society. Finally, multitype backpackers were those who had multi characteristics in terms of travel style and behaviour. Where a transformation of travel motivation can be observed among backpackers as their travel experience increases (Uriely et al. 2002: 530, 531, 532).

Similarly, Ateljevic and Doorne (2001) implemented a qualitative research to segment backpacker market in the central part of New Zealand. During the two year-long research project, 106 backpackers were subjected to in-depth interviews in which backpackers' travel motivation, their perception of products and travel experiences were examined. The authors were classified backpackers into two separate groups as the two extreme ends of the market. The first group was called 'traditional, long-term budget travellers', who seemed to have mainly pushed away from the pressure of everyday life. Backpackers in this group expressed about

dissatisfaction of Western way of live as well as motivation to escape from urbanization, corporate culture and globalization. They were also motivated for personal growth, in search of a new identity away from their familiar environment searching for the meaning of life (Ateljevic and Doorne, 2001: 174, 175, 176, 177). While the second group was identified as 'mainstream backpackers' and considered as the industrialized end of the backpacker market by the authors. Their motivations were to find a change from everyday life, to pursue a certain type of recreational activities, to see different things, to do things that haven't done by them (Ateljevic and Doorne, 2001: 178, 179).

CHAPTER THREE
MOTIVATION BASED SEGMENTATION OF BACKPACKERS IN TURKEY

3.1. The aim of the study

Various studies have demonstrated that backpacker tourism has positive impacts on the local economy, especially in developing countries (Hampton, 1998; Scheyvens, 2002; Westerhausen and Macbeth, 2003). Backpackers are more likely to be young and travel to less developed regions and generally purchase locally produced goods and services than other types of tourists (Scheyvens 2002: 152; Slaughter, 2004: 174; Paris and Teye, 2010: 245). TURSAB (2015) published a report on youth tourism which indicates that domestic travel movement in Turkey had an average of 68.4 million and the youth represents 25% share of this movement. Since backpacking is becoming a popular mainstream activity (Rielly, 2006), it is predicted to witness a potential domestic backpacker market out of the youth movement in Turkey. However, there are only few studies about backpackers in Turkish tourism literature (Harman et al., 2013; Harman, 2014). Therefore, the current study aims to fill this gap by investigating Turkish backpackers from various aspects to uncover the unexplored domestic backpacker market and contribute to the development of domestic tourism in Turkey. More specifically, the objectives of this research are:

    a) To explore the socio-demographic characteristics of backpackers,

    b) To find out what sources used by backpackers' for obtaining travel information,

    c) To investigate backpackers' transportation and accommodation preferences,

    d) To understand backpackers' social media usage habits,

    e) To identify backpacker's motivational factors for travelling in Turkey,

    f) To classify backpackers into different segments based on their motivations.

3.2. Methodology

A self-complete electronic questionnaire was designed to explore backpackers' motivation traveling in Turkey. The online questionnaire was chosen because of its economic advantage and its convenience to involve participants to fill the survey while anywhere in Turkey.

Paris and Teye's (2010) motivation scale was used to measure backpacker motivation. However, Caber and Albayrak (2016: 77) noted that directly adopting measurement scales may not allow the researcher to discover specific motivational factors. Therefore, in order to examine distinctive motivations of Turkish backpackers, an interview was designed by the

researcher with the purpose of creating and/or adapting the survey which would be used in the study as a main data collection tool. The reason of choice for the interview lies in the fact that deeper insights from the participants could be acquired with the use of an interview.

3.1.1. Interview

As explained below, for identifying additional motivation items, interviews were performed in Olympos, Antalya between 20-23 August 2017. Olympos, situated in the central Turkish Mediterranean coast is a popular backpacking destination among Lycian Way enthusiasts today as well as being a popular hippy-trail in the past.[10] Participants were selected among backpackers visiting Olympos. The author approached the potential participants at the beach and camping sites and then explained the purpose and details of the research. Afterwards, interviews were conducted with the backpackers who volunteered to participate. The main research question asked during the interviews was "What motivates you to travel with a backpack?". The travellers were also requested to provide information on their age, sex, education and occupation. Finally, 31 Turkish backpackers agreed to take part in the study. All the interviews were recorded. Subsequently, the audio files were transformed into text by the author and were coded into themes. Later, they analysed on a quantitative basis (Table 3.1).

The socio-demographic characteristics of the sampled backpackers are presented in Table 3.1 The sample was not balanced in terms of sex, with a predominance of men (90.3%). The majority of the participants were between 21-30 years old (61.3%) and qualified with a bachelor's degree (70.6%). In terms of occupation, while 38.2% of the participants were employed, 32.4% of them were students. On the other hand, there was only one respondent who was unemployed.

Table 3.1 Demographic Profile of Interview Participants

	f	%
Gender		
Male	28	90.3
Female	3	9.7
Age		
18-20	3	9.7
21-24	9	29.0
25-30	10	32.3
31-35	4	12.9
36<	5	16.1

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[10] https://www.lonelyplanet.com/turkey/olympos

	f	**%**
Education		
High School	8	23.5
Two-year university	2	5.9
Four-year university	24	70.6
Occupation		
Student	11	32.4
Employee	13	38.2
Employer	1	2.9
Unemployed	1	2.9
Self-employed	4	11.8
Other	4	11.8

In regard to motivation statements given by the interview participants, only those which were not found in Paris and Teye's (2010) study are listed in Table 3.2. The most mentioned motivation was "to be closer to nature" (47.1%), followed by "to get away from city life" (26.5%), and "to experience a modest life away from property" (11.8%). It can be noted that the backpackers in Olympos were mainly pulled by the nature and pushed away from cities and property.

Table 3.2 Motivations of Interview Participants

Motivation	*f*	**%**
To be closer to nature	16	47.1
To get away from city life	9	26.5
To experience a modest life away from property	4	11.8
To experience camp life	3	8.8
To be on the road	3	8.8
To have adventure	2	5.9
To experience backpacking culture	2	5.9
To increase my knowledge about Turkey	2	5.9

3.1.2. Survey Instrument

The online questionnaire was the principal instrument of data collection for this research. It contained two main sections. The first section was designed to identify descriptive information about backpackers. It included socio-demographic, travel-related and social media-related questions. The second section focused on the measurement of the motivation for travel. The questions regarding to travel-related characteristics of respondents were obtained from Pearce *et al.* (2009) and Paris and Teye (2010). The social media-related questions were adapted from Lenhart *et al.* (2010) and Munar and Jacobsen's (2014) researches. Respondents had more

than one option to indicate for the following questions; mode of travel, type of accommodation, source of information, social media channels used, and method used to share travel experience.

Figure 3. 1 Interviews on the Way to Olympos Antique City

The motivation scale was derived from Paris and Teye's (2010) study and included the extra seven items generated from the interviews listed above in Table 3.2. There were two reasons behind choosing Paris and Teye's (2010) scale. Firstly, they have developed their scale from previous studies on backpacker motivation (Richards and Wilson, 2004; Pearce, 1990; Loker-Murphy, 1996; Newlands, 2004). Secondly, similar to the current study, they have used a self-administered online questionnaire for their research. The final version of the survey implemented in this study contained thirty-one motivational statements describing participants' motivation for traveling with a backpack. Items were measured on a five-point Likert type scale ranging from *totally disagree* (1) to *totally agree* (5).

The questionnaire which was developed based on the literature written in English was translated into Turkish by the author. Next, the survey named "Backpackers in Turkey" was designed and administered on Google Surveys, with a brief explanation about what is expected from the participants. In order to test the validity of the questionnaire, it was piloted with 25 backpackers. An e-mail was sent to backpackers on the 1st December 2017. Respondents were asked to provide feedback on the survey and point out any errors or any potential

misunderstandings. The survey was then revised based on the feedbacks of the participants. The final version of the survey can be found in Appendix 1.

3.1.3. Sampling and Data Collection

The individuals who travelled as a backpacker constituted the population of this study. The operational definition of the backpackers subjected to the survey were those who preferred a backpack as travel luggage (Zhu, 2007 as cited in Chen et al, 2014: 358). The study used non-probability convenience sampling technique. The sampling frame included 294,825 members of six different backpacker specific communities on facebook.com, as follows:

- Sırt Çantalı Gezginler (Backpackers.TR)
- Kuzey Göçebeleri (Northern Nomads)
- Likya Yolu (Lycian Way)
- Işıklar Ülkesi, Likya Yolu (Land of Lights, Lycian Way)
- Otostop Turkey (Hitch-hike Turkey)
- Gezgin Dayanışması (Wanderer Unity)
- UniRail (InterRail Turkey)

The online data collection process was started on 25th January 2018. The hyperlink to the survey was posted repeatedly with a short message and heading 'Backpackers in Turkey' in the groups listed above. Moreover, in order to reach out to more participants, the author attended a summit called 'Seyyah' (Globetrotter) between 1-2 March. The summit is organized by the travel club of Istanbul Technical University (GEZIITU) every year and hosts prominent travellers to share their travel experiences through presentations. To attract more respondents to the current research, the author has developed dialogues between the summit participants as well as the organizers. Consequently, individual e-mails with the link to survey were sent to people who have travelled as a backpacker and who were willing to support the study. Furthermore, the managers of the travel club have shared the link of the survey with their members on the second week of March.

The data collection was completed on 28th March 2018. Among 271 questionnaires collected online, a total of 261 questionnaires were usable for data analysis.

3.1.4. Data Analysis

Responses were downloaded from Google Surveys and then imported into SPSS 23 for data analysis. The collected data were analysed in five steps. First, the sample was described by socio-demographic, travel-related and social media-related characteristics. Second,

motivation items were ranked in terms of importance by their mean scores. Third, principal component analyses with varimax rotation were carried out to identify underlying dimensions associated with motivations of Turkish backpackers. Fourth, a K-means cluster analysis was conducted to segment the participants who share common characteristics. Finally, the identified clusters were compared to each other by socio-demographic, travel-related and social media-related characteristics.

3.2. Limitations

There are a few limitations which need to be mentioned here. First of all, the initial interviews for examining distinctive motivations of Turkish backpackers were only held in Olympos town. However, there are other popular backpacker destinations in Turkey. The preliminary insights about Turkish backpackers could have been enhanced by investigating other backpacker specific destinations such as Butterfly Valley and Kabak Bay. Secondly, within the Facebook communities who framed the sample population, there may be some members who only have a keen interest in backpacking, without any actual experience. UniRail could be a relevant example in this scope. As a sub-group of InterRail Turkey[11], UniRail is populated by backpacker travellers, who are generally university students. Finally, even though it is advantageous to use online surveys to reach out to particularly mobile populations such as backpackers, the access to the internet still remains to be a limitation for the study. Since a significant number of travellers might be traveling *offline* intentionally, thus making their participation in the study impossible. The present study might have been even more enriched with the participation of more active and *online* backpackers, which could be construed as another hypothetical limitation.

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[11] InterRail Turkey is a Facebook community initially founded to provide assistance to Turkish backpackers travelling Europe by an Interrail Pass. The group has grown up rapidly in the recent years. Today, there are over 300,000 of members sharing their travel experiences and guiding to each other.

3.3. Findings

3.3.1. Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Table 3.3 Demographic Profile of the Respondents

Attributes	*f*	*%*
Gender *(N=261)*		
Male	156	59.8
Female	105	40.2
Age *(N=258)*		
18-20	33	12.8
21-24	92	35.7
25-30	65	24.9
31-35	30	11.6
36<	38	14.7
Marital Status *(N=259)*		
Single	228	88.0
Married	31	12.0

Table 3.3 reflects the basic attributes of the respondents' demographic profile, including age, sex and marital status. More than a half of the respondents participated to the study were male (59.8%) and only 12% were married. 60.6% of the respondents were between ages 21-30, while respondents over 36 years old generated 15.4% of the sample. According to Bolton et al. (2013: 247), in terms of age, backpackers in Turkey are a Generation Y[12] dominant population.

Table 3.4 Respondents' Education and Occupations

	f	*%*
Education *(N=252)*		
Secondary School and earlier	3	1.2
High-school	17	6.7
Two-year university	20	7.9
Four-year university	177	70.2
Master's and higher	35	13.4
Occupation *(N=256)*		
Student	124	48.4
Employee	79	30.9
Employer	7	2.7
Unemployed	23	9.0
Self-employed	6	2.3
Retired	5	2.0
Other	12	4.7

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[12] Generation Y refers to people who were born between 1981 and 1999

Table 3.4 shows the educational and occupational status of the respondents. The majority of the respondents were well educated, with 91.5% of higher education, while a small share was only graduated from high school (6.7%), and secondary school and lower (1.2%). Almost half of the respondents were students (48.4%), and 30.9 % was employee. On the other hand, while 9% of the respondents stated that they are currently unemployed, 2.3% were retired.

Table 3.5 City of Residence of the Respondents *(N=259)*

City	*f*	%
Istanbul	94	36.3
Antalya	30	11.6
Ankara	30	11.6
Izmir	18	6.9
Bursa	8	3.1
Eskisehir	8	3.1
Sakarya	8	3.1
Kocaeli	6	2.3
Other	57	22.0

As presented in Table 3.5 the sample included travellers mostly from highly populated cities of Turkey. The majority of the respondents (35.6%) were from Istanbul. The respondents from Antalya and Ankara showed the same participation rate, with 11.6%, generating the other largest groups.

3.3.2. Travel-Related Characteristics of the Respondents

Table 3.6 The Length of Previous Trips *(N=260)*

Days	*f*	%
Between 1–3 days	27	10.4
Between 4–7 days	102	39.2
Between 8–15 days	79	30.4
Between 16–30 days	34	13.1
31 days and more	18	6.9

Table 3.6 indicates the average travel length preferred by the participants in their previous trips. 4 to 7 days (39.2%) was the most preferred duration for travelling among the respondents, which is followed by 8 to 15 days (30.4%) and 16 to 30 days (13.1%). Finally, the remaining participants chose to travel either for shorter periods (1 – 3 days, 10.4%) or for longer periods (31 days and more, 6.9%).

Table 3.7 Number of International Trips Taken in Previous Year *(N=244)*

Trip taken	*f*	%
None	115	47.1
Once	50	20.5
Two times and more	79	32.4

Table 3.7 indicates how many international trips taken by the respondents within the last year. Slightly more than a half of the participants stated that they have taken at least one trip abroad, with a 20.5% of taking a single trip, and a 32.4% taking two or more trips. On the other hand, 47.1% of the respondents did not travel abroad last year.

Table 3.8 Number of Domestic Trips Taken Previous Year *(N=258)*

Trip taken	*f*	%
Once	24	9.2
2-6 times	136	52.1
7-9 times	22	8.4
10 times or more	76	29.1

Table 3.8 shows the number of domestic trips taken by participants during the last year. In sum, the 91.8% of the respondents stated that they travelled around Turkey at least two times in 2017. Respondents who travelled for 2 to 6 times in last year generated the largest share of the sample, with 52.1%, followed by the group of participants who travelled for more than 10 times (29.1%). On the other hand, respondents who travelled for 7-9 times shaped the smallest group.

Table 3.9 Transport Used to Travel Around Turkey *(N=260)*

Mode	*f*	%
Long-distance coach	170	65.4
Hitchhike[13]	166	63.8
Train	89	34.2
Car	88	33.8
BlaBlaCar[14]	47	18.1
Bicycle	36	13.8
Airplane	24	9.2
Motorbike	24	9.2
Walking/Trekking	9	3.5
Caravan	5	1.9

Note: More than one option was available.

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[13] Hitchhike also known as auto-stop means to travel by getting free rides in someone else's vehicle ("hitchhike", Cambridge Dictionary).

[14] BlaBlaCar is a shared economy system which connects drivers with empty seats and people who are travelling to the same destinations.

Table 3.9 shows the transport forms used by the backpackers when travelling between destinations in Turkey. The predominant modes of travel were the long-distance coach (65.4%) and hitch-hiking (63.8%), followed by the train (34.2%), and the car (33.8%). While, the campervan was the least preferred mode of travel, with 1.9%.

Table 3.10 Preferred Accommodation *(N=261)*

Type	*f*	*%*
Wilderness Camping	206	78.9
Hostel/Bungalow	110	42.1
Visiting friends and relatives	106	40.6
Camp Site	96	36.8
CouchRail[15]	64	24.5
Couchsurfing	64	24.5
Hotel	55	21.1
Airbnb	19	7.3
Other	11	4.2

Note: More than one option was available.

Table 3.10 indicates in which type of accommodation backpackers usually stayed during their trips. Participants indicated that the wilderness camping was the most common type of accommodation (78.9%). Respondents also recognised hostel/bungalow (42.1) and visiting friends and family (40.6%) as relatively popular options. Interestingly, hotel was also a reasonable option among respondents, with 21.1%. While, Airbnb (7.3%) was not a trendy choice. Backpackers in Turkey were mostly motivated to accommodate themselves in tents.

Table 3.11 Information Sources *(N=260)*

Source	*f*	*%*
Internet	236	90.8
Social media (e.g. Facebook)	181	69.6
Friends and relatives	165	63.5
Previous travel experiences	118	45.4
Travel guide books	70	26.9
Newspapers and magazines	24	9.2
TV and radio	16	6.2
Other	6	2.3

Note: More than one option was available.

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[15] CouchRail is a nationwide Facebook community inspired by Couchsurfing, with over 110,000 members. Travelers basically post a message in the group including the destination they are planning to arrive and seek for a person who can share his/her place with them for a certain period of time.

Table 3.11 shows the information sources used by backpackers for planning their trips. The internet (90.8%) is the major source of information referred by the respondents. Social media (69.6%) channels was the second popular platform where respondents seek information. Word-of-mouth information from friends and relatives (63.5%) was also a considerable option for obtaining information. While 45.4% of the respondents relied upon their previous travel experiences, 26.9% consulted travel guide books. On the other hand, the least used source was TV and radio (6.2%).

3.3.3. Social Media-Related Characteristics of the Participants

Table 3.12 Social Media Channels Used in General *(N=261)*

Media	*f*	%
Facebook	241	92.3
Instagram	222	85.1
YouTube	201	77.0
Twitter	120	46.0
Couchsurfing	81	31.0
Google+	82	30.5
Pinterest	65	24.9
LinkedIN	53	20.3
Swarm	40	15.3
Tumblr	24	9.2
Other	4	1.5

Note: More than one option was available.

Table 3.12 shows the social media networks that respondents are connected to and make use of. Participants reported that Facebook (92.3%) was the most heavily used social media channel, followed by Instagram (85.1%) and YouTube (77%). While, the least used network was Tumblr (9.4%).

Table 3.13 Social Media Usage Frequency *(N=258)*

Pattern	*f*	%
Rarely	5	1.9
Once a month	1	.4
Several times a month	2	.8
Several times a week	19	7.4
Everyday	139	53.9
Several times a day	92	35.7

Table 3.13 indicates how frequently respondents connect to the social media. More than half of the participants (53.9%) stated that they use social media daily. Moreover, 35.7% of

respondents reported that they go online several times a day. On the other hand, the participants who displayed less interest in social media generated only the 10.5% of the sample. To sum up, 89.6% of the respondents visit social networking websites every day, which indicates that backpackers in Turkey are enthusiastic users of social media.

Table 3.14 Time Spent on Social Media in a Week *(N=256)*

Hour	*f*	%
Less than 1 hour	27	10.3
1-5 hours	91	35.5
6-10 hours	62	23.8
More than 10 hours	76	29.7

Respondents were asked to indicate how many hours a week they spent their time on the social media. As can be seen in Table 3.14, while the majority of respondents (53.5%) spent at least six or more hours, only 10.3% of the participants stated that they are online less than an hour within a week's time.

Table 3.15 Media Use for Sharing Travel Experiences *(N=265)*

Method	*f*	%
I use Instagram to share	176	68.2
I make photo/video albums for acquaintances (e.g. on Facebook)	154	59.7
I send e-mail or SMS	54	20.9
I write reviews (e.g. on TripAdvisor)	50	19.4
I keep a blog website	36	14.0
I use Twitter to share	23	8.9
I send post cards	10	3.9
Other*	19	7.4

* All stated that they preferred to share their experiences only face to face.

Table 3.15 shows descriptive results of the participants' media use for their travel experiences. The participants mainly reported that they upload visual contents to their social media accounts. Instagram (68.2%) was the most popular among backpackers, followed by sites where one can create photo/video albums for friends and family such as Facebook (59.7%). Sending e-mail or sms was third most common method of delivering travel experiences among backpackers, with 20.9%. On the other hand, communicating through post cards were the least frequent way, with only 3.9%.

3.3.4. Importance of Motivation Items

Table 3.16 presents the rankings of the motivations of Turkish backpackers. "To relax mentally" (4.79) was the most important motive for travel, followed by "to feel free and independent" (4.71) and "to be closer to nature" (4.62). While, "to visit friends and family" (2.12) was rated as the least significant motivation.

Table 3.16 Motivations of Participants

Rank	Statements	Mean	Std. Dev.
1	To relax mentally	4.79	.524
2	To feel free and independent	4.71	.666
3	To be closer to nature	4.62	.706
4	To be in a calm atmosphere	4.54	.791
5	To get away from city life	4.52	.848
6	To explore other cultures	4.47	.955
7	To experience excitement and adventure	4.32	.982
8	To discover myself	4.30	.971
9	To experience a modest life away from property	4.22	1.068
10	To relax physically	4.17	1.108
11	To interact with local people	4.16	1.060
12	To get off the beaten track	4.16	1.129
13	To increase my knowledge about Turkey	4.15	1.078
14	To organize my own journey	4.14	1.186
15	To be on the road	4.11	1.095
16	To avoid hustle	4.11	1.138
17	To experience camp life	4.11	1.047
18	To travel on a low budget	4.08	1.181
19	To challenge and explore my abilities	3.80	1.217
20	To use my physical abilities	3.75	1.232
21	To build friendship with others	3.69	1.180
22	To travel for as long as possible	3.66	1.362
23	To experience backpacking culture	3.61	1.295
24	To have a good time with friends	3.54	1.305
25	To gain experiences to share with friends and family	3.44	1.395
26	To develop close friendships	3.30	1.288
27	To contribute to the place I visit	3.16	1.287
28	To associate with other travellers	3.15	1.274
29	To attend special events	2.99	1.344
30	To visit friends and family	2.12	1.228

3.3.5. Factor Analysis

In order to identify the underlying dimensions of backpackers' motivations for travel, a principal component analysis by using Varimax rotation was conducted on 30 motivational items. The results of Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin test with .804 points indicated that sample size was enough for factor analysis to be evaluated. The initial analysis yielded nine factors. By using Cronbach's Alpha, internal reliabilities of the factors were evaluated. The analysis was performed repeatedly by dropping some of the motivational items due to low reliability scores observed on extracted factors. Finally, seven factors were generated with eigenvalues of greater than 1.0, which were extracted from 23 variables, explaining 64.24% of the overall variance. The results are presented in Table 3.17. Items with factor loading greater than .50. were included. The seven motivational factors were labelled as follows: relaxation, social growth, social attendance, cultural growth, independence, personal growth and road culture. The communality of each variable ranged from .440 to .774. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were ranged from .571 to .809, which relatively close to recommended level of .70. The details of seven motivational factors of backpackers as follows.

Relaxation (Factor 1) is the most influential factor on backpacker's motivation, with a mean of 4.45. This factor accounted for 12.81% of the variance and had an eigenvalue of 5.356. The factor comprised of six motivational items that associate with relaxation, including to be in a calm atmosphere, to relax physically, to relax mentally, to be closer to nature, to get away from city life, to avoid hustle.

Social Growth (Factor 2) accounted for 11.24% of the variance and had a mean of 3.42 (an eigenvalue of 2.363). The factor comprised of four motivational items, including to associate with other travellers, to build friendship with others, to develop close friendships, and to have a good time with friends.

Social Attendance (Factor 3) accounted for 9.25% of the variance and had a mean of 2.85 (an eigenvalue of 2.106). The factor comprised of three motivational items, including to visit friends and family, to gain experiences to share with friends and family, and to attend special events.

Cultural Growth (Factor 4) accounted for 8.88% of the variance and had a mean of 4.26 (an eigenvalue of 1.396). The factor comprised of three motivational items, including to explore other cultures, to interact with local people, and to increase my knowledge about Turkey.

Table 3.17 Principal Component Analysis Results for Backpacker Motivation

				Factors			
Items	Relaxation	Social Growth	Social Attendance	Cultural Growth	Independence	Personal Growth	Road Culture
To be in a calm atmosphere	.752						
To relax physically	.700						
To relax mentally	.666						
To be closer to nature	.597						
To get away from city life	.566						
To avoid hustle	.548						
To associate with other travellers		.820					
To build friendship with others		.809					
To develop close friendships		.681					
To have a good time with friends		.553					
To visit friends and family			.758				
To gain experiences to share with friends and family			.673				
To attend special events			.607				
To explore other cultures				.803			
To interact with local people				.802			
To increase my knowledge about Turkey				.650			
To travel for as long as possible					.813		
To organize my own journey					.726		
To get off the beaten track					.613		
To use my physical abilities						.806	
To challenge and explore my abilities						.794	
To be on the road							.782
To discover myself							.756
Variance explained (%)	12.81	11.24	9.25	8.88	8.37	7.49	6.81
Reliability	.720	.809	.683	.740	.666	.705	.571
Mean	4.45	3.42	2.85	4.26	3.98	3.77	4.20

Independence (Factor 5) accounted for 8.37% of the variance and had a mean of 3.99. (an eigenvalue of 1.309). The factor comprised of three motivational elements, including travel as long as possible, to organize my own journey, and to get off the beaten track.

Personal Growth (Factor 6) accounted for 7.49% of the variance and had a mean of 3.77 (an eigenvalue of 1.161). The factor comprised of two motivational items, including to use my physical abilities, and to challenge and explore my abilities.

Road Culture (Factor 7) accounted for 6.81% of the variance and had a mean of 4.20 (an eigenvalue of 1.087). The factor comprised of two motivational items, including to be on the road, and to discover myself.

3.3.6. Cluster Analysis

K-means cluster analysis was conducted to segment Turkish backpackers based on their motivations. The calculated mean scores of the seven motivational factors identified above were used as the clustering variables in order to categorise respondents into homogenous groups. The cluster analysis indicated that four-cluster solution was appropriate. Three and five cluster solutions were also run and evaluated. But the results did not generate the same degree of dissimilarity between clusters as the four-cluster solution. The means for each cluster on the seven motivational factors are displayed in Table 3.18. Relaxation dimension was the highest motivational factor in all dimensions, except Cluster C, in which Road Culture was the predominant factor.

When compared with the other segments, **Cluster A** generated the largest share of the participants (***n*= 105, 40.2%**), with higher motivations in all dimensions. The Relaxation factor (mean= 4.68) displayed the highest positive in this cluster. This reveals that Turkish backpackers falling in this segment were mainly motivated to take backpacking travels by a desire of relaxation. Cultural Growth (4.60) and then Road Culture (4.20) were also very significant factors of this cluster. On the other hand, Social Attendance (2.85). was the least important motivation factor for the backpackers in this cluster. Backpackers falling in this group were named as Absolute Explorers.

The second largest group yielded from the analysis was **Cluster B**. In contrast to the Cluster A, the participants (***n*= 67, 25.6%**) of this segment had lower motivations in all dimensions when compared to the other segments. Cluster B similar to the Cluster A were mostly motivated by relaxation (mean= 4.10) and road culture (3.95) factors. Although, cultural growth (3.21), independence (3.06) factors were relatively important to the backpackers of this segment, they did not choose backpacking in search of social growth (2.68), personal growth

(2.60) or social attendance (2.01). The members of this group were named as Loneliness Seekers.

The third segment generated by the analysis was **Cluster C (*n*= 52, 20%)**. Characteristically, the backpackers of this segment were mainly interested in road culture (mean=4.50). This indicates that backpackers in this cluster mostly enjoy the travel itself by being on the road and discovering themselves through the journey. Alongside the relaxation (4.44) factor, cultural growth (4.43), independence (4.34), and personal growth (4.14) had high positive values in this segment. However, backpackers in this segment indicated insignificant values on social growth (2.85) and social attendance (2.16). Backpackers in this segment were named as Self Developers.

Cluster D (*n* =37, 14.2%) was the smallest segment yielded from the analysis. Backpackers in this segment distinguished by their comparatively lower interest in the road culture (mean= 2.97). On the other hand, they were mainly driven by relaxation (4.38) and cultural growth (4.34) factors. Because of the members of this segment displayed a mainstream tendency, this segment was named as Social Traditionalists.

Table 3.18 Comparison of Clusters' Motivation

Factors	Overall mean	Absolute Explorers (*N=105/* 40.2%) A	Loneliness Seekers (*N=67/* 25.6%) B	Self-Developers (*N =52/* 20%) C	Social Traditionalists (*N=37/* 14.2%) D
Relaxation	4.45	4.68 H	4.10 L	4.44 L	4.38 L
Social Growth	3.42	4.23 H	2.68 L	2.85 L	3.20 L
Social Attendance	2.85	3.65 H	2.02 L	2.16 L	3.01 H
Cultural Growth	4.26	4.64 H	3.21 L	4.43 H	4.34 H
Independence	3.98	4.41 H	3.06 L	4.34 H	3.46 L
Personal Growth	3.77	4.37 H	2.60 L	4.14 H	3.09 L
Road Culture	4.20	4.58 H	3.95 L	4.50 H	2.97 L

H: High relative to overall mean; L: Low relative to overall mean

3.3.6.1. Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Clusters

Table 3.19 Clusters' Characteristics

Marital Status	Absolute Explorers (N=105)		Loneliness Seekers (N=67)		Self-Developers (N=52)		Social Traditionalists (N=37)	
	f	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*
Gender								
Male	58	55.2	38	56.7	39	75.0	21	56.8
Female	47	44.8	29	43.3	13	25.0	16	43.2
Age								
18-20	17	16.3	4	6.2	9	17.3	3	8.1
21-24	41	39.4	24	36.9	13	25.0	14	37.8
25-30	28	26.9	15	23.1	16	30.8	6	16.2
31-35	8	7.7	8	12.3	7	13.5	7	18.9
36<	10	9.6	14	21.5	7	13.5	7	18.9
Marital Status								
Single	95	90.5	57	86.4	42	80.8	34	94.4
Married	10	9.5	9	13.6	10	19.2	2	5.6

Table 3.19 indicates the results of the socio-demographics for each segment. Slightly more than half of each cluster is consisted of male participants. Though it is worth to note that self-developers displayed a heavy male domination, with 75%.

In terms of age, the majority of absolute explorers (39.4%), loneliness seekers (36.9%), and social traditionalists (37.8%) were between 21-24 years old, except, self-developers had the largest proportion of respondents between 25-30 years old (30.8%). On the other hand, absolute explorers (16.3%) and self-developers (17.3%) had more participants between 18-20 years old than the other two segments, whereas loneliness seekers and social traditionalists had more respondents who were 36 years old or older, with 21.5% and 18.9% respectively. Nevertheless, absolute explorers were the youngest group having members between 24 years old or younger, with 55.7%. In general, the vast majority of the groups (80%) were single. While self-developers had the largest share of the respondents who were married, with 19.2%, social traditionalists include a very small group of married travellers, with only 5.6%.

Table 3.20 Education and Occupation Status of the Clusters

	Absolute Explorers (N=105)		Loneliness Seekers (N=67)		Self-Developers (N=52)		Social Traditionalists (N=37)	
	f	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*
Education								
Secondary School and earlier	3	2.9	0	0	0	0	0	0
High-school	7	6.9	3	4.6	4	7.8	3	8.8
Two-year university	6	5.9	5	7.7	6	11.8	3	8.8
Four-year university	68	66.7	49	75.4	35	68.6	25	73.5
Master's and higher	18	17.6	8	12.3	6	11.8	3	8.8

	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Occupation								
Student	55	53.9	27	40.9	25	48.1	17	47.2
Employee	28	27.5	26	39.4	15	28.8	10	27.8
Employer	1	1.0	1	1.5	3	5.8	2	5.6
Non-working	12	11.8	3	4.5	6	11.5	2	5.6
Retired	0	0	1	1.5	2	3.8	2	5.6
Self-employed	2	2.0	2	3.0	0	0	2	5.6
Other	4	3.9	6	9.1	1	1.9	1	2.8

Table 3.20 shows the education and occupation statuses of the segments. The vast majority of respondents from each segment were well-educated, having a degree in a higher education. Loneliness seekers slightly more educated than other segments, had bachelor's degree or higher, with 87.7%. Self-developers had the largest share of respondents who had a lower educational qualification than bachelor's degree, with 19.6%.

The majority of respondents of all groups were students. Loneliness seekers had the largest share of participants who were already working as an employee, with 39.4%. In other three segments, the distribution of working participants is more or less similar to loneliness seekers, with 27–29%. On the other hand, the majority of the non-working respondents appear to be grouped under absolute explorers and loneliness seekers, with 11.8% and 11.5% respectively.

Table 3.21 City of Residence of the Clusters

	Absolute Explorers (N=105)		Loneliness Seekers (N=67)		Self-Developers (N=52)		Social Traditionalists (N=37)	
Residence	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Ankara	14	13.3	6	9.0	4	7.7	6	17.1
Antalya	17	16.2	5	7.5	6	11.5	2	5.7
Bursa	3	2.9	0	0	3	5.8	2	5.7
Eskisehir	4	3.8	1	1.5	2	3.8	1	2.9
Istanbul	29	27.6	36	53.7	21	40.4	8	22.9
Izmir	10	9.5	6	9.0	2	3.8	0	0
Kocaeli	1	1.0	0	0	4	7.7	1	2.9
Sakarya	2	1.9	1	1.5	0	0	5	14.3
Other	25	23.8	12	17.9	10	19.2	10	28.6

Table 3.21 presents the city of residence of each segment. Loneliness seekers and self-developers were mainly populated by the respondents from Istanbul, with 53.7% and 40.4% respectively. Although, absolute explorers had the largest share of the respondents from Antalya (16.2%), and Izmir (10%), most of the participants (27.6%) were from Istanbul. Social

traditionalists, on the other hand were mostly consisted by travellers from other cities of Turkey (28.6%) and had the largest proportion of the participants from Ankara (17.1%) and from Sakarya (14.3%).

3.3.4.2. Travel-Related Characteristics of the Clusters

Table 3.22 Travel Length Pertaining the Clusters

Days	Absolute Explorers (N=104)		Loneliness Seekers (N=67)		Self-Developers (N=52)		Social Traditionalists (N=37)	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Between 1–3 days	9	8.7	6	9.0	8	15.4	4	10.8
Between 4–7 days	39	37.5	21	31.3	21	40.4	21	56.8
Between 8–15 days	35	33.7	19	28.4	15	28.8	10	27.0
Between 16–30 days	12	11.5	14	20.9	6	11.5	2	5.4
31 days and more	9	8.7	7	10.4	2	3.8	0	0

Table 3.22 indicates the length of time spent travelling by the clusters. While travelling between 4 to 7 days was popular among the groups, there are yet some differences in terms of other options. Social traditionalists showed almost no interest in taking long trips more than 15 days, with only two participants stating, that they have taken trips between 16-30 days. On the other hand, Loneliness seekers had the largest share of the participants who have travelled longer than 15 days, with 31.3%.

Table 3.23 Domestic Trips Pertaining the Clusters

Trips taken	Absolute Explorers (N=102)		Loneliness Seekers (N=67)		Self-Developers (N=52)		Social Traditionalists (N=37)	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
0-1 times	7	6.9	6	9.0	9	17.3	2	5.4
2-6 times	57	55.9	33	49.3	24	46.2	22	59.5
7-9 times	8	7.8	3	4.5	5	9.6	6	16.2
10 times or more	30	29.4	25	37.3	14	26.9	7	18.9

Table 3.23 indicates the number of domestic trips taken by the segments within the last year. The respondents commonly travelled between two to six times a year. Loneliness seekers (37.3%) had the largest share of those who travelled more than 10 times in a year, which make them the most active travelling group. Social traditionalists, on the other hand, were not as active as absolute experiencers and loneliness seekers having participants who travelled more than 10 times, with only 18.9 %. Finally, self-developers (17.3%) had the largest share of those who either did not travel or only travelled once in 2017.

Table 3.24 International Trips Pertaining the Clusters

Trips taken	Absolute Explorers (N=98)		Loneliness Seekers (N=62)		Self-Developers (N=49)		Social Traditionalists (N=35)	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
None	44	44.9	25	40.3	29	59.2	17	48.6
1 time	25	25.5	8	12.9	5	10.2	12	34.3
2 times or more	29	29.6	29	46.8	15	30.6	6	17.1

Table 3.24 shows the number of trips taken abroad by the segments within the last year. While more than half of the absolute explorers (55.1%), loneliness seekers (59.7%) and social traditionalists (51.4%) took at least one international trip, the majority of self-developers (59.2%) did not travel abroad. On the other hand, loneliness seekers (46.8%) had the largest share of respondents who travelled to a foreign country two or more times throughout the year of 2017.

Table 3.25 Information Sources Used by the Clusters

Sources	Absolute Explorers		Loneliness Seekers		Self-Developers		Social Traditionalists	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Internet	95	91.3	60	89.6	47	90.4	34	91.9
Social Media	80	76.9	47	70.1	30	57.7	24	64.9
Friends or Relatives	72	69.2	41	61.2	28	53.8	24	64.9
Previous Experience	49	47.1	37	55.2	18	34.6	14	37.8
Travel Guides	30	28.8	18	26.9	10	19.2	12	32.4
Newspaper/Magazine	12	11.5	5	7.5	3	5.8	4	10.8
TV/Radio	13	12.5	2	3.0	0	0	1	2.7
Other	2	1.9	2	3.0	0	0	2	5.4

Note: More than one option was available.

Table 3.25 indicates the sources used for travel information search by the clusters. The Internet was the most frequent means of information search for each of the four segments, with over 89% of share. Following, social media was also an important source of information for each cluster, while absolute explorers had the highest interest in the social media, with 76.9%. Compared to the other groups, self-developers had the lowest interest in searching information through the social media (57.7%). Loneliness seekers, on the other hand, had the largest share of the respondents who referred to their previous travel experiences, with 34.6%. Additionally, considering TV and radio as a source of information was only common among absolute explorers (12.5%).

Table 3.26 Travel Preferences of the Clusters

Mode	Absolute Explorers		Loneliness Seekers		Self-Developers		Social Traditionalists	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Long-distance coach	79	75.2	33	49.3	33	64.7	25	67.6
Hitchhiking	77	73.3	43	64.2	28	54.9	18	48.6
Train	40	38.1	25	37.3	14	27.5	10	27.0
Car	34	32.4	19	28.4	16	31.4	19	51.4
BlaBlaCar	23	21.9	10	14.9	12	23.5	2	5.4
Bicycle	18	17.1	6	9.0	9	17.6	3	8.1
Airplane	10	9.5	8	11.9	3	5.9	3	8.1
Motorbike	9	8.6	8	11.9	4	7.8	3	8.1
Campervan	1	1.0	3	4.5	1	2.0	0	0
Walking/Trekking	3	2.9	5	7.5	0	0	1	2.7

Note: More than one option was available.

Table 3.26 shows the means of transport used across the clusters. The long-distance coach was the most frequent mode of travel used by absolute explorers (75.2%), self-developers (64.7%) and social traditionalists (67.6%). Whereas, hitchhiking was the most popular way to travel for loneliness seekers (64.2%). Additionally, hitchhiking was the second most rated mode of travel for absolute explorers (73.3%) and self-developers (54.9%). On the other hand, traveling by car was more popular among social traditionalists (51.4%), and the respondents in this group showed the least interest in travelling by BlaBlaCar (5.4%). In terms of travelling by train, absolute explorers (38.1%) and loneliness seekers (37.3%) displayed higher interests compared to self-developers (27.5%) and social traditionalists (27%). Finally, while the largest share of the bicycle riders was among self-developers (17.6%), the backpackers who rode motorbikes during their journeys were mainly grouped loneliness seekers (11.9%) and absolute explorers (8.6%).

Table 3.27 Comparison of Accommodation Preference Across the Clusters

Type	Absolute Explorers		Loneliness Seekers		Self-Developers		Social Traditionalists	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Wilderness Camping	80	76.2	57	85.1	38	73.1	31	83.8
Hostel/Bungalow	42	40.0	30	44.8	22	42.3	16	43.2
By friends and family	51	48.6	21	31.3	17	32.7	17	45.9
Camp Site	40	38.1	23	34.3	21	40.4	12	32.4
CouchRail	29	27.6	15	22.4	12	23.1	8	21.6
Couchsurfing	28	26.7	15	22.4	15	28.8	6	16.2
Hotel	21	2.00	11	16.4	43	82.7	23	62.2
Airbnb	11	10.5	4	6.0	3	5.8	1	2.7
Other	7	6.7	2	3.0	1	1.9	1	2.7

Note: More than one option was available.

Table 3.27 indicates the varieties of modes of accommodation used across the clusters. Wilderness camping was the most commonly used form of accommodation by absolute explorers (76.2%), loneliness seekers (85.1%) and social traditionalists (83.8%). However, the majority of self-developers (82.7%) mainly preferred to stay in hotels. Additionally, a considerable number of social traditionalists (62.2%) favoured to stay in hotels as well. In spite of that, hotels were not an ideal type of accommodation for backpackers from absolute explorers (20%) and loneliness seekers (16.4%).

3.3.4.3. Social Media-Related Characteristics of the Clusters

Table 3.28 General Social Media Use Across the Clusters *(N=261)*

Media	Absolute Explorers		Loneliness Seekers		Self-Developers		Social Traditionalists	
	f	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%
Facebook	97	92.4	63	94.0	47	90.4	34	91.9
Instagram	91	86.7	60	89.6	40	76.9	31	83.8
YouTube	84	80.0	50	74.6	38	73.1	29	78.4
Twitter	53	50.5	28	41.8	17	32.7	22	59.5
Couchsurfing	40	38.1	19	28.4	16	30.8	6	16.2
Google+	33	31.4	20	29.9	13	25.0	11	29.7
Pinterest	28	26.7	18	26.9	9	17.3	10	27.0
LinkedIN	27	25.7	8	11.9	12	23.1	6	16.2
Swarm	18	17.1	11	16.4	9	17.3	2	5.4
Tumblr	10	9.5	7	10.4	3	5.8	4	10.8
Other	1	1.0	2	3.0	1	1.9	0	0

Note: More than one option was available.

Table 3.28 presents the list of social media channels used in general by the segments in frequencies and percentages. Facebook, Instagram and YouTube remained as the most popular channels for each of the four segments, with over 75% of share. When compared to other segments, social traditionalists (59.5%) had higher interaction with Twitter, while they displayed the least interest in surfing on Couchsurfing (16.2%), and Swarm (5.4%).

Table 3.29 Social Media Usage Frequency Across the Clusters

	Absolute Explorers		Loneliness Seekers		Self-Developers		Social Traditionalists	
	f	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%
Pattern								
Rarely	2	1.9	0	0	3	5.8	0	0
Once a month	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2.7
Several times a month	1	1.0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
Several times a week	6	5.8	6	9.2	4	7.7	3	8.1
Everyday	63	60.6	37	56.9	23	44.2	16	43.2
Several times a day	32	30.8	21	32.3	22	42.3	17	45.9

	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Hours spent a week								
Less than 1 hour	6	5.8	10	15.2	7	13.7	4	11.1
1-5 hours	40	38.8	19	28.8	18	35.3	14	38.9
6-10 hours	24	23.3	19	28.8	10	19.6	9	25.0
More than 10 hours	33	32.0	18	27.3	16	31.4	9	25.0

Table 3.29 shows social media consumption patterns across the clusters. The majorities of absolute explorers (60.6%), loneliness seekers (56.3%) and self-developers (44.2%) visited the social media every day. Moreover, the majority of social traditionalists stated that they visit social media several times a day, with 45.9%.

The half of the population of absolute explorers (55.3%), loneliness seekers (56.1%), self-developers (51%), and social traditionalists (50%) stated that they spend at least six or more hours on the social media within a week´s time.

While the respondents from each cluster can be identified as active social media users, considering the respondents who spent more than one hour on the social media weekly, absolute explorers (94.1 %) can be identified as the most active segment on the social media.

Table 3.30 Media Use for Sharing Travel Experience Pertaining the Clusters

	Absolute Explorers		Loneliness Seekers		Self-Developers		Social Traditionalists	
Type	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
I use Instagram to share	81	77.1	50	75.8	25	49.0	20	55.6
I make photo/video albums (e.g. on Facebook)	71	67.6	38	57.6	21	41.2	24	66.7
I send e-mail or SMS	29	27.6	14	21.2	7	13.7	4	11.1
I write reviews (e.g. on TripAdvisor)	22	21.0	10	15.2	7	13.7	11	30.6
I keep a blog website	15	14.3	11	16.7	8	15.7	2	5.6
I use Twitter to share	13	12.4	5	7.6	4	7.8	1	2.8
I send post cards	2	1.9	4	6.1	3	6.9	1	2.8
Other*	5	4.8	4	6.1	9	17.6	1	2.8

All stated that they preferred to share their experiences only face to face.

Table 3.30 shows the results of the respondents' media use for preferences for sharing travel experiences across segments. Instagram was the most popular channel among absolute explorers (77.1%), loneliness seekers (75.8%), and self-developers (49%). On the other hand, sharing travel experience through making photo or video albums for friends and relatives was the most common choice for social traditionalists (66.7%). In addition, social traditionalists were more enthusiastic for writing travel reviews compared to other segments, with 30.6%. Interestingly, self-developers were the only segment who paid a significant attention to face to

face sharing, with 17.6%. Finally, absolute explorers (27.6%) and loneliness seekers (21.2%) displayed higher interest in sending e-mails or SMS, than self-developers (13.7%), and social traditionalists (11.1%).

CONCLUSION

This study investigated Turkish backpackers' demographics, travel-related preferences, social media use and travel motivations and segmented backpackers into distinct groups based on their travel motivation. The data collection process was done through the use of an online survey within seven backpacker specific communities on Facebook between January and March 2018. As a result, 261 surveys which were suitable for further analyses were obtained. In respect of the demographic structure of the participants, the findings of this study indicated that Turkish backpackers were generally educated at a four-year university level (70.2%), mostly between 21-24 years old (35.7%). Furthermore, the sample was mainly consisted of male travellers (59.3%) and almost half of the respondents were students (48.4%). Additionally, the most backpacker generating city in Turkey was Istanbul (36.3%).

The findings about gender distribution is very similar to the results of Harman's (2014) study about Turkish independent travellers which presented a male majority in the sample with 57.7%. However, large-scale studies about international backpackers presented different results. For example, Richard and Wilson's (2004: 18) global nomad study indicated that females had a remarkably larger proportion, with 67%. Additionally, Pearce (2009: 25) found out a higher participation rate to his study from female backpackers (54%). This finding suggests that females in Turkey are less encouraged to travel as a backpacker. The reason could be found in the socio-cultural structure of Turkey where there is still a relatively male-dominant society. This finding also points out that there could be differences in backpackers' demographics among different nationalities. On the other hand, the finding about the age range (35.7% were between 21-24 years) is in line with the results of Richards and Wilson's (2004: 18) study which revealed that more than 60% of the international backpackers were between 20 and 25 years old. Moreover, Nash et al. (2006: 526) identified backpackers as travellers who are 20 to 24 years old. In this regard the age profile of Turkish backpackers is consistent with international backpackers.

The travel-related characteristics of Turkish backpackers were another important finding of this study. The results indicated that domestic backpackers generally spend more than four days on a backpacking trip (89.6%) in Turkey. Furthermore, the most preferred duration for travel was between 4 to 7 days (39.2%) and only 6.9% of the participants travelled for more than four weeks. Since most of the studies which examined international backpackers revealed that backpackers travel for long terms (Loker-Murphy and Pearce, 1995: 835; O'Reilly, 2006:1014; Paris, 2008: 10; Cohen, 2011: 1541), this is an interesting fact found in

Turkish backpackers' travel attitude. Even though, this finding indicates that backpackers from Turkey prefer to have around one week-long domestic trips, expecting them to have same tendency for their international travels could be misleading. One of the reason which caused domestic backpackers to travel for short terms might be found on backpacker's occupational status. Students (48.4%) and employees (30.9%) who formed the vast majority of the sample are most likely to travel for shorter terms due to their school or work obligations.

Moreover, respondents were also requested to provide information about the number of their domestic and international backpacking trips taken last year. Slightly more than half of the participants (52.9%) had travelled abroad at least one time. On the other hand, 91.8% of Turkish backpackers participated in this research reported that they had at least two trips around Turkey in 2017. While, the majority of the backpackers (52.1%) travelled for two to six times, 29.1% of them taken 10 or more trips within 2017. Through the travel career approach, Pearce and Lee (2005: 234) divided tourists into four groups based on their domestic travel experiences. Adapting this approach to Turkish backpackers' travel experience, it could be concluded that while 52.1% of them are somewhat experienced, 29.1% of them are very experienced backpackers.

In terms of accommodation preferences, Turkish backpackers differ from the international backpackers. Many studies explored that international backpackers prefer hostels as their first option for accommodation (Richard and Wilson, 2004: 22; Newlands, 2004: 232; Nash et al. 2006: 529; Pearce et al. 2009: 32; Nok et al. 2017: 1065). However, the majority of the Turkish backpackers (78.9%) preferred to camp in nature during their travels. Nonetheless, the hostels were their second option for accommodation, with 42.1%. One of the reasons behind this result could be the limited number of hostels in Turkey. According to Hostelworld.com, there are only 107 hostels in Turkey.[16]

On the other hand, local backpackers preferred to use mainly long-distance coaches (65.4%) for travelling around Turkey. This result is in line with the findings of Newlands' (2006: 232) study, which indicated long-distance buses were the most common type of transport (65.2%) among backpackers travelling around New Zealand. However, it is important to note that there are different transport choices of backpackers depending on the destination visited. For example, Pearce (2009: 31) discovered that international backpackers who travelled around Australia mostly used airplane (73.1%) and then long-distance domestic buses (55.4%). This difference may emerge due to the multiple factors such as ease of the transport infrastructure of destinations, travel characteristics and duration, travel motivation and backpacker profile

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[16] https://www.turkish.hostelworld.com/hostels/Turkiye

(Vance, 2003 :12). Regarding the second transportation option of Turkish backpackers, hitchhiking was the most popular (63.8%). Interestingly, hitchhiking was preferred as much as long-distance buses by Turkish backpackers. One of the main reason behind this choice may be the developed culture of hitchhiking in Turkey. There are large-scaled hitchhiking specific online communities on facebook.com such as Otostop (Hitchhike) Turkey[17] and Interrail Turkiye Otostop[18] which include more than 200,000 members. In these groups, there are not only individuals searching for hitchhiking road partners, but there are also people who offer free rides to travellers. Moreover, there is even a music festival dedicated to hitchhiking which is called Mudanya Otostop Festivali held in Bursa, Turkey annually.[19]

In respect of information sources used by Turkish backpackers prior to their trips, Internet (90.8%) was the most frequently consulted medium. This finding is consistent with previous researches which indicated that Internet was the most commonly used source of information by backpackers for planning their trip (Richard and Wilson, 2004: 23; Paris, 2010: 51). Furthermore, the social media (69.6%) was the second most common consulted information source by Turkish backpackers. Facebook (92.3%), Instagram (85.1%) and YouTube (77%) were the top three most popular social networking websites used by local backpackers in Turkey. Moreover, participants reported that they use social media every day (89.5%) and spend minimum six hours a week (53.5%). Last but not least, Instagram was found to be the most popular media for sharing travel experience (68.2%), which was followed by the websites where one can share photo and video albums (e.g. Facebook), with 59.7%. Paris (2010: 58) also found out that the most common habit of backpackers was to upload pictures to share with friends and family as well as fellow travellers in social media.

In regard to the travel motivation of domestic backpackers in Turkey, "to relax mentally" was the most importat motive to travel as a backpacker (mean= 4.79). Followed by "to feel free and independent" (4.71), "to be closer to nature" (4.62), "to be in a calm atmosphere" (4.54), "to get away from city life" (4.52). These top 5 travel motives of the participants are highly complementary with their accommodation preferences of wilderness camping. Moreover, Turkish backpackers are internally motivated to escape from city life and seek a relaxation in a natural calm atmosphere. This finding is also in consistency with the outcomes of the initial interviews. Furthermore, from a push and pull perspective, while they are mainly pushed to relax, to feel free and get away from city life, they are also highly pulled to nature and calm atmospheres. It is also important to note that participants reported that they

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[17] https://www.facebook.com/groups/1214784088564279/
[18] https://www.facebook.com/groups/otostopRail/
[19] http://www.otostopfestivali.com/index.html

were highly motivated "to explore other cultures" (4.47), "to discover one's self" (4.30), "to interact with local people" (4.16) and "to increase my knowledge about Turkey". Therefore, they can also be evaluated as backpackers who are seeking to satisfy their self-esteem/development needs.

Furthermore, this study employed principal component analysis on 23 motivational items which extracted seven underlying dimensions of participants' motivation to travel as a backpacker. The identified motivational factors are given in an order of importance as follows: *relaxation*, *cultural growth*, *road culture*, *independence*, *personal growth*, *social growth*, and *social attendance*. Comparing to the other studies (Paris and Teye, 2008; Harman et al., 2013) which used the same motivation scale and yielded six motivational factors, the first distinguishing fact of the result of this study is the emergence of seven factors. The relaxation factor was the only common factor to be found in all the three studies. In addition, motivational factors found in this study was almost in line with the Paris and Teye's (2008: 251) results. Except the factors of experiential and budget travel that they found, other factors regarding cultural, personal, social growth and independence were almost identical.

The most distinctive motivational factor of Turkish backpackers was the road culture by which one desire to discover him/herself on the road. However, the most remarkable outcome of the factor results is that the relaxation factor which also includes escape motives is the most influential on local backpackers in Turkey. Even though the relaxation factor was widely observed in previous backpacker travel motivation studies (Loker-Murphy 1997; Mohsin and Ryan, 2003; Richard and Wilson, 2004; Maoz, 2007; Paris and Teye, 2008; Larsen et al., 2011; Harman et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2014), only one study which examined Israeli backpackers found out the motive "to do nothing/to relax" as a main motivation to their journeys (Maoz, 2007: 128). This finding demonstrates a very distinctive psychological characteristic of Turkish backpackers compared to international backpackers.

Finally, participants were classified into four distinct segments according to their motivations by using cluster analysis. The four groups were labelled as 1) Absolute Explorers; 2) Loneliness Seekers; 3) Self-developers; 4) Social traditionalists. Absolute explorers were the largest and the youngest segment of the four groups. They had the highest motivation means from all seven motivational factors. The backpackers in this group mainly travelled for 4 to 15 days, and more than a half of them taken only 2 to 6 domestic trips last year. Therefore, regarding their age and travel patterns, this group could be considered as a low experienced backpacker group. In this way, their highly motivated characteristics could be explained within the TCP framework, in which Paris and Teye (2008) observed that low experience backpackers

had higher motivation means from all factors compared to the high experience backpackers. In addition, absolute explorers had the largest share of hitchhikers (73.3%), which also indicates that they might be the most adventurous segment.

The loneliness seekers constituted the second largest segment among Turkish backpackers (25.6%). They were labelled as loneliness seekers due to their low motivational factors regarding to social growth and social attendance as well as their high motivation factor of road culture. In addition, loneliness seekers also had lowest motivations for personal and cultural growth. On the other hand, the participants in this group had the largest share of the individuals who aged over 36 (21.5%) and travelled between 16-30 days (20.9%). Moreover, they presented the highest numbers of taking a domestic trip more than 10 times a year (37.3%) as well as the highest number of taking an international trip for two times or more (30.6%). Thus, in terms of their travel career and age, the members of this group formed the high experienced backpacker segment of this research. These outcomes are in consistency with Paris and Teye's (2008: 254) findings which indicated high travel experienced group of backpackers had lower social and personal growth motivations than low travel experienced group of backpackers.

Self-developers had high scores of cultural growth, personal growth, independence and road culture. The characteristics of this segment is very similar to the Loker-Murphy's (1997) self-developers and Pearce and Foster's (2007) self-development focussed backpackers. This male dominated segment (75%) generally travelled for shorter terms. Interestingly, compared to other groups, they were highly interested in sharing their travel experiences face to face (17.%).

At last, social traditionalists generated the smallest segment among four groups which are similar to the Chen et al.'s (2014) social seeker backpackers. Social traditionalists had the higher motivational factors of social growth and social attendance than loneliness seekers and self-developers. More than half of the participants among social traditionalists indicated that their travel length was between four to seven days (56.8%). Social traditionalists had the largest share of the participants who obtained information from travel guides (32.4%) and they were more interested in writing travel reviews on sites such as TripAdvisor for sharing their travel experiences. Moreover, using car for transportation were mostly founded among social traditionalists (51.4%) and a large share of them favoured to stay in hotels (62.2%).

This study as being one of the first researches examining Turkish backpackers has an important contribution to the literature. Moreover, Turkish backpackers were segmented into homogenous subgroups based on their motivations. The relaxation and cultural growth were

the most influential motivation factor for all segments except self-developers. These findings are expected to guide for developing goods and services for the domestic backpacker market in Turkey. The results regarding the information sources consulted and social media-related characteristics evidently suggest utilizing Internet and social media as marketing field of backpackers. Moreover, highlighting natural landscapes and emphasising on freedom might be a key to the successful marketing campaigns for businesses targeting backpackers in Turkey. Furthermore, since there are only a few studies regarding backpackers from a specific nationality, the current research will also contribute to the further understanding of different characteristics and motivations of backpackers from different nationalities.

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Appendix 1 – The Survey (Turkish)

Türkiye'deki Sırt Çantalılar

Selam gezgin!

Bu araştırma Akdeniz Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü "Uluslararası Turizm Yönetimi" yüksek lisans programı çerçevesinde yapılmaktadır.

Araştırmanın amacı, son yıllarda sayıları hızla artan Türkiye'deki sırt çantalı gezginlerin motivasyonlarına dayalı başlıca özelliklerini ortaya koymaktır.

Anketin tamamı 3 sayfadan oluşmaktadır; ilk sayfada demografik özellikleriniz ve seyahat kariyeriniz, ikinci sayfada seyahat tarzınız ve sosyal medya alışkanlıklarınız ve son sayfada bir sırt çantalı olarak sizi seyahat etmeye motive eden sebepler araştırılacaktır.

İkinci bölümdeki tüm motivasyon soruları için:
1 = Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
5 = Tamamen Katılıyorum

◯ = *Tek seçenek kutucuğu*

☐ = *Birden fazla seçenek kutucuğu*

* Sonuçlar genel olarak yorumlanıp, sadece akademik çalışmada kullanılacaktır.

Saygılarımla,
Sidal Yaşar (sidal.yasar@live.com)

Cinsiyet :	Yaş :	Evlilik Durumu :	Meslek :	Eğitim Durumu :
◯ Erkek	◯ <18	◯ Evli	◯ Öğrenci	◯ Ortaokul ve altı
◯ Kadın	◯ 18-20	◯ Bekar	◯ Çalışan	◯ Lise
	◯ 21-24		◯ İşveren	◯ Ön Lisans
	◯ 25-30		◯ Çalışmıyor	◯ Lisans
	◯ 31-35		◯ Diğer :	◯ Yüksek lisans ve üzeri
	◯ 36<			

İkamet ettiğiniz şehir : ....

Ortalama gezi süresi (gün) : ....
Sırt çantanızla bir geziye çıktığınızda ortalama kaç gün seyahat edersiniz ?

Yurtdışı gezi sayısı : ....
Son bir yıl içerisinde kaç kez sırt çantanızla yurt dışına seyahat ettiniz?

Yurtiçi gezi sayısı : ....
Son bir yıl içerisinde kaç kez sırt çantanızla Türkiye'de seyahat ettiniz?

Türkiye'de gezdiğiniz yerler : ....
....
Örneğin: Likya Yolu, Boncuk Koyu, Kelebekler Vadisi, Salda Gölü, Hasankeyf, Karadeniz Yaylaları, Gökçeada, Mardin, vb.

Seyahat Aracı :

- [ ] Otobüs
- [ ] Otostop
- [ ] Motorsiklet
- [ ] Tren
- [ ] BlaBlaCar
- [ ] Otomobil
- [ ] Karavan
- [ ] Bisiklet
- [ ] Uçak
- [ ] Diğer : ....

Konaklama Şekli :

- [ ] Hostel/Bungalow
- [ ] Kamp (Alan kiralayarak)
- [ ] Kamp (Doğada)
- [ ] CouchSurfing
- [ ] CouchRail
- [ ] Arkadaş veya akraba yanında
- [ ] Airbnb
- [ ] Otel
- [ ] Diğer : ....

Seyahat öncesi bilgi edinme yolları :

- [ ] Internet
- [ ] Sosyal medya kanalları
- [ ] Televizyon ve radyo
- [ ] Daha önceki gezilerden referans alarak
- [ ] Arkadaş ve yakınlardan
- [ ] Seyahat rehberi kitapçıklarından
- [ ] Gazete ve dergi
- [ ] Diğer : ....

Sosyal medyayı ziyaret etme sıklığınız :

- ( ) Nadiren
- ( ) Ayda bir kez
- ( ) Ayda bir kaç kez
- ( ) Haftada bir kaç kez
- ( ) Her gün
- ( ) Günde bir kaç kez

Sosyal medyaya bir hafta içerisinde kaç saat zaman ayırırsınız ?

- ( ) Bir saatten az
- ( ) 1-5 saat
- ( ) 6-10 saat
- ( ) 10 saatten fazla

Takip ettiğiniz sosyal medya kanalları :

- [ ] Facebook
- [ ] Instagram
- [ ] Twitter
- [ ] Swarm
- [ ] Couchsurfing
- [ ] YouTube
- [ ] Tumblr
- [ ] Pinterest
- [ ] Vine
- [ ] LinkedIN
- [ ] Google+
- [ ] Diğer : ....

Gezi deneyiminizi başkalarıyla paylaşırken nasıl bir yol izlersiniz ?

- [ ] e-posta / cepten mesaj kullanırım
- [ ] Yakınlarım için Fotoğraf / Video albümleri hazırlarım (Örneğin, Facebook)
- [ ] Resimli posta kartı atarım
- [ ] İnternete değerlendirme yazarım (Örneğin, TripAdvisor)
- [ ] Gezim hakkında paylaşım yapmak için Twitter kullanırım
- [ ] Gezim hakkında paylaşım yapmak için Instagram kullanırım
- [ ] Herkesin erişebileceği bir blog / günlük web sayfası hazırlarım

Bu bölümde bir sırt çantalı olarak seyahat etme sebeplerinizi puanlayınız.					
1 = Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum / 5 = Tamamen Katılıyorum	1	2	3	4	5
Yolda olmak için					
Kendimi keşfetmek için					
Doğaya yakın olmak için					
Sırt çantalı kültürünü yaşamak için					
Yeteneklerimi keşfetmek için					
Bağımsız ve özgür hissetmek için					
Macera yaşamak için					
Daha önce gidilmemiş ücra yerlere gitmek için					
Arkadaşlarımı veya akrabalarımı ziyaret etmek için					
Mümkün olduğunca uzun bir süre seyahat etmek için					
Seyahatimi kendim organize edebilmek için					
Şehir hayatından uzaklaşmak için					
Diğer kültürleri keşfetmek için					
Türkiye hakkındaki bilgimi arttırmak için					
Yerel halktan insanlar ile etkileşimde bulunmak için					
Mülkiyetten uzak mütevazi bir hayat deneyimlemek için					
Yeni arkadaşlar edinmek için					
Diğer gezginler ile beraber olmak için					
Arkadaşlarımla iyi vakit geçirmek için					
Düşük bir bütçe ile seyahat edebilmek için					
Zihinsel olarak rahatlamak için					
Fiziksel olarak rahatlamak için					
Sakin bir atmosferde bulunmak için					
Özel etkinliklere katılmak için (Festival, konser, sempozyum, doğa etkinlikleri, vb)					
Ailem ve arkadaşlarımla paylaşabileceğim deneyimler yaşamak için					
Koşuşturmadan uzak durmak için					
Ziyaret ettiğim yerlere bir şekilde katkı sağlamak için					
Fiziksel yeteneklerimi keşfetmek için					
Yakın dostluklar geliştirmek için					

RESUME

Name and Surname	Sidal YAŞAR
Birth Date and Place	23.10.1989, Fatih / İstanbul
EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND	
Highschool	Diyarbakır Atatürk Highschool
Bachelor's Degree	Mustafa Kemal University (3.3 GPA)
Erasmus Exchange I	Private College of Economic Studies (Prague, Czech Rep.)
Erasmus Exchange II	Universidade Portucalense Infante D. Henrique (Porto, Portugal)
Foreign Language	English, German, Portuguese
OCCUPPATIONAL BACGROUND	
Internship	İbis Hotel Heilbronn City (Germany)
Work Experience	Reservation and Ticketing Agent (I.M.X Tour, Turkey)
	Office assistant at International Relations (Akdeniz Uni.)
	Student Representative (Social Sciences Institute, Akdeniz Uni.)
Volunteering	Associazione Culturale Strauss (Mussomeli, Italy)
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