Effects of Wanderlust on Tourism Consumer Decision-Making

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ABSTRACT

Tourism marketing is transforming and marketers are always looking for innovative ways to reach consumers and understand the psychology behind decision-making behaviour. Wanderlust is a latent, often forgotten travel motivation, that is a part of a person's personality. So, to study if it significantly affects tourism consumer behaviour, it is first important to understand what drives this feeling to explore or wander. This thesis is a quantitative deductive study that starts with exploring Wanderlust with a thorough literature review and identifying various drivers that may affect travel motivation and behaviour, alike. It provides various stakeholders with an understanding of wanderlust, where and how it develops and how it can be used to trigger tourism consumer behaviour, in regards to Denmark as a travel destination. Essentially, it is an attempt to build a profile of the type of consumer who will be most likely to visit Denmark, hence, allowing marketers to develop campaigns and services that trigger and motivate these specific individuals. This can be considered a small contribution to the vast expanse of research on tourism and consumer psychology.

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1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter includes the background and motivation behind choosing the topic of the thesis, followed by a problem statement with the research question, purpose of the study and thesis structure.

1.1. Background

Copenhagen, Denmark was named the best city to visit in the world by Lonely Planet in 2019, a popular travel guide company (Lonely Planet, 2018). It can be regarded as a great opportunity for the tourism industry in Copenhagen, to have been recognised for everything the city has to offer. The YouTube video (Lonely Planet, 2019) showcases what the vast expanse of things the city has to offer and how it will please the traveller in everybody. There is something for everybody in Copenhagen, whether that is history, architecture, food or the 1000-year-old Danish royal history. The style of the video indicates, that this video about Copenhagen may excite the wanderer or explorer in an individual and may influence their decision to visit Copenhagen. This is in line with their philosophy and objective to feed into the wanderlust of the independent and eager travellers (Bhuman, 2009; Weiss, 2017). However, Copenhagen albeit popular is only one city in Denmark. Denmark is a whole country full of untapped potential. VisitDenmark is a platform celebrating the diversity of Denmark as a country and a travel destination. Their consumer content strategy (VisitDenmark, 2017) focuses on leveraging the massive reach of social media platforms like Facebook, Twitter, Instagram and WeChat to spread authentic stories about Denmark as a travel destination. Their aim is to be where tourists first start planning their trip to ignite inspiration and spark an interest in Denmark as a travel destination. They do this by constantly sharing, creating and developing content in partnership with other travellers, influencers, photographers, local Danes and sharing other user-generated content. This strategy gives rise to the spread of word-of-mouth, compelling all relevant stakeholders to share authentic stories from their time in Denmark and in turn sparking emotions and inspiration to choose Denmark as a travel destination. The aim of this strategy is to reach 45 million Danish kroner in tourist spend by 2025 (VisitDenmark, 2017). Tourism marketers around the world have adopted the same strategy to strike inspiration and trigger emotions before people even decide on a specific destination, especially through social media platforms and Internet campaigns. Tourism is an important and lucrative industry for many countries. According to recent data from OECD (2019), 4% of all jobs in Denmark are in the tourism industry, with the industry accounting for 2% of total GDP. The target behind tourism marketing such as Lonely Planet and VisitDenmark is to tap the hidden

potential of what Denmark has to offer and increase that GDP percentage in the process. They make efforts through innovative new techniques that may not directly compel a person to travel to Denmark, but invoke emotions and inspiration that may directly and/or indirectly affect behaviour at a later stage. However, it is not clear what kind of emotions are the companies trying to invoke.

Moreover, tourism is defined by the World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO, 2008, p. 1) as "a social, cultural and economic phenomenon that entails the movement of people to countries or places outside their usual environment for personal or business/professional purposes." These people are called visitors and are considered (UNWTO, 2008, p. 4) "travellers taking a trip to a main destination outside his/her usual environment, for less than a year, for any main purpose (business, leisure, personal)." Eurostat (2014) uses a similar definition, that considers a tourist to be someone travelling for personal, business or leisure reasons. From the above definitions, it is apparent that a person may travel for multiple reasons. However, this definition seems to be lacking a motivation for travel that is latent but has lead humans to uncover great unknowns since the beginning of time. That is the concept of wanderlust, which is a complex travel-motivation concept, but has been explored by many researchers and deemed synonymous to the extreme urge to travel, explore the unknown and venture on a journey to "novelty-seeking" (Boksberger & Laesser, 2009; Figler, Weinstein, Sollers, & Devan, 1992; Gray, 1970; Hyde & Lawson, 2003; Kulendran & Wilson, 2000; Mansfeld, 1992; Shields, 2011; You, O'leary, Morrison, & Hong, 2000).The strategy implied by companies like Lonely Planet and VisitDenmark can be regarded as invoking the "wanderer" in a potential visitor as their campaigns focus on triggering emotions that lie beneath the surface of conscious decision-making.

It seems though invoking wanderlust may be a latent strategy used to affect behaviour by tourism marketers. However, this is not apparent in their strategy and technique. Along with this, it is not identified as a part of the definition of tourism or visitor either.

The above discussion formed the motivation behind this thesis, where wanderlust can and should be an important factor contributing to tourism activities and should be considered part of the definition of tourism. Hence, there is a need to raise awareness about what wanderlust entails, how it is developed and how it affects tourism. Thus, the purpose of this thesis to contribute to the understanding of how tourism marketers can interpret Wanderlust as another travel motivation and use it to trigger specific emotions in their target audiences to influence tourism consumer behaviour.

1.2. Problem Statement

There are strategies in play by different organisations in Denmark like VisitDenmark (VisitDenmark, 2017) that promote Denmark through specific destination imagery and storytelling to trigger emotions that inspire travel. However, it is not clear what emotions they are looking to trigger. This thesis is an attempt to explore the research gap between consumer strategy and consumer psychology, where the coins are flipped and the influence of latent travel motivation factor, 'wanderlust' is explored to understand how marketing campaigns can trigger specific innate emotions in people to influence tourism consumer behaviour.

Hence, the objective is to find how wanderlust, as a travel motivation factor affects and influences tourism consumer behaviour. More specifically, the aim is to develop a framework that can contribute to the understanding of wanderlust, which begins with knowing what drives wanderlust in people and whether those drivers and wanderlust itself affect tourism consumer behaviour, in regards to Denmark as a travel destination.

So, the following research question forms the basis of the study, which includes three sub-questions and exploring them is deemed as necessary to properly answer the main research question:

Research Question - How can Wanderlust contribute to the boom of Denmark's tourism industry?
   1. *What is Wanderlust?*
   2. *What drives Wanderlust?*
   3. *How does Wanderlust affect tourism consumer behaviour?*

1.3. Purpose of the study

The purpose of this thesis is to add to the existing knowledge of wanderlust, identify its drivers and compare those two to tourism consumer behavioural intentions. In this case is chosen Denmark as a travel destination. Basically, the study aims to contribute to the understanding of what kind of consumer would choose Denmark as a travel destination. Since, this paper provides a layout of where and how wanderlust forms in an individual, it may help marketers understand how they can create services that attract the explorer in an individual. This can help tourism companies in Denmark create campaigns and services that speak to the wanderer in people and compel them to travel to Denmark,

in ways that invoke specific emotions or traits that drive wanderlust. Designing services begins at the root of understanding the consumer and this paper is a small contribution to the vast expanse of literature on consumer psychology.

1.4. Thesis Structure

The thesis is divided into seven chapters. It starts with a chapter on introduction that presents the background and motivation for the study, which leads into the formulation of a problem statement. This chapter ends with a brief section on purpose of the study.

Chapter 2 presents a literature review on the central concept of this study, 'Wanderlust'. It starts with a definition of wanderlust and delves into the history of the concept in art and culture, as well its usage in academic literature and modern media.

Chapter 3 is about developing and hypothesising the conceptual framework of the study. The chapter provides an extensive theoretical background of each predictor/independent variable in the framework. This includes a nominal definition of the concept and opinions of the academic world about the relationship between the predictor and outcome variables.

Chapter 4 provides an extensive discussion on choice of methodology for this study and an explanation of how and why each method was used.

Chapter 5 presents the findings of the study through statistical tests.

While, Chapter 6 discusses these findings in comparison to the literature review and theoretical discussion.

Finally, Chapter 7 closes the report with a summary, limitations of the study, managerial implications and suggestions for future research.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this literature review, the authors will walk through the developments of "wanderlust" in a chronological order. The paper starts with the origin of the word "wanderlust" and explain how it was understood and presented in previous art and literatures. The following part will consider academic literatures to demonstrate how it is defined, researched and applied over the past decades. Lastly, it will be discussed how and why businesses have adopted and transferred this concept to a modern practical use.

2.1. Understanding Wanderlust

The word wanderlust is originally from Germany and it is defined as "a strong desire to travel" (Oxford Dictionaries, 2019). "Wandern" means to hike or roam, while "lust" means desire (Cambridge Dictionary, 2019a; Cambridge Dictionary, 2019b). Wanderlust is one of the few German words that have meandered into the English language. Just like "hygge" in Danish cannot be simply described as "cosy" in English, a simple translation would not explain "wanderlust" well. It is a lifestyle, incorporating an entire philosophy. Dating back to 18th century, artists and poets firstly created and expressed this concept in their works (Gish, 1964) However, rather than a long antiquated cliché in arts and literatures, it has been recognised and developed by scholars, researchers, and even businesses. Nowadays, with the help of social media promotion, it has become a popular modern cultural phenomenon.

2.2. The history of Wanderlust in art and culture

As mentioned above, "wanderlust" was adapted from German. German Romantic artist Casper David Friedrich's most famous painting, "Wanderer above the sea of fog", is regarded as one of the most representative works of "wanderlust". In the painting, a man is standing on top of jagged rocks. He looks down from a great height where clouds and fogs are under his feet. It seems like he just conquered mountains, yet in front of his eyes, the nature is still a mystery. This image is considered as "a symbolic stand-in for European Romanticism and ideals of wanderlust at large" because it allows audiences to empathise objectively with the inside feelings of that character by observing the represented natural scene (Delistraty, 2018). Certainly, more than the painting, the romanticist's love was also with music, poetry, and novels (Delistraty, 2018; Gish, 1964). So, wanderlust and its related concepts can be found through these literary forms. Besides, "movement" is at the core of wandering

and it "has always been as a traditional and lucid expression of becoming" within literature (Gish, 1964, p.226). In other words, a hero is often a wanderer who is capable of becoming who he/she want to be and fulfil his/her yearning. Dating back to 19th century, Wilhelm Meister, a main character of Goethe's novel, travelled a lot to escape from his father and his wandering can be considered as his yearning for freedom (Goethe & Carlyle, 1980). Meanwhile, in his whole journey he became the person he wanted to be. This, in fact, reflects 'nach sich selbst sehnen' (meaning "yearning for yourself") which is an inward way to self-realization in Novalis's philosophy (Stoljar, 1997). The relationship between individual and society, or between human and nature is an eventually profound question that would often pop up in this context (Hossain & Ali, 2014), especially when in an unsatisfied state. Wandering was a tool or solution those romanticists advocated and chose to "propagate".

Although the word "wanderlust" was only created back in the 18th century, well-known wanderers such as Ulysses, Cain, the Wandering Jew, and Don Quixote in world literature and mythology came up long ago before that and they had influenced German Romanticists with no doubt (Gish, 1964). In fact, similar behaviours and thoughts of wanderlust did not only exist in German literature. It is easy to find in the history of other countries. Confucius was a Chinese philosopher who lived in 6th century BCE and he spent 14 years of his life traveling widely around China to learn and teach at the same time (Wu-Chi, 1955). Laozi, the creator of Taoism, travelled and taught all the way from China to India (Chan, 2001; Ivanhoe, 2003; Littlejohn, n.d.). They were both travelling to open their minds and to spread their philosophies. Differently, Xu Xiake was motivated by the beauty of nature and geography. He believed that putting oneself through mills and unstable life was a way of self-training and self-discovery (Feng, Li, & Wang, 2010; Ward, 2013). And Li Shizhen were roaming for his passions of medical science, self-worth, and eagerness to contribute to the common well-being (Nappi, 2019; Zhou, 2019). H.C. Andersen, the most famous Dane in the world, also gave many of the characters he created a wanderlust soul in his fairy tales, such as The Little Mermaid and The Ugly Duckling. One is a princess of the sea, possessing an enormous wanderlust to explore the unknown land and eventually finding happiness despite hardships. Another is about a lonely journey that leads a young soul away from home in search of self-identity and belongingness, after being put down by his own family and friends. Stories like these convey a message that travel is inherently essential to life and can be a solution to get rid of a current difficult situation, as physical and sensory changes may bring stimulus to spirits. Just as H.C. Andersen mentions in "The Fairy Tale of My Life"

(Andersen, 2000), "to move, to breathe, to fly, to float, to gain all while you give, to roam the roads of lands remote: to travel is to live". This reveals the importance and meaning of travel for Andersen. In fact, he travelled to more than 20 countries in his lifetime (Hcandersen.org., 2019a). Along with his creation, curiosity, and passion to life, these travel experiences gave him inspiration (Hcandersen.org., 2019b).

Wandering used to be rich people's privilege, for example, The Grand Tour (Buzard, 2002; Fussell, 1987) was when wandering was popular and encouraged among the wealthy and upper class in their search of art, culture and self-improvement, because it required time and money. However, during the era of German Romanticism, wandering was no longer a luxury leisure activity or experience, but transformed to a common cultural phenomenon of life in general. The reasons came from two sides: increasing emergence of literary figures from the middle class and popularity of literatures written by famous writers like Goethe (Gish, 1964). This change at least has proved one thing: money is not a necessary stimulus to wanderlust, which is later agreed by Vogt (1976). They are only external influential factors to some degree.

So, what is the inner trigger of wanderlust? In the article written by Tucci and Akey (2016), a very interesting view point is that our ancestors overcoming all kinds of obstacles migrating to every corner of the world since a very early age has influenced the contemporary patterns of human genomic variation. This research proves that wandering has been in existence since ancient times. And it proposes a possibility that wanderlust as a remarkable feature of modern humans may exist in our genes. Certainly, more follow-up studies are required for an accurate answer. However, no matter whether wanderlust is nature or nurture, artists, writers, poets, and philosophers have still spared no efforts to praise it, such as St. Augustine, Francis Bacon, Mark Twain, Kahlil Gibran, Marcel Proust (Goodreads, 2019). Lastly, one thing worth mentioning is that travel (as well as wander) is often considered and linked together with life. It is regarded as an exit from difficulties or an ultimate solution in life, or even, the life itself.

2.3. Development of Wanderlust in academic literature

In academic works, relating to "wanderlust", Gray's (1970) travel-motivation theory is frequently quoted by scholars. He divides tourists into two categories: "wanderlust" who desire to travel from known to unknown places seeking out new culture and experience; and "sunlust" who travel for better

amenities for a specific purpose such as warm weather (Boksberger & Laesser, 2009; Hyde & Lawson, 2003; Kulendran & Wilson, 2000; Mansfeld, 1992; You, O'leary, Morrison, & Hong, 2000). Yet, Mansfeld (1992) states that this theory is oversimplified since it is a confliction of person-specific motivations and resort-specific attributes. And the former should belong to "push" factors while the latter should be counted as "pull" factors in the Pull and Push theory (Dann, 1977; Uysal, Li, & Sirakaya-Turk, 2008). Wanderlust is recognised as a push factor (Hanai, 2016) because it is a personal trait (Hyde & Lawson, 2003). This trait is similar to what Plog (1973) and Plog (1991) called "allocentric personality". It drives people to the adventuresome and the exotic. Instead of perceiving wanderlust only as a category of travel motivation, Shields (2011) emphasises more on the role it plays in decision making. She refers to wanderlust as the inclination and impulsive urge to travel that exists and lasts throughout the whole process of travel. Therefore, wanderlust is a need or a want satisfier (Mill & Morrison, 2002). The question is how individuals choose to travel and where to travel in order to fulfil their desires. Therefore, based on this point of view, Holbrook and Olney (1995) researched wanderlust as a determinant of travel option preferences instead of a travel motivation.

In the past decades, wanderlust has not been widely discussed and researched while travel and tourism in general are extensively mentioned (Shields, 2011). In order to gain a better understanding of wanderlust related behaviour, Vogt (1976) has his eyes on the youth. According to Ford (1966), wanderer is under the category of traveller which should be differentiated from tourist. Further, Cohen (1972) identified "wanderers" from "noninstitutionalized individuals", saying they pursue freedom, spontaneity, novelty, direct contact and immersion in the visited culture and accept concomitant responsibility and risk. Often, on the contrary to mass tourists, wanderers have very small budgets and tend to make minimized impacts during their journey. The youth mostly matches these features so Vogt (1976) considers them as proper target of his research. One purpose of his research is to examine what motivates wanderers, which, in other words, considers what can trigger their wanderlust. Lansing and Blood (1964) define three broad areas of travel motivations: a) maintenance of personal ties; b) social recognition and prestige; c) satisfaction of individualistic inner desires. Certainly, not all three of them are involved in wander's travel motivations. Vogt (1976) mainly emphasises the last two points since they are most relevant. To wanderers, he states that the second motivation can be achieved when the following criteria are met: 1) autonomy, independence, and freedom of action; 2) exoticness of destination; 3) exoticness of travel mode. For example, the author

suggests that independence is achieved through travelling alone and taking responsibility for your own actions while travelling. While, exoticness of destination might be achieved by travelling to an unusual destination like the Amazon rainforest versus travelling to just another metropolitan city like Beijing. And exoticness of travel mode indicates that hitchhiking is preferred to air travel, in terms of exoticness. As for the third motivation (satisfaction of individualistic inner desires), it is a significant one for wanderers because it brings challenges and opportunities for personal growth. Further, Vogt (1976) demonstrates four paths to achieve this growth in travel experience. They should be autonomy in decision-making, stimulation and intensity in daily life, learning about the world and self and intense interpersonal relations. Especially, when leaving from a known to an unknown place, the difficulties that need to be faced are not only physical but also psychological. And people who have an optimistic and authentic personality are better capable to overcome these difficulties and challenges (Lansing, 1968). Therefore, they are more likely to wander.

Moreover, "novelty-seeking" or "exploring the unknown" appears a lot in the definition of wanderlust (Boksberger & Laesser, 2009; Gray, 1970; Hyde & Lawson, 2003; Kulendran & Wilson, 2000; Mansfeld, 1992; You, O'leary, Morrison, & Hong, 2000). In fact, wanderlust was considered equal to "explore the unknown" in Figler, Weinstein, Sollers, and Devan's (1992) empirical quantitative research. Like Baudelaire (1920; cited by Tucci & Akey, 2016) has mentioned with "l'horreur du domicile", familiarity of the residence takes away the uniqueness and routine wears out passion and curiosity. The theory of psychological complexity also explains that organisms prefer increased novelty (Walker, 1972), which backs up this view further in a biological perspective.

2.4. The modern concept of Wanderlust

Unlike in the academic field, wanderlust has been publicised widely and promoted rapidly on social media, mainly thanks to the prosperity of tourism marketing (Buhalis & Law, 2008). Social media as an effective communication tool contributes to diversity of tourism marketing modes as well as broaden the scope of audience. Particularly, user-generated content (UGC) on social media is considered more trustworthy and less biased (Blackshaw & Nazzaro, 2006; Kotler, Bowen, & Makens, 2010). Nowadays, travel has been perceived as the symbol of freedom, independence, and pleasure (Paterson, 1993), not to mention wandering and wanderlust. People who label themselves as "wanderer" or "wanderlust" would be recognised as free, independent, adventurous, optimistic, knowledgeable, and enjoying their life. And they would like to be considered that way. An example

of this is online influencers and opinion leaders, who further pump wanderlust in the community through their high esteem and expert knowledge (Pan, MacLaurin, & Crotts, 2007). Together with brands and destinations, they are marketing the emotions and sense of adventure to a larger number of potential consumers through social media, which may make travel even more desirable to more people.

As discussed above, Vogt (1976) emphasises that wanderers can be motivated by the need for social recognition and prestige. Since social media has created multiple channels and tools for people to share information more easily and conveniently, it expands opportunities of getting wider recognition and higher prestige. Kang and Schuett (2013) particularly research the motivation of sharing travel experience online based on the work of Kelman's (1958 & 1961) social influence theory. Kelman (1958 & 1961) believes people who partake in social media activities through communities are found socially influenced by community members. And the social influence theory of Kelman (1958 & 1961) helps to understand this phenomenon. His theory proposes that behaviour changes caused by social influence happen at three different process modes: internalisation, identification, and compliance (Kelman, 1958; Kelman, 1961; as cited by Kang & Schuett, 2013). Internalisation indicates that one accepts influence because their caused behaviour is in fact beneficial and can be absorbed as her/his own personal norm. Identification refers to induced behaviours which will only be performed in the community where individual acquires these behaviours and finds belongingness. Compliance shows one's desire to achieve favourable reactions from certain people by behaving in certain ways (Kelman, 1958; Malhotra & Galletta, 2005). All three processes are aimed to satisfy personal goals, although it seems like the surroundings hold the power to change individual's behaviours and choices. Additionally, self-image and destination image are highlighted in tourism researches (Sirgy & Su, 2000; Stepchenkova & Zhan, 2013). Travel behaviour is affected by both, and their congruency increases the tendency of traveller visiting a certain destination (Sirgy & Su, 2000). This finding has already been widely used by some destinations and brands (Chon, 1992; Hosany, Ekinci, & Uysaet, 2006; Murphy, Benckendorff, & Moscardo, 2007). As a matter of fact, the concept of "wanderlust" provides a new angle for modern travel marketers to attract potential consumers. Meanwhile, business and promoters broadcast wanderlust and shed deep meanings and significance (e.g. romance, freedom, independence, novelty, self-actualisation, etc.) into "wanderlust". It is mutually reinforced and beneficial.

To sum up the literature review, it is found that current theory and studies are mostly related to travel and tourism. Direct definitions and discussions are either too simplified or too vague. That means researchers have not put much attention particularly on wanderlust. However, their overlapped parts can at least provide directions of assumptions. They are derived from both internal and external aspects. Besides, to formulate a more comprehensive research framework, support from abundant and multiple resources, is required. So, it is important to note that, since wanderlust is widely defined as a strong desire to travel, studies related to that will be considered and applied in this research even through the word "wanderlust" may not have been mentioned.

3. DEVELOPING & HYPOTHESISING THE WANDERLUST MODEL

This chapter provides a theoretical background on all predictor variables in the wanderlust framework (see Figure 1) and discusses their relationship with all outcome variables.

3.1. External Drivers

The first part of this section concerns the external drivers that are regarded in this thesis as outside influences that may drive a person to change behaviour based on those influences. They directly affect a person's life but a person cannot exclusively control these drivers, as these are influenced by many external factors.

3.1.1. Work Satisfaction

According to Vroom (1964), job satisfaction is an orientation of emotions that employees possess towards a role they are performing at the work place. It is an essential component for employee motivation and encouragement that may lead to better performances on the job. Job satisfaction is a widely researched topic and many people have defined it in their own ways. Hoppok and Spielgler (1938) provide an interesting angle and define job satisfaction as the integrated set of psychological, physiological and environmental conditions that encourage employees to admit that they are satisfied or happy with their jobs. Such conditions need to be conducive to a favourable and motivating working environment for higher job satisfaction. As higher job satisfaction, may reduce absenteeism, increase worker productivity and promote overall well-being (Clark, 1997; Raziq & Maulabakhsh, 2015). The measure of job satisfaction is a broad concept and according to the Job Descriptive Index (Balzer, Smith, & Kravitz, 1990; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969; Stanton et al., 2002) includes many factors that affect an employees' satisfaction, such as pay, colleagues, opportunities for promotion, colleagues, and the work itself.

Although there seems to be a lack of concrete research regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and the desire to travel. Desforges (2000) uses in-depth interviews to study the process through which travel is used to create self-identity. And identities are considered constructed by oneself to perform in different contexts (Cohen, 2010a; Cohen, 2010b; Goffman, 1978). Desforges'

(2000) paper addresses processes through which people create new identities by playing new roles while traveling and how some of these identities are affirmed and contested in the public sphere. One such testimonial is provided by Sarah who says that she feels the need to suppress her penchant for travelling, especially yearlong stints, as it is often seen as a sign of lack of commitment towards the job and the organization by the companies. This makes sense from the organization's point-of-view as a lack of commitment may indicate an uncertain future and higher turnover (Shore & Martin, 1989). Besides, knowing that, to get the job opportunity or maintain a job, people's desire to travel or desire to discover more self-identities might be influenced to be subjectively weakened even to its minimum.

To understand organizational commitment, the authors use Allen and Meyer's (1990) three-way model, which proposes that organizational commitment is experienced by the employee as three simultaneous mind-sets including affective, normative, and continuance organizational commitment. Firstly, affective commitment reflects commitment based on emotional ties the employee develops with the organization primarily via positive work experiences. Secondly, normative commitment reflects commitment based on perceived obligation towards the organization, for example rooted in the norms of reciprocity. And finally, continuance commitment reflects commitment based on the perceived costs, both economic and social, of leaving the organization.

In Sarah's case, if the need to pursue her desires and self-identity (Desforges, 2000) is much stronger and more imperative than her need of this job, this suppression might lead to dissatisfaction with her job eventually, as her sense of self is compromised. And when employees are dissatisfied at work, they are less committed and will look for other opportunities to quit. If opportunities to quit seem unavailable or inconvenient, they may emotionally or mentally withdraw from the organisation (Lok & Crawford, 2004). According to Allen and Meyer's model (1990) they will be affectively uncommitted to the organisation. Further research also supports the significant relationship between job satisfaction and various forms of organisational commitment such as productivity, engagement and overall well-being (Clark, 1997; Field & Buitendach, 2011; Raziq & Maulabakhsh, 2015; Yousef, 2000).

From the above example, it is apparent that self-identities built through travel can affect organisational commitment and it is also established that organisational commitment and job

satisfaction share a significant relationship. Due to lack of concrete research on the matter, this example is used as a foundation to explore the research gap between the desire to travel and job satisfaction.

However, due to the complexity of job satisfaction as a concept, the focus is only on the "work itself", as mentioned in the JDI (Balzer, Smith, & Kravitz, 1990; Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969; Stanton et al., 2002). Work may be defined as any activity that involves the expenditure of human energy, and that is undertaken to achieve some specific goal like a salary (Eichler & Mathews, 2004). Although there is not a lot of research indicating the relationship between just work satisfaction and travelling. It is considered that the nature of work itself is a major part of our jobs, as the activities we perform on the job make up the major part of the day. While facets like pay, promotion, supervision and colleagues may not be as regular and apparent. Hence, work satisfaction can be regarded as being synonymous to job satisfaction and the following hypotheses are proposed to study the relationship between work satisfaction, wanderlust and tourists' behavioural intentions to Denmark:

H1a: Work Satisfaction has a significant relationship with Wanderlust.
H2a: Work Satisfaction has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.
H3a: Work Satisfaction has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.
H4a: Work Satisfaction has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay.

3.1.2. Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences

Peer and societal pressure to conform to normative influences is something that is innate in most human beings. People tend to turn to who they trust, respect and/or admire when they make decisions about their lives. These decisions can be about anything from choosing what brand of perfume to buy to where to go on vacation. Bearden, Netemeyer, and Teel (1989, p. 474) define consumer susceptibility to normative influences as "the need to identify or enhance one's image with significant others through the acquisition and use of products and brands, the willingness to conform to the expectations of others regarding purchase decisions and/or the tendency to learn about products and services by observing others and/or seeking information from others". Research discusses the role of susceptibility to normative influence on several consumer studies and point out that social influence plays an important part in tourism and can directly or indirectly affect purchasing behaviour (Josiassen & Assaf, 2012; Sparks, 2007). Furthermore, the study of Currie, Wesley, and Sutherland

(2008) on students about peer and normative influence on travel decision-making showcases that peers have influence over the decision-making process of individuals, where people are directly and/or indirectly inspired and motivated by their peers to travel to certain destinations or even just become curious about travelling. They recognise that the influence may not be positive as people may travel to find their freedom and expression, so they choose not to conform to other people's past or present choices. This is an interesting observation as wanderlust, as mentioned above, is about seeking novelty and exploring the unknown (Boksberger & Laesser, 2009; Gray, 1970; Hyde & Lawson, 2003; Kulendran & Wilson, 2000; Mansfeld, 1992; You, O'leary, Morrison, & Hong, 2000). So, people acting on wanderlust, may not be so susceptible to normative influences as they are on their own journey to explore the unknown and express themselves in their own way. However, Vogt (1976) also gives his opinion saying that wanderlust could be motivated by social recognition and prestige. It meets people's needs of belongingness and self-actualisation (Maslow, 1971; Pike, 2007) in a wider scope, especially in today's culture and trends where sharing travel experiences on social media or online communities are common, easy, and convenient. Along with the social influence theory (Kelman, 1958; Kelman 1961), possibility of people willingly accepting influenced is supported. Moreover, Josiassen and Assaf (2013) indicate that when susceptibility to normative influence is high in people, their attention to destination image and willingness to buy go up, especially when the social visibility of the trip is high, which proves the need to conform to norms such as taking popular trips. However, the study indicated that even though this influence may have been negative, it was still significant as it still ignited a spark to explore and travel. A similar research study by Hsu, Kang, and Lam (2006) showcase how particular reference groups influence respondents' decision-making process regarding choosing Hong Kong as a travel destination and find that friends and family as a reference group have much more significant influence on decision-making than travel agents. However, this influence may depend on the person's own motivation, attitude and intention to travel to a destination. So, saying there is a direct connection between social influence and purchasing behaviour might be a stretch, but it is hard to deny the close relationship.

All research discussed above points to the understanding that normative influence is an important factor to consider when studying travel behaviour and intentions. Hence, the following hypotheses are proposed with regards to that discussion, to explore the relationship between the consumer susceptibility to normative influences, wanderlust and tourists' behavioural intentions in regards to travelling to Denmark:

H1b: Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences has a significant relationship with Wanderlust.

H2b: Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.

H3b: Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.

H4b: Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay.

3.1.3. Work-Life Balance

Life is stressful and no matter what you do, work is demanding. Every working individual is required to comprise on either career or family, or find middle ground which can be called work-life balance. To put this into concrete terms, Lowry & Moskos' (2008; as cited by Wheatley, 2012, p. 815) definition of work-life balance is applied here, which is referred to "as the ability of individuals, regardless of age or gender, to combine work and household responsibilities successfully. "Work" in this context can be considered as paid employment (as well as unpaid work carried out for an employer). This is distinguished from "life" which refers to non-work, comprised of free time spent in leisure activities and family time etc". People have several other responsibilities apart from a job such as housework, volunteering, parenting, socialising etc. and it is important to create a balance to avoid being overwhelmed. Research agrees that work-life balance is something everyone should be mindful about. Because it can save people from burnouts and stress, which can not only be detrimental to mental health but can also manifest itself in physical forms such as headaches, heart disease and even diabetes. This, in turn, will affect productivity in all aspects of an individual's life. People should work to create an environment where they work hard but also leave time for activities that they truly enjoy whether it is with family or by themselves. People must recognise when to walk away from work and learn to say "no", every now and then, for the sake of their own physical and mental well-being (Dhas & Karthikeyan, 2015; Meenakshi, Subrahmanyam C.V & Ravichandran, 2013). A way to find work-life balance, as mentioned above, is doing things that people find enjoy and find pleasure doing.

Furthermore, work can get stressful and monotonous. So, another way to restore that balance is take time off to be away from work and nothing relieves stress like escaping to another place for a vacation. Hence, paid leave is important and every employee should have a right to it, to reset their clocks and feel destressed. Thelocal.dk (2015) reports that Denmark has one of the highest paid vacation days worldwide where an employee can accumulate up to 5 weeks of paid leave. Maybe there is a lesson to learn from this as Denmark consistently ranks high on the happiness index year after year (World Happiness Report 2018, 2018). There seems to be a lack of concrete research that explains if having good work-life balance affects travel intentions and behaviour, including the desire to seek adventure or give into wanderlust. However, since it is clearly understood that good work-life balance is important to ensure mental and physical length along with good performance at work. In that context, some research (Etzion, 2003; Fritz & Sonnentag, 2006; Westman & Etzion, 2001) indicates that after a relaxing and voluntary vacation the respondents felt rejuvenated and noticed a decrease in exhaustion including other health issue and some even reported better performance such as reduction in absenteeism. This can indicate that when people take breaks or vacations they want or enjoy, it helps promote better work-life balance and gives people the tools to feel better overall and perform better. But most findings indicate that this affect only lasts short-term, implying that vacations and breaks need to be a periodic part of an individual's life to ensure good mental and physical health along with continued top job performance.

From the discussion, above, it is easy to conclude that leisure travel has a significant impact on work-life balance. Hence, it is only fair to assume that a rational individual seeking good work-life balance would be inclined to taking vacations and seeking adventure in the form of tourism. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed to understand if possessing good work-life balance ignites wanderlust in people and makes them act on their travel intentions regarding Denmark:

> *H1c: Work-Life Balance has a significant relationship with Wanderlust.*
> *H2c: Work-Life Balance has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.*
> *H3c: Work-Life Balance has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.*
> *H4c: Work-Life Balance has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay*

3.1.4. Social Media Exposure

Social Media is defined as highly interactive platforms via which individuals and communities share, co-create, discuss, and modify user-generated content (Kietzmann, Hermkens, McCarthy, & Silvestre, 2011). Social Media is also often connected to the term 'Web 2.0' which is used to describe a way in which software developers and end-users started to utilize the World Wide Web; that is, as a platform whereby web content are no longer created and published by individuals or companies, but instead are continuously modified by all users in a collaborative fashion, which is also known as user-generated content (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010). In other words, social media is an endless pit of information, for the people by the people. According to Statista (2019), the top 6 social media platforms based on active users in 2019 were Facebook, YouTube, WhatsApp, Facebook Messenger, WeChat, and Instagram. These platforms attract billions of people every day from across the globe to share information about a myriad of topics. Web 2.0 applications as such mentioned earlier are a rich trove of information. It allows people to share their experiences and get this information across to billions of people within a matter of seconds or minutes.

Based on that, according to Miguéns, Baggio, and Costa (2008), tourism is a sector that can immensely benefit from such exchange of information. And countless travel marketing and advertising conducted by travel agencies and destinations rely on social media and online community. In other words, such rich user generated content holds the power to influence tourists' choices, but can be also of extreme value for the comprehension of preferences, needs and reactions which can (or should) inform many decisions from a management point of view. They also suggest that consumers may value preferences and opinions of fellow travellers, thus shifting the focus of from a business-to-consumer marketing model to peer-to-peer model of sharing information. So nowadays, sharing experiences on social media is encouraged and welcomed by companies and individuals alike, fellow travellers consider information from companies to be less reliable and would rather rely on peer experiences that people share on social media in the form of pictures, videos, comments on booking sites etc. (Kang & Schuett, 2013; Xiang & Gretzel, 2010).

MDG Advertising, an advertising agency showcases in a recent report how social media is becoming a top source for travel inspiration (Gigante, 2018). According to research by the company, 74% travellers use social media while travelling, where 60% travellers share photos to social media while travelling and an astounding 97% millennials do the same and share photos to social media while

travelling and around 40% -- 50% of travellers write reviews online about hotels and/or attraction sites. This shared information is then accessed by an equally high percentage of people. Their research shows 30% of all U.S. travellers use social media to find travel information and that Facebook photos of friends affect more than 50 percent of users' travel plans. Furthermore, whether a location is "Instagrammable" also matter, as 40 percent of UK Millennials consider how photo-worthy a location is when planning a trip. On Pinterest, thousands of boards contain the words "travel inspiration." These boards are often not destination specific, they just illustrate the possibility of a trip. This often leads to further research and, ultimately, a booking. These social media posts are also often connected or tagged with the elusive word 'wanderlust', which directly translates to the desire to explore, as discussed earlier on how wanderlust has taken over social media. It would make sense that extended amounts of exposure to social media and consequently being exposed to this vast amount of available tourism information and user-generated content increases travel behaviour and significantly affects travel intentions. Finally, in accordance with that, Chu and Luckanavanich (2018) specifically find that frequency of social media use has a positive and significant impact on people's travel intentions about visiting Taiwan.

The discussion above makes it clear that social media can influence travel intentions and can consequently impact behaviour. Following that, the purpose here is to explore the research gap in this field regarding wanderlust and travel behavioural intentions specifically when to travelling to Denmark, which thus compels the proposal of the following hypotheses for social media exposure, wanderlust and tourists' behavioural intentions regarding Denmark:

H1d: Social Media Exposure has a significant relationship with Wanderlust.
H2d: Social Media Exposure has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.
H3d: Social Media Exposure has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.
H4d: Social Media Exposure has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay.

3.1.5. Education

Most people would agree that education is an important of intellectual and emotional development. During one of his many eloquent speeches (ShareAmerica, 2011), former US president Barack Obama, mentions how education teaches us how to learn, think critically and find solutions to unexpected challenges. Eurostat (2016) defines education as any act or experience that has a

formative effect on an individual's mind, character, or physical ability. In a more technical sense, education is the formal process by which society, through schools, colleges, universities and other institutions, deliberately transmits its cultural heritage and its accumulated knowledge, values and skills to the next generation.

A study by Jensen (2011) at the University of Southern Denmark researched with a Danish pool of respondents, the relationship between socio-demographic factors such as level of education and income with travel motivations, which could consequently explain travel behaviour. He concludes from his study that people with higher education are significantly motivated by appreciation for natural resources as a travel motivation and very interestingly the data showed that respondents choosing natural resources as a travel motivation are also significantly choosing Denmark as a travel destination and in this case as a domestic travel destination due to the study being conducted in Denmark. So, it is interesting to note how education can positively affect tourism within Denmark, if marketers trigger specific travel motivations like emphasising the natural beauty in Denmark to potential highly-educated customers.

Božić and Jovanović (2017) explore the role of social demographics on electronic word-of-mouth about travelling, such as sharing photos of trips, commenting on posts, putting statuses, and sharing opinions about experiences, hotels etc. The study shows that more educated respondents will share information about their vacation both before and during their trips. Interestingly both groups on the opposite ends of the spectrum (highest and lowest level of education) share comments and statuses about the destination. However, highly educated people refrain from posting photos of the destination which may include pictures of their hotel. These results could show the willingness to spread the word for prestige reasons. For example, Božić and Jovanović (2017) suggest that less educated individuals may earn less on average compared to the more educated individuals. And they feel the need to share their travel experience through photos for prestige reasons as it may be a rare or unusual opportunity to do so. On the other hand, more educated individuals may share information about their vacation for prestige and status purposes but in a more intellectual sense, where they feel entitled to share their opinions and reviews. This could be beneficial for fellow travellers as these opinions could be considered more reliable coming from an educated source. One could also argue that higher education brings awareness and generally ignites curiosity within many individuals, which could translate to a desire to seek adventure and uncertainty as pointed out by Matthews (2012). In his

article on timeshighereducation.com, he reiterates the results of a poll that show how majority of the 500 students that were surveyed in the UK are either interested in or are already planning on studying abroad and most of them were motivated by 'wanderlust' or the need to seek adventure. From the discussion, above, it may be clear that level of education has shown to have a significant and positive impact on travel intentions, motivations and behaviour. Since educated people are likely to understand the importance and worth of paying for quality experience because of their more relative awareness and more vigorous curiosity, it is reasonable to assume that if they have the strong desire to travel, their wanderlust would be indirectly relevant to willingness to pay, although there is not much concrete research investigating their relationship directly. However, the following hypotheses are proposed based on the examples above and further explore and the relationship between level of education, wanderlust and tourist behavioural intentions specifically to Denmark and bridge the research gap that exists between education and willingness to pay:

H1e: Education has a significant relationship with Wanderlust.
H2e: Education has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.
H3e: Education has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.
H4e: Education has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay.

3.1.6. Income

OECD (2016) defines household income as an indication of the goods and services families can purchase on the market. Hence, it is an objective indication of material quality of life, and it is used to measure poverty and inequality. To be specific, income can include wages and salaries but also other monetary income from investments, dividends, social benefits, properties etc. (OECD, 2019). Since income is an indicator of quality of life and the extent of services an individual and/or can afford, then logically speaking, people with higher incomes should have higher travel intention and behaviour. That is, higher income is supposed to lead to higher demand for travel, because the simple fact that they can afford that service. However, a comparative study (Zegras & Srinivasan, 2006) about travel behaviour in Chengdu, China and Santiago, Chile showcases that, when it comes to travelling for recreation, there is not much difference between the lower, middle and upper classes measured in terms of household income. However, these numbers indicate day trip data and it is possible that longer vacation trips may show completely different results. Avila-Foucat and Rodríguez-Robayo (2018) in their paper on demand for tourism in Mexico, demonstrate that

Mexico's demand as a tourism destination is not very elastic to wealth. It indicates that Mexico is considered by the USA and Canada markets to be an inferior good than its competitors. And even though demand has gone up, it is considered an economical option. Similar to, its inelasticity with income, it shows that Mexico has been losing competitiveness at attracting tourists with higher purchasing power, the results show increase in tourists but less spending. Even though the effects of luxury versus economical tourism is not a focus in their paper, the above example demonstrates how income can affect tourist perceptions and behaviour. And in this case, income decreased willingness to pay, but increased willingness to visit.

In another example, Kattiyapornpong and Miller (2006) study the effects of demographics on travel constraints. Through travel plans and past travel behaviour to places such as New Zealand, Asia, Europe and America, they find that respondents with higher household income travel more. Similarly, Visa, a credit card company (Lung, 2017) shows that income is an important factor in estimating travel wanderlust and concluded from a data sampling of 6 million people in several American cities that people with higher income tend to take more international trips and travel more in general, regardless of age. There is a reasonable amount of research to show that income has a significant effect on travel intentions and behaviour to various countries and cities across the world. The same logic is kept in mind to suggest the following hypotheses for income, wanderlust and tourists' behavioural intentions regarding Denmark:

H1f: Income has a significant relationship with Wanderlust.
H2f: Income has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.
H3f: Income has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.
H4f: Income has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay.

3.2. Internal Drivers

Internal drivers in this thesis are concerned with factors that arise and develop within an individual as a part of their personality and way-of-thinking. People may experience a change in their way-of-thinking depending on various experiences. However, how they choose to develop that change depends entirely on them, whether consciously or sub-consciously.

3.2.1. Romanticism

Romanticism has been widely studied in the field of philosophy and aesthetics (Holbrook & Olney, 1995). And it is often considered with classicism as its opposite. Romanticism is defined using some of the following words, "genius, creative imagination, originality, expression, communication, symbolism, emotion, and sentiment" and "elevation of the artist; the exaltation of originality; the new value set on … emotional aspects of experience" (Osborne, 1970, p.193-194). Quite the contrary, classicism emphasizes on realism, harmony, tradition, proportion, rules of methods, and correctness of representation (Osborne, 1970, p.13-39). Similarly, Pirsig (1974) explains both items in his book. He believes the romantic mode focuses on feelings instead of facts, which favours creation, imagination, and intuition. Whereas, the classic mode aims to keep order and avoid chaos, which is weighed as straightforward, unemotional, and carefully proportioned. Additionally, descriptions like "exotic", "novel", and "adventure" were added to the understanding of romanticism (Brinton, 1967). Later, Nozick (1981, p. 613) further finds "overcoming obstacles, breaking bonds, powerful irrational emotions, continuous striving toward new goals, the value of change and novelty, the dynamic process of transcending limits" in romanticism. Combined all the stated features, romanticism is closely aligned with hedonic experiential consumption (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982).

The German Romantics were the first who connected romanticism and travel together. As mentioned above, "wanderlust" is originally adopted from German (Dege, 2018; Delistraty, 2018). And travel during the early modern period was indicated by trade, colonization and the accomplishment of civility (Carey, 2003). Its conception later transformed along with the rise of romanticism (Stocking, 1989). It was the Romantics who brought nature and landscapes into the public eye and converted travel to imaginary journeys which provide a chance for self-discovery and communicating with a lost self (Carey, 2003). Their paintings reflected their inner self and solitude was a path leading to inner world (Dege, 2018). In this case, travel can be regarded as a journey of self-searching (Cohen, 2010a; Cohen, 2010b), which involves the romantic lens to self and life. However, the Romantics are not always pursuing a wandering life. Many Romantic poets had ambivalent attitudes toward stability and travel as they were suffering from exile and found home difficult to bear (Lau, 2006). Just as Di Stefano (2002) quoted from Naficy (2003), someone's wanderlust in their homeland for other places are as unquenchable and unsatisfied as the desire to get back home from the exile. This tends to suggest that even the Romantics could have both wanderlust and yearn for stability. However, the romantic mode and the classic mode are exclusively perceived in Pirsig's (1974) opinion.

No matter what, one thing can be assumed that romanticism is related to wanderlust or the restless desire to travel. According to Gish (1964), the era of German Romanticism has shaped and fostered the conception of wanderlust. Based on former research, Holbrook and Olney (1995) take a further look at the effect of romanticism and classicism as personality traits on people's travel preferences. They intended to test if romantic consumers are more attracted by travel with high level of risks so that their wanderlust can be expressed. However, their study only tested the effect romanticism has on certain travel preference and travel feature. Other than Gish (1964), there is still no direct research or focus on investigating the relationship between romanticism and wanderlust. And from what has been demonstrated, a considerable amount of literatures and academic discussions have revealed that romanticism has influence on wanderlust. Since Copenhagen is named the world's top city of 2019 by Lonely Planet (VisitDenmark, 2019), Denmark will gain more global attentions from both online and offline societies. Meanwhile, as H. C. Andersen's stories along with his wanderlust have been widely spread and recognized for years, it also leaves a romantic mark on Denmark's destination image. These would help to foster and boost people's word-of-mouth behaviour. Besides, according to the theory of self-image/destination image congruity (Chon, 1992; Sirgy & Su, 2000), Denmark has the potential to be a pilgrim place for wanderers to roam. In line with that, in order to gain a direct understanding, the traveller profile of Denmark, the following hypotheses for romanticism, wanderlust, and tourist behavioural intentions are proposed:

H5a: Romanticism has a significant relationship with Wanderlust.
H6a: Romanticism has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.
H7a: Romanticism has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.
H8a: Romanticism has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay.

3.2.2. Escapism

The idea of escaping from our daily stressful lives frequently comes to our mind. Escapism can be considered as a state of psychological immersion and absorption (Mathwick & Rigdon, 2004) where people can avoid thinking about their worries and responsibilities of daily life. Normally, there methods are proposed to escape: relaxing at home or going out to travel. Sports, gym, watching tv, reading fictions and novels, and drinking alcohol are all solutions (Kingsmith, 2016) but only quite temporary ways since people are physically still in their daily life. This is like what Hirschman (1985)

has argued that escapist consumption experiences help consumers feel relaxed from their problems and unpleasant situations but only temporarily.

Another way to run away from daily routine is to travel. In many literatures, escapism is defined as a push factor that motivates people to travel (e.g. Crompton, 1979; Hanai, 2016; Kim, Lee, & Klenosky, 2003; You, O'leary, Morrison, & Hong, 2000). Travel is regarded and experienced to find one's own space outside the life of home (Davidson, 2005). And the nomad is advised by Richards and Wilson (2004) as the idealized form of travel since it helps to get rid of social constrains and gain a sense of freedom (Krippendorf, 1987). Herein, travel is like a romanticized and idealized journey which is directed by one's self (Campbell, 1987). In this sense, wandering should be a better travel mode for escapists.

In fact, escapism is not only a modern need. Looking back into history, it has always been the restless yearn of writers, philosophers, poets (Smith, 2003). Remak (1978) believes that when people travel outside their homeland, there is positive and negative escapism involved in their wanderlust. For example, traveling to a foreign land, leaving all the concerns and anxiety behind, and enjoying beaches and sunshine could be the positive escapism. While, the Ugly Duckling written by H.C. Andersen, being forced to leave its birth place, roaming around to find belongingness, can be an evidence of negative escapism. What is more, Remak's (1978) article also indirectly indicates that wanderlust can contain both escapism and romanticism at the same time. Interestingly, there are two different opinions towards the purpose of escapism. One dominated view supported by Ateljevic and Doorne (2000) is travel is a gateway to escape from important life choices. In Jensen's (2011) work, he finds the four travel motivations for Danish travellers related to escapism and relaxation are "escape from work responsibilities/stress", "to seek release from work pressure", "get away from everyday life/routine", "to rest and relax". His perspective on escapism is mainly about relaxation. During travel, one's imagination and fantasy are satisfied as their past is unknown by the locals so they can play different roles compared to when they are at home. This fact has been well-confirmed by Smith (2003). Seaton (2002) describes this particular behaviour as "metensomatosis" or "role-playing". He further claims that people depart changed and return to their previous self. No matter it is for relaxation or role-playing, in a nutshell, people who travel for this reason tend to seek hedonistic experiences and they only change themselves temporarily. Another leading opinion demonstrated by Cohen (2010a) suggests escaping by travel contributes to the search for true-self. As one of his

interviewees put, homeland, family, work, friends, these are all the components that have influence on our identity. However, escapism offers new perspectives and free space for self-discovery and self-understanding (Cohen, 2010a). Plus, travel helps with physical and mental reconciliation which is hard to be implemented at home (Smith, 2003).

Maybe daily pressures can easily be left behind at home during travel, however, it is difficult to get away from our persistent worries and ourselves (De Botton, 2008; Edensor, 2001). That is, the joy produced by escaping from daily life is limited in its capacity and it is not the ultimate solution for life. Role-playing explained by Seaton (2002) is, after all, an illusion. When returned home, problems and concerns still exist and waiting to be faced. Therefore, scholars give similar suggestions that one should communicate with the true self while away from normal elements of the daily life (Cohen, 2010b; Smith, 2003; Wang, 2000). The travel motivation triggered by escapism on this point is consistent with what was discussed about wanderlust above. Smith (2003), makes a notable point that modern holidays generally focus on participating fully with the true self instead of escapist and hedonistic activities. She (Smith, 2003) further developed the concept of spiritual and holistic journeys and encourages participants to apply what they have discovered about their true self on their journey, in their daily lives. Since what she described about spiritual and holistic tourists share the same purpose of self-discovery with wanderers during their journeys, it is reasonable to say the assumed relationship between escapism and wanderlust holds significance. Also, it is clear to see that the second opinion challenges the first one. Or, it enriches the purpose of escapism by traveling – not just temporarily hiding from the reality but also finding a "quiet" place with less influence to understand and accept the true self. This reveals a connection between escapism and self-actualisation, which will be discussed in detail in the following part.

In addition, according to Luís Abrantes, Seabra, Raquel Lages, and Jayawardhena (2013), escapism has a highly positive impact on social interaction as well as a highly significant and positive, but indirect impact on electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM). Escapism is "a classic motivation associated with most types of media" (Grant, 2005, p. 612). And many social media and platforms are suitable for escapism, such as, Facebook, Instagram, WeChat, Skype, and some forums. It allows users to send and receive a great amount of information every day. They can watch interesting videos, make friends globally, look for and share experiences, and build relationships, which allows them to escape reality and consequently achieve escapism (Lee & Zaichkowsky, 2006; Luís Abrantes, Seabra,

Raquel Lages, & Jayawardhena, 2013). Nowadays, as mentioned before, social media has been a widely-used channel and tool for travel advertising. This is true as online communities constantly share travel experience through texts, images and videos. Being exposed to such information, brings up the consideration that escapism and word-of-mouth may be related, and consequently escapism and willingness-to-travel may be related too. Besides, Morgan (2006, p. 305) defines "experience" as what "customers are seeking and paying for". In Cleaver, Green, and Muller's (2000) research, one individual item of escapism was "to indulge in a bit of luxury", which indicated that travellers motivated by escapism are likely to accept a higher price for exotic and unique experiences. For example, skydiving, visiting the Great Barrier Reef, or a safari trip in Africa. To sum up, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H5b: Escapism has a significant relationship with Wanderlust.

H6b: Escapism has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.

H7b: Escapism has s significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.

H8b: Escapism has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay.

3.2.3. Self-Actualisation

Self-actualisation and its related concepts have been discussed multiple times over decades. Its definition is referred to as the discovery, expression, and development of the true self (Cofer & Appley, 1964). This concept was particularly recognized and developed in Maslow's work (Jones & Crandall, 1986; Woodside & Martin, 2008). In his framework of hierarchy of needs, self-actualisation is "the development of the fullest height that the human species can stand up to or that the particular individual can come to" (Maslow, 1971, p. 175). When it comes to tourism motivation, self-actualisation is widely considered as a push factor that motives people to travel from the inside (Moal–Ulvoas and Taylor, 2014; Woodside & Martin, 2008). In Mill and Morrison's (1992) opinion, understanding people's personal needs and wants is crucial to understanding their travel motivation. Following that, Pike (2007) compares Maslow's hierarchy of needs with travel motivations. He finds that escape and relaxation as travel motivations are derived to meet the basic physiological needs (e.g. relief of tension; sunlust, travel for a better climate) while the needs of self-actualisation relate to travel for true self (e.g. self-discovery; self-realization). The in-depth researched carried by Chen, Bao, and Huang (2014) also indicate that escape and relaxation could build a good foundation for

self-actualisation. This is in line with what was mentioned above about escapism and that it provides opportunities for people to get away from factors affecting daily life so that they can have new perspectives and own space to understand their true selves (Cohen, 2010a). In this case, escapism is not supposed to be taken as their main motivation. Instead, Smith (2003) suggests that self-reconciliation should be at the core to get a more accurate understanding of their desires. She divides tourists into three categories of mass, cultural and spiritual or holistic tourists. Through this differentiation she (Smith, 2003) indicates that, compared to mass tourists who simply want to escape daily life, spiritual or holistic tourists seek inspiration and self-improvement. Regarding her explanation of spiritual or holistic tourists, it seems very relevant to the definition of wanderers, as it mentions autonomy, freedom, independence, and authenticity (Cohen, 1972; Smith, 2003). At the end of her article, she encourages people to get involved with spiritual and holistic journeys so that they can face, accept, and improve their true selves and live an authentic life, instead of just travelling to run away from reality.

Although self-actualisation has been well defined and analysed in Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, the concept of "self" is still under critical discussion in the academic field. Within the scope of tourism literature, Cohen (2010a) and Cohen (2010b) reveal the tension between lifestyle travellers (equals to wanderer, 2010a, p. 123) who seek for a true inner self and academic propositions which view selves as fluid and performed. Firstly, he summarises all the established concepts such as self-actualisation, self-realisation, self-fulfilment, discovering one's self and self-development into one term called searching for self in short. Then he reviews the historical status of essentialist self or "true inner self". He clarifies that Renaissance revitalized individuality as identity near the end of Middle Ages. Later, the Romantic era continually supports that there is true inner self which is distinct from the society outside (Leed, 1991). Gish (1964) also illustrates this yearn for self ("nach sich selbst sehnen", p. 230) from German Romantics. The essentialist inner self is related to one's potential and it could be developed, fulfilled and actualised (Maslow, 1971). And people tend to depend on their true inner self making important decisions in their life (McAdams, 1997). That true inner self is similar to what Wang (1999) identified as authenticity. Authenticity is referred as a subjective process of communicating with one's self, understand the sense of one's own identity and maintain an integrated sense of self (Cohen, 2010b; Steiner & Reisinger, 2006; Wang, 1999). Although, it is hard to maintain this sense of self, as individual experiences in modern society are more and more fragmented due to phenomena like work specialization and globalisation. But travel can offer

opportunities for self-discovery and self-searching (Desforges, 2000; MacCannell, 2013). However, Gergen (1991) argues that external forces and influential factors require one to play multiple roles in various contexts. One authentic self would be inadequate for one to manage all these.

It seems like an essentialist inner self fails to cooperate with one's social surrounding under various situations. Therefore, the academic world proposed another concept about self in dialogical constructions. Vaughan and Hogg (2002, p. 84) believe that how we see ourselves is generated from how other people think about us, which is called "the looking-glass self". Further, Goffman (1978) has this dramaturgical metaphor to illustrate individuals as actors who would perform different roles facing different audiences and situations. In fact, this theory matches traveling for escapism. As individuals have an idea about their "self" in daily routines and going on a trip can give them a chance to escape from their current role and immerse themselves into a new role in a new environment where they are unknown to others (Baumeister, 1991; Seaton, 2002). It was also named flow experience (Csikszentmihalyi & Csikszentmihalyi, 1975) which allows people to leave their daily identified self behind and enjoy a different desired self in a preferable space. From this perspective, it indicates that a true inner self might not be natural existed or fixed. Instead, one seems to have multiple selves that are situationally correlated (Cohen, 2010a). In this case, identity was suggested to be more proper to describe it. It is regarded as the total reflections of subjective and inclusive self-experience (Cote & Levine, 2002), the presentation tailored only about one's self (McAdams, 1997) and the integrated version of oneself constructed on purpose (McAdams, 1997). Given the idea of social saturation stated by Gergen (1991), Cohen (2010a) also agrees that an increasing array of life choices and noisy voices from society keep disturbing individuals to maintain and retain a coherent sense of self.

Although identity might be more applicative and practical than authenticity on the basis of theories above, the results of Cohen's (2010a) research shows majority lifestyle travellers still believed in a true inner self existing while only few of them discovered their potential to be performers and enjoyed it. That is, self-searching is a continuous state of becoming (Cohen, 2010a). Even through scholars generally considered selves as multiple, fluid, and performed, keeping an eye on the possibility of its unity and coherence is still necessary (McAdams, 1997). Because no matter a true inner self exists or not, many people are still seeking it. And even if it is just imagination, the process of searching self is still meaningful and crucial for individuals (Lefcourt, 1973).

Whether individuals seeking authenticity or identity in travelling, there is no doubt that travel experiences can provide both an infinite form for maintaining a true self and continuous temporary "stages" to perform potential multiple selves. Therefore, self-actualisation is a collective name for actualising all forms of selves. Since Cohen's (2010a, 2010b) work has paid attention on wanderers and self-actualisation, this research will investigate their relationship further through a quantitative method. Meanwhile, as self-actualisers going through their journeys, they are likely to participate in tourism consumptions. Therefore, following hypotheses are proposed:

H5a: Self-actualisation has a significant relationship with Wanderlust.

H6a: Self-actualisation has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.

H7a: Self-actualisation has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.

H8a: Self-actualisation has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay.

3.2.4. Curiosity

Curiosity is one of the main instincts studied in psychological literatures (Spielberger & Starr, 1994) which represents the intrinsic desire to seek out and acquire information (Berlyne, 1978). It is found that a positive emotional experience (Kashdan, Rose, & Fincham, 2004) can be elicited by novelty (Berlyne, 1954). In the statement of Kashdan et al. (2018), people who pursue curiosity have a high tendency to encounter pleasure and meaning in their life because they make extra efforts on exploration, discovery, and seeking personal meanings. As a matter of fact, curiosity is frequently linked to exploration. For example, Spielberger and Starr (1994, p. 221) define curiosity as "the motivational determinant that energizes these exploratory behaviours". While, Salomon (1985) also believes that curiosity arouses exploration and it can be a motivation for travel. And Kulendran and Wilson (2000) support that wanderlust travellers who travel to explore are motivated by curiosity. Quite contrary to that, Adler (1989) demonstrates the influence travel writing, had on travel performances and travel styles in the late 18th century. She argues that many travellers label their journeys with words like "curious", "romantic", and "philosophical" on purpose and this constitutes a recognizable type of travel. This travel style is imitated continuously and has become synonymous with having curiosity. However, people travel in order to satisfy their needs and curiosity is definitely one of them (Crompton, 1979; Um & Crompton, 1991). Based on that, travel desire and curiosity are related, regardless of which initiates which.

Wanderlust, is widely interpreted as a strong desire to travel (Oxford Dictionaries, 2019) and is seen as a personal trait, can be traced back to one gene named DRD4-7R (Hilton, 2017; Munafò, 2008; Scotti, 2015). It is also called the "wanderlust gene" and is in association with high levels of curiosity. Further, Hilton (2017) distinguishes five types of curiosity: curious pathfinder, curious epicurean, curious culturalist, curious spiritualist, and curious challenger. Although this is just a commercial advertisement promoting their different types of hotels, it points out that curiosity could be categorized into different types. They are not the first one to have this idea. Litman (2008) and Litman and Silvia (2006) suggest to divide curiosity into two types: interest and deprivation curiosity. Interest curiosity (I-type curiosity) involves the pleasure gained from acquired information and knowledge while deprivation curiosity (D-type curiosity) aims to reduce uncertainty and undesirable situations that might occur during a journey (Koo & Choi, 2010). Later, Jani (2014) further investigates these two types of curiosity particularly related to travel and compared them with the Big Five Factors (BFF) of personality. He notes the significant impact that information search behaviour has on travel decision-making and travel product purchase. In his research, the experiment result shows that openness to experience has a positive influence on the I-type travel curiosity while neuroticism and agreeableness both have a positive influence on the D-type travel curiosity. Similarly, Woo et al. (2014) focuses particularly on openness to experience and researched curiosity as one of its facet. In their survey, 15 items of curiosity of Hogan Personality Inventory (Hogan, 1995) are applied and noted that curiosity is a valid scale to measure openness to experience. Moreover, joyous exploration as a dimensional curiosity scale indicates that curious people prefer novelty and self-expansion rather than security (Kashdan et al., 2018), which is also in line with Jani's (2014) study result comparing types of curiosity to personality traits. As for the positive impact neuroticism has on the D-type travel curiosity, Jani (2014) explains that this personal trait tends to urge people to find answers for their immediate problems about travel before they get emotional and anxious about it. The reason agreeableness and the D-type travel curiosity are positively related is people need to acquire enough information to keep themselves on the same page with others. According to the previous discussion of wanderer and wanderlust, it seems like people who have I-type rather than D-type travel curiosity are more likely to have wanderlust because self-expansion and uncertainty are what wanderers seek instead of avoiding them.

Another research conducted by Kashdan et al. (2018) also proposes various categories of curiosity from the other angle. They recognise four groups of curious people: the fascinated, problem solvers, empathizers, and avoiders. According to them, the fascinated is excited to try unpredictable things and view life as an adventure. The problem solvers are independent and hard-working. The empathizers prefer observing rather than participating in social activities and they are afraid of travelling without planning in advance. The avoiders lack curiosity and confidence. Comparing all the four groups identified by Kashdan et al. (2018) with the I-type and D-type curiosity (Koo & Choi, 2010; Litman, 2008; Litman & Silvia, 2006) stated above, the fascinated and the problem solvers share a lot of similarities with individuals of I-type curiosity while the empathisers and avoiders share similarity with individuals of D-type curiosity. That implies, people in the fascinated and the problem solvers groups are more likely to have wanderlust rather than people in the other two groups.

To sum up, certain types of curiosity show relevancy to wanderlust and such types of personalities are also associated with travel curiosity. Hence, it is not difficult to assume that curiosity may have an impact on travel decision-making and consumer behaviour. So, the following hypotheses are proposed for further examination of the relationship between curiosity and wanderlust as well as curiosity and tourists' behavioural intentions:

H5a: Curiosity has a significant relationship with Wanderlust.

H6a: Curiosity has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.

H7a: Curiosity has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.

*H8a: Curiosity has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay.*

3.3 Wanderlust

For both external and internal drivers, wanderlust and tourists' behavioural intentions are considered as an outcome variable affected by those drivers. However, wanderlust itself, is a crucial travel motivation for certain people and is anticipated to have influence on travel/tourism behavioral intentions. Therefore, it is certainly necessary to explore the relationship between Wanderlust and tourists' behavioural intentions, where the following hypotheses are proposed:

H9A: Wanderlust has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.

H9A: Wanderlust has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.

H9A: Wanderlust has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay
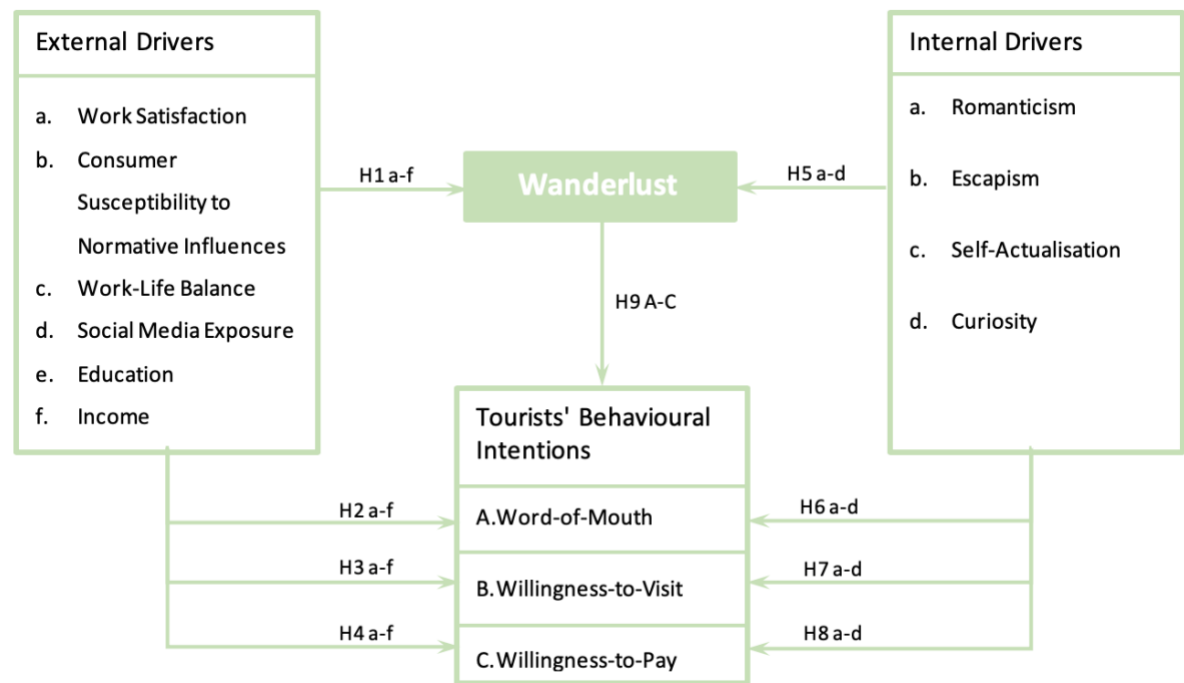
FIGURE 1: WANDERLUST FRAMEWORK (SOURCE: AUTHORS' OWN WORK)

4. METHODOLOGY

In this chapter of the thesis, the authors use Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill's (2012) Research Onion to uncover the layers of the methodological approach that were applied to test the proposed research model (See Figure 1) and explain the findings. The first section starts at the outermost layer and discusses the research design which includes the research philosophy, research approach and strategies of this study, which also include method choices and time horizons. Furthermore, this paper will discuss structure of the online survey and explain how each survey measure and scale were selected and acquired. Additionally, the statistical methods discussed are implemented to analyse the data. Finally, this chapter ends with a discussion on the reliability, validity and limitations of our methodological approach.
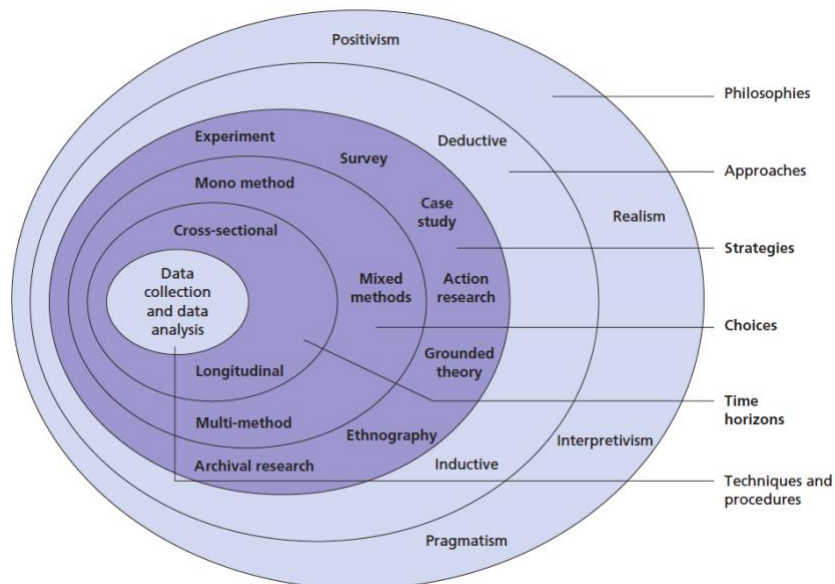

FIGURE 2: RESEARCH ONION (SOURCE: SAUNDERS, LEWIS, & THORNHILL, 2009)

4.1. Research Design

Research design is the general plan of how one will go about answering their research question (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). This includes many steps such as the research philosophy, research approach, research method and research strategy, that turn a mere research question into a research project and become a guide on the path to data collection and data analysis. These are all discussed below.

4.1.1. Research Philosophy

Research philosophy is an over-arching term that relates to the development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge. It is an important step in the consideration of methodology as it will underpin the research strategy and methods one chooses to apply that strategy. It has the following underlying dimensions, namely, ontology and epistemology (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). The ontological and epistemological views adopted in this study are presented below.

Firstly, ontology is concerned with the nature of reality and raises the assumptions researchers have about how the world operates and the commitment held to particular views. It has two underlying aspects on either extreme: Objectivism vs. Subjectivism (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Objectivism asserts that any social phenomena such as culture or an organisation have a reality that is independent of its actors and creates an objective and tangible reality of its own (Bryman, 2012). While on the other hand, subjectivism is when such social phenomena are created by the actions and consequences of the social actors that include it. For example: the employees of a company, the members of a community or culture and in this case tourists from across the world (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). The authors lean towards an **objectivist ontological** approach, since one of the main objectives of this study is to generalise the nature of reality surrounding wanderlust and tourism consumer-decision making with the use of quantitative methods.

This objectivist approach may also explain the epistemological position of this study, in the following paragraph. Epistemology is concerned with what is and should be considered acceptable knowledge in the field of study. Moreover, a particularly important issue in this context is the question of whether the social world can and should be studied according to the same principles, procedures, and ethos as the natural sciences. The position that affirms the importance of imitating the natural sciences is associated with an epistemological position known as positivism (Bryman, 2012). Although each stance has its merits and demerits, in this thesis a **positivist approach** is adopted as the purpose of the study is to develop an observable social reality of wanderlust, where it comes from and how it is developed and how it can be used to derive specific law-like conclusions and generalisations about the population that is analysed. This method is used to approach the study from the eyes of a natural scientist and focus on developing hypotheses that can be tested by collecting credible and quantifiable data. This thesis aims to develop a general social reality regarding specific knowledge about where wanderlust comes from and how it is developed to affect consumer-decision making. Therefore, an

interpretivist approach is not adopted because it will hinder the authors from answering the research question, as it will consider individual realities of different social actors and not a general reality encompassing several social actors (Bryman, 2012; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 20009).

4.1.2. Research Approach

The next section of the research methodology is the choice of research approach. The study follows a deductive approach and that is line with the epistemological position of positivism. The research project is viewed from an objective standpoint, where hypotheses developed from existing academic literature were used to explain a possible causal relationship between certain variables. Secondly, to collect data that would be used to test the hypotheses, certain controls were employed to avoid biased data. A highly structured methodology was implemented where all survey scales and measures were adopted from existing quantitative literature to ensure reliability. Furthermore, existing scales also allowed for clear operationalisation of each variable in terms of what it means and measures. Finally, after collecting sufficient quantifiable data, it was analysed to confirm and reject the hypotheses and the results compared with the existing literature (Bryman, 2012; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012).
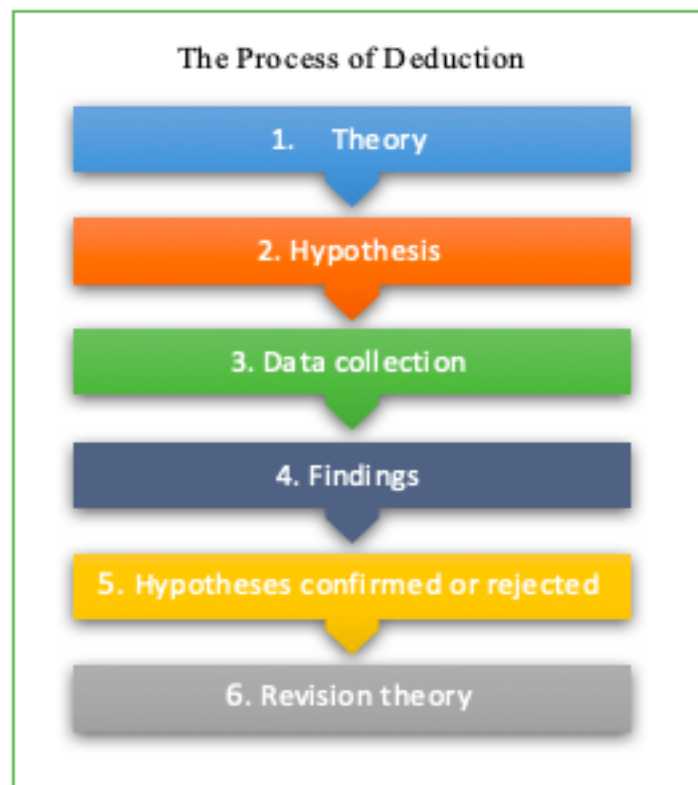

FIGURE 3: THE PROCESS OF DEDUCTION (SOURCE: BRYMAN, 2012)

4.1.3. Research Method & Strategies

As is evident from the research philosophy and approach, the purpose of this study is to conduct an descripto-explanatory research. Description is used as a precursor to explanation. It includes a clear profile of the 'phenomenon' or 'feeling' of wanderlust, along with several external and internal drivers that may significantly it. Furthermore, this phenomenon is explained by establishing causal relationships between certain variables (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012) that will allow the authors to precisely measure the nature of wanderlust, how it develops and how it affects consumer-decision making in regards to tourism. In the end, the findings are compared to existing literature to explain the results and draw final conclusions.

Concerning the next layers of the research question, the thesis project is a Mono-method quantitative study, which is used as a synonym for any data collection technique (such as a questionnaire) or data analysis procedure (such as graphs or statistics) that generates or uses numerical data. Furthermore, a quantitative survey strategy is applied to collect data. It is a popular method to collect a relatively large amount of data in an economical way. To collect the data, an online questionnaire was administered. It is also important to note that this study was cross-sectional, as time and resources were limited to be able to study the phenomenon over time (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). These methods have been chosen as they are most in tune with the chosen research philosophy and will eventually aid in answering the research question and meet the research objectives in a way that is both objective and economical.

4.2. Online questionnaire

Following the research method and strategy, the authors an online questionnaire on Qualtrics. It was a self-administered questionnaire that included 20 main questions and 12 of those had several sub-questions. The questionnaire was distributed using a hyperlink on several websites, as explained in detail below.

A self-administered questionnaire is not the only way to collect data using the survey strategy. Other methods may include a structure interview where all interviewees are asked the same questions (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). However, there many advantages to the questionnaire method that have led to this option. Firstly, the survey is standardized and asks every respondent the same questions and in the same order. Secondly, it was quick and cheap to administer and distribute,

especially since it was dispersed across the globe and it was possible to post it on multiple online platforms at minimal costs and at the same time. Moreover, there were no interviewer effects as the survey was posted online allowing respondents to answer the survey in an objective manner. Lastly, this is most convenient for respondents as they can answer the survey on their accord, whenever and wherever they want (Bryman, 2012).

In addition, this paper uses Evans and Mathur's (2005) take on the value of online surveys and why they are a great tool for data collection:

- Global reach – Since the clear majority of the population now uses the Internet, representative has increased and the Internet has become a valued tool for obtaining information at a low cost.

- Flexibility – Online surveys are flexible and can be distributed in a variety of formats. In this study, a hyperlink was distributed on various websites, social media platforms and groups forums.

- Speed and timeliness – Online surveys are fast & time-efficient and they minimize the time it takes to get the survey into the field and collect the data. It took about 2 weeks in total, to collect 225 useful and valid responses.

- Convenience – Online surveys are as convenient they can be and allows a respondent to answer the survey at their own convenience, when they want and where they want. They can even come back to it later if they are distracted by other responsibilities.

- Ease of data entry and analysis – It is very easy to use an online survey tool to administer a questionnaire, as inputting the data collected into an analysis software like SPSS is as easy it can be. Qualtrics allows for data to be directly transferred into an SPSS file, saving the researchers precious time and resources.

4.3. Questionnaire Structure

The survey was designed in Qualtrics and included 20 questions. The survey had 3 control questions at the beginning of the survey so that the respondents included in the final dataset are desirable. The first question was about Danish residency and was added solely to eliminate all Danish residents

(citizens and foreigners), as them answering questions about tourism to Denmark would be considered biased. This question had no other purpose than to simply eliminate all Danish residents. The next question was about citizenship, which was included to understand the diversity of the respondents and eliminate all Danish citizens for the same reason any Danish residents were eliminated. There was also an employed/unemployed question after citizenship to ensure only employed respondents are used in the final data sample, as some of the main variables (work satisfaction and work-life balance) need a reflection of the respondents' work life and unemployed people would make the answers to such variables invalid. Basically, all Danish residents and/or citizens and unemployed respondents were taken to the end of the survey without needing to answer any other questions, to save their time as they would be deemed invalid to be included in the final dataset (See Appendix 1).

Following that, the next 14 questions measured the main variables of the research model (See Figure 1). These questions were all taken from other existing scales developed by other researchers or were provided by other survey tools due to several reasons. Firstly, using existing scales ensured a higher chance of the variables having high internal reliability as the measurement qualities of these questions were already known. Secondly, using these existing questions allowed the authors to compare the findings more accurately with similar studies and add to the existing literature surrounding our research model (Bryman, 2012).

Finally, the last 3 questions were about ***gender, relationship status, and age*** respectively. Gender includes the regular *male or female options*, but an *'other' option* was also included to make sure people who don't identify with either gender also feel represented. The relationship status question was kept simple, with 3 choices, namely, *single, in a relationship and married/in a domestic partnership*. Lastly, the respondents' age was investigated by giving 150 options ranging from *1-150.*

These were demographic questions were added to the end of the survey, as they may be considered too personal by some respondents and discourage them from answering the survey if asked at the beginning. They are also off-topic and not central to the research model, so they are asked at the end after it is ensured all main questions are answered (DeFranzo, 2012).

Before discussing scale measurements, it is important to note all questions were close ended to avoid respondent fatigue and allow easy quantitative analysis of answers (Bryman, 2012). Furthermore, the authors employed a 5-point Likert scale for all the necessary questions to maintain the same standard. However, a 7-point scale was considered but was deemed too confusing and was ultimately not chosen to further reduce respondents' fatigue. The choices spanned from negative to positive and the middle choice was a neutral option to account for indifference to a certain statement. These scales were chosen from a template setting on Qualtrics and were applied in the same direction in each question to avoid confusion on part of the respondent (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009):

- Strongly disagree
- Somewhat disagree
- Neither agree or disagree
- Somewhat agree
- Strongly agree

4.4. Measures

This next part provides an explain on how each variable was operationalised to be administered in the online survey. The variables are in the same order as they appear in the research model (See Figure 1). Additionally, the entire questionnaire is also available in Appendix 1.

All measure/scale items follow the same positive or negative tone within its respective scale. This was done to avoid confusion on part of the respondent. Most scales/measures only include positive statements to ensure that respondents do not miss the negative words and choose an answer which is opposite to their intention or opinion. This was the case for all variables except Work-Life Balance, as the original scale measured Work-Life Conflict and the items were all negatively worded. So, the questions were kept the same because the language used was most appropriate and all statements followed the same tone. However, they were reverse coded during analysis as a high conflict would indicate low balance, and the aim is to measure work-life balance. Hence, a decision was made not to interfere with that. The ultimate aim was to keep the survey as clear and simple as possible (Bryman, 2012; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

4.4.1. External Drivers

Work Satisfaction

Work Satisfaction (WS) is a 5-item scale adapted from the Job Descriptive Index, which is a widely-used facet measure of job satisfaction and has undergone many revisions since its first publication in 1969 (Balzer, Smith, & Kravitz, 1990; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969; Stanton et al., 2002). It includes facets such as satisfaction with pay, co-workers, supervision, opportunities for promotion and the work itself. It is a popular measure with 5 sub-scales and includes 72 items. However, an abridged measure with 25 items was developed for ease of application because it was noted that job satisfaction may be used in combination with other variables in several different studies and a 72-item scale would be considered too complicated (Balzer, Smith, & Kravitz, 1990; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969; Stanton et al., 2002). However, for this study a 25-item scale consisting of 5 sub-scales was still considered too complicated and only the sub scale 'the work itself' was incorporated as 'Work Satisfaction'. The scale was developed from Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) and Balzer, Smith, and Kravitz (1990). The items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". The scale has 5 items that asks the respondents to disagree/agree "*if their work is fun, satisfying, interesting, challenging and gives them a sense of accomplishment*". As mentioned earlier, to avoid confusion, the original scale included negative words, 'dull' and 'uninteresting' which were changed to fun and interesting, respectively.

Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences

Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences (NI) consists of a 3-item scale and the item asks the respondents if "*they buy the same brand as someone they would like to emulate*", "*buy brands that others will approve of*", and "*whether they observe others to be sure to buy the right products*". These items were also measured on a 5-point Likert scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" and was taken from Josiassen and Assaf (2013).

Work-Life Balance

Work-Life Balance (WLB) consists of a 6-item scale that was adapted from Frone and Yardley (1996). It measures the degree to which the respondents work-life interferes with his/her family or home life. This scale measured work-life conflict, which can be considered the opposite of work-life balance. To rectify this, the scale items were reverse coded to get a proper measure for work-life balance. It was again measured on a 5-point Likert scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" and asked

respondents to reflect on how their work affects their life outside it. It included 6 statements which were, "*After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do*", "*On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests*", "*My family/friends dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am at home*", "*My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with family/friends*", "*My job or career interferes with my responsibilities at home such as yard work, cooking, cleaning, repairs, shopping, paying the bills or childcare*", and "*My job or career keeps me from spending the amount of time I would like to spend with my family*".

Social Media Exposure

Social Media Exposure/Hours (SMH) was a measure used to determine how much time respondents spend on social media sites such as Twitter, Facebook, Reddit, WhatsApp etc. Respondents were asked to estimate how much time they spend on social media every day for personal use. The questions provided 6 choices in the form of categories ranging going low-to-high, from "*less than 1 hour*", "*1-2 hours*", "*2-3 hours*", "*3-4 hours*", "*4-5 hours*", and "*over 5 hours*". This question was developed from Lin et al. (2016) and the categories were added to eliminate confusion and effort on part of the respondent as they may not be able to estimate an exact amount of time.

Education & Income

Although these two were a part of the main research model, they are considered demographic questions too and were formulated using template suggestions from Qualtrics and SurveyGizmo (Fryrear, 2016).

For *Education (EDU)*, the scales went from lowest education level to highest level of education, which included "*less than a high school degree*" all the way to "*professional degrees (JD, MD)*".

Income (INC) was measured in dollars, as it is a well-known currency. It went from low-to-high as well, ranging from "*less than $20,000*" to "*more than $100,000*". None of the categories were overlapping to avoid confusion as to which category of income is most appropriate. The categories did not go above $100,000 as the aim is not to particularly study an affluent part of the target population and the categories did not need to specifically cater to them. The categories chosen were well-inclusive that could include anybody from a student to an affluent person working a lucrative full-time job (Fryrear, 2016).

4.4.2. Internal Drivers

Romanticism

Romanticism (R) consists of a 7-item scale adapted from Holbrook and Olney (1995). It is developed from a 55-item Romanticism-Classicism index, where 28 items indicated romanticism and 27 indicated classicism. Since a 28-item scale was considered too large and time consuming for romanticism in the study, a mere 7 items were chosen that were most appropriate for this research project. The items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" and asked respondents to reflect on the following aspects of their personality: *"I think that life is an awesome mystery", "Uncertainty is exciting", "Intuition is a valuable tool", "The heart, not the brain, should be your guide", "In life, unpredictability is preferable to routine", "I prefer to live in a certain amount of chaos", and "New ideas are exciting".*

Escapism

Escapism (E) is a 5-item scale adapted from Figler, Weinstein, Sollers, and Devan (1992). Their study included 5 major travel motivation factors, where one of them was escapism and it was measured through 5 statements. All 5 of the statements were also included in this research project. The items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" and were modified to clarify that the items are in the context of travel. The respondents were asked to reflect on the following statements: *"I travel to get away from responsibility", "I travel so everything can be done for me", "I travel in order to live without being on a timetable", "I travel to experience a better climate", and "I travel to be able to act like a kid".*

Curiosity

Curiosity (C) is an 8-item scale adapted from Woo, Chernyshenko, Longley, Zhang, Chiu, and Stark (2013). In their work, it is developed from a 6-facet openness to experience scale and an abridged version contains 54-items in total, where 15-items belong to the facet of curiosity. However, 7 of those items were negatively worded and were not included in this study to avoid confusion and fatigue on part of the respondent. The scale was shortened to 8 positive items that were measured on a 5-point Likert scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". The respondents were asked to reflect on the following statements concerning curiosity: *"In a quiz, I like to know what the answers are if I get questions wrong", "I like to analyse things instead of taking them at face value", "I love to do*

experiments and see the results", "I continually strive to uncover information about topics that are new to me", "I try to learn something new every day", "When things go wrong I usually investigate to see what the problem is", "I have a constant desire to learn more", and "I don't think any amount of knowledge will satisfy my curiosity".

Self-Actualisation

Self-Actualisation (SA) is a 7-item scale adapted from Jones and Crandall (1986) and is developed from a 15-item index of self-actualisation. A complete 15-item scale was deemed too long for this study. So, 7 items were extracted, that were most appropriate for this study. The other 8 items were negatively worded and were not used to avoid respondent confusion and fatigue. The 7 positive items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" and included the following statements: "*I do not feel ashamed of any of my emotions", "I believe that people are essentially good and can be trusted", "I feel free to be angry at those I love", "I can like people without having to approve of them", "It is better to be yourself than to be popular, "I can express my feelings even when they may result in undesirable consequences", and "I am loved because I give love".*

4.4.3. Wanderlust

Wanderlust (W) consists of a 10-item scale taken from Shields (2011) and included statements that urged respondents to reflect on their feelings about travel motivation. The 10 statements in the scale were: "*I love to pursue new and different vacation experiences", "I get really excited waiting for my vacation", "I dream about going to exotic travel destinations", "I often reflect back on my past vacation experiences", "I generally return from a vacation feeling relaxed and happy", "I like telling people about the trips I'm planning on taking", "I am happiest when I'm on vacation", "I like to fantasize about vacation travel", "I expect to take a vacation trip at least once a year", and "Some of my best childhood memories are from vacations I took".* These items were also measured on a 5-point Likert scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree".

4.4.4. Tourists' Behavioural Intentions

Please note that the following 3 variables concern Denmark as a travel destination.

Word-of-Mouth about Denmark

Word-of-Mouth (WOM) is a 4-item scale taken from a tourism study by Kock, Josiassen, and Assaf (2016). It was originally adapted from a study by Arnett, German, and Hunt (2003) who used a 3-item scale for positive WOM. For this study, the 4-item scale by Kock, Josiassen, and Assaf (2016) is most appropriate as it measures WOM about a travel destination. It is measured on a 5-point Likert scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" and includes the following statements: *"I talk up [country] as a holiday destination, "I bring up [country] in a positive way in conversations about holiday destinations", "In social situations, I often speak favourably about [country] as a tourist destination", and "I recommend [country] as a tourist destination to other people when asked".*

Willingness-to-visit Denmark

Willingness-to-visit (WTV) is a 4-item scale taken from the same tourism study by Kock, Josiassen, and Assaf (2016). It was originally adapted from a consumer-behaviour study by Oberecker and Diamantopoulos (2011). However, for this research project, the WTV scale by Kock, Josiassen, and Assaf (2016) is most appropriate as it concerns consumer behaviour regarding tourism, which is also the aim of this project. It is measured on a 5-point Likert scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" and includes the following statements: *"I strongly intend to visit [country] in the future", "It is very likely that I would choose [country] as my tourist destination", "I would like to take a holiday in [country]", and "I plan to visit [country] as a tourist at some point in the future".*

Willingness-to-pay for a trip to Denmark

Willingness-to-pay (WTP) is a 4-item scale taken from the same tourism study by Kock, Josiassen, and Assaf (2016). It is measured on a 5-point Likert scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" and includes the following statements: *"I would continue to visit [country] even if the prices to go there were increased", "I would pay a higher price to visit [country] than to visit other countries", "I would be willing to spend more money for a holiday in [country] than for a similar holiday in most other countries", and "As a tourist, I would go to [country] even if it was more expensive than most other places".*

Variable	Code
1. Work Satisfaction	WS
2. Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences	NI
3. Work-life Balance	WLB
4. Social Media Exposure/Hours	SMH
5. Education	EDU
6. Income	INC
7. Romanticism	R
8. Escapism	E
9. Self-Actualisation	SA
10. Curiosity	C
11. Wanderlust	W
12. Word-of-Mouth	WOM
13. Willingness-to-visit	WTV
14. Willingness-to-Pay	WTP

Table 1: Variable codes (Source: Authors' own work)

These specific codes will be used throughout the thesis when necessary and are used as the dataset in SPSS also relates to the same variable codes.

4.5. Sampling

After all scales were operationalised and adapted from previous studies. The final questionnaire was distributed across various online platforms. However, before it was sent out across the world through various platforms, the questionnaire was put through a pilot study to pre-test the survey. The survey was distributed to few colleagues of the authors. The colleagues were not a part of the representative sample as they live in Denmark, so it did not affect the sample. The pre-test revealed a few grammatical errors that might have led to confusion on part of the respondent and gave an average estimate of how much time it takes to fill out the survey. Such tests may be deemed necessary for researchers to ensure proper flow of the survey in terms of language, instructions and length of the survey (Bryman, 2012). Although it was not included in the main questionnaire, a cover letter about the purpose of the study was always included as a message on the various social platforms where the survey was distributed.

As mentioned earlier, the target population is anybody who is employed and is a non-Danish resident and/or citizen, which basically means most of the world's population. However, it is not feasible to reach the entire target population and thus a sampling method must be employed to reach a representative target population. Due to restrictions on time and resources, a non-probability sampling method was employed, namely, the self-selection sampling method where the questionnaire hyperlink was posted on various online platforms and the participants of such platforms were urged to respond if they find the study interesting (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). This method brought in 535 responses, out of which 225 were considered valid and complete. Those final 225 responses were used in the final dataset to be analysed in SPSS.

The survey was first distributed on Amazon Mturk.com an online platform where researchers can pay small amounts of money to respondents to fill in their questionnaire. The Danish residency question was not added to this version of the questionnaire as it is possible to externally control the location of respondents on this website. A total of 282 responses were collected from Mturk, which were mostly from USA, India and some from the UK. However, most of these responses were not valid or credible, so other such online platforms were explored.

As it was no more economical to pay for responses, the other platforms considered were free. These included websites such as Surveytandem.com, Surveypolice.com, Poll-pool.com, Surveycircle.com, Surveyswap.com, Studentroom.co.uk. as well as, 2 Facebook and LinkedIn groups called The Dissertation Survey Exchange Group and The Research Survey Exchange Group. These were all platforms and groups where other researchers come to exchange surveys with one another. It was quite effective and economical, as these methods resulted in over 100 valid responses.

Finally, the questionnaire was also posted on social media platform appealing the authors' acquaintances to fill in the survey, if they find it interesting. These platforms included Facebook, LinkedIn and WeChat. It is important to note that these did not include the authors' close friends and family, as that would have been considered as biased data.

4.6. Statistical Methods

After data collection, all 535 responses collected were put in IBM SPSS, where 225 responses were considered complete, valid and credible. It is important to note that the dataset was a mix of different

types of scales. Firstly, Work Satisfaction, Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences, Work-Life Balance, Romanticism, Escapism, Self-Actualisation, Curiosity, Wanderlust, Word-of-Mouth, Willingness-to-Visit, and Willingness-to-Pay were all ordinal or ranked variables, where a 5-point Likert scale defined the answer choices, rising from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. Secondly, Social Media Exposure, Education and Income were numerical interval variables, with the same difference between each category. Age was a discrete variable with values ranging from 1-150. Lastly, Gender, Citizenship, Employment status, Relationship status and Danish residency status were all nominal variables that were used for descriptive statistics and assumed no ranks (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

Firstly, a Cronbach's alpha test was performed to test internal reliability or consistency of scale (Cortina, 1993; Gaur & Gaur, 2009; Hajjar, 2018) of the variables and any item with the lowest Item-Total correlation were deleted and the remaining were used to calculate an average to create a representative variable. A more detailed discussion is available in the results of this study below.

After the creating new variables, it was imperative to test certain assumptions before conducting linear regression analysis on the research model. The following tests for outliers, normality, multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity were performed to deem the data suitable for a regression analysis. The results from these tests SPSS are available in Appendix 4.

- Outliers – as all questions in the main research model had a limited set of choices, with each answer choice at an equal interval from the other, it was determined that there could be no significant outliers that would interfere with the quality of the statistical analysis.

- Normality – variables such as Social Media Exposure, Education, Income, Wanderlust, Work Satisfaction and Willingness-to-Visit are moderately skewed. But there are no major skewness issues. There seem to be no major kurtosis issues either.

- Multicollinearity – multicollinearity tests were performed between all external and internal drivers and the tests showed that in all cases the tolerance levels were always well above the threshold of 0.20 and the VIF was always well below the lower threshold of 5, indicating no issues with multicollinearity (Paul, 2019).

- Homoscedasticity – scatterplots between all independent and dependent variables showed that there is no significant heteroscedasticity between any relationship. All scatterplots showed that the data were scattered near the fit line, without forming any significant curves or deviations from the line.

After testing internal reliability, creating new variables and testing assumptions for linear regression, the research model was tested through a linear regression analysis. Linearity is described as the degree to which a change in the dependent variable is related to a change in one or more independent variables. (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Hence, a linear regression analysis will help answer two questions:

- Are the independent variable significant predictors of the outcome/dependent variables?
- If the independent variables are significant predictors of the outcome/dependent variables, then is that relationship positive or negative (indicated by the sign of the beta value)?

4.7. Reliability, Validity & Limitations

This last section of methodology provides a brief discussion on various forms of reliability and validity that have been considered in the study. Additionally, this part ends with an evaluation of limitations of the chosen methodology.

4.7.1. Reliability

Reliability is concerned with the question, whether the results of the study are repeatable, which means that the test reveals the same results if administered again. So, a researcher might be rightfully concerned whether the measures used in the study are stable and consistent, which means they all measure the same main concept. For example, all items of job satisfaction indicate and measure job satisfaction. It is an issue particularly relevant for quantitative research. Thus, in this thesis, it is concerned with the issue of internal reliability where the issue is if the indicators/items that make up a scale are consistent, in other words, whether the respondents' scores on any one indicator/item are related to scores on other indicators of the same scale (Bryman, 2012).

Cronbach's alpha test was used to test internal reliability. The coefficient calculated through this test shows the degree of internal consistency and communality of the items of a single measure, which in other words means it is a measure of internal reliability (Cortina, 1993; Hajjar, 2018). The alpha coefficient was calculated for all 11 of the multiple item measures in IBM SPSS. All measures were considered suitably internally consistent at a limit of $\alpha = 0.7$, where all alpha coefficients were between 0.70 and 1 (See Table 4 and Appendix 3). Except the measure for self-actualisation which had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.650. Since, an alpha coefficient will vary between 1 (perfect internal reliability) and 0 (no internal reliability), the measure for self-actualisation is not considered completely unreliable but is questionable. However, it was not deleted as different researchers may have different thresholds for this coefficient and 0.70 might be considered an arbitrary number (Bryman, 2012). However, it is important to acknowledge that this is a minor limitation.

There is also a detailed discussion on reliability studies in 5.2, where the same test is used to consider internal reliability of each measure. It used to create new representative variables out of the internally consistent items of the scale and delete all items that have low item-total correlation.

4.7.2. Validity

Validity is concerned with the issue that research measures what it intends to measure, or the findings represent the reality of the measured concept. So, there should be a strong relationship between the measure (in the questionnaire) of the concept and the real concept itself Bryman, 2012; Gaur & Gaur, 2009; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

There are 4 types of validity in question here:

- Content Validity – it refers to the extent to which the measurement variables or questions in a survey, provides appropriate coverage of the investigate questions or they reflect the intended domain of content. To showcase that a study has content validity, researchers should assess the entire domain of their study through an extensive literature review or through discussion with a panel of experts. (Gaur & Gaur, 2009; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). It is safe to assume that this study has content validity, as the questionnaire has been developed after a careful and extensive literature review, where measures were taken from similar

existing studies that researched similar content and that allowed for a relative comparison of this study with those other studies.

- Nomological Validity – Hagger, Gucciardi, and Chatzisarantis (2017) suggest that nomological validity is confirmed when all the relationships that comprise a model or network are supported in a single omnibus test of model. Basically, in such networks or research models each variable may act as an antecedent, consequent or both and each pathway or relation in the model must be defined precisely through theory. It is safe to assume that this study exhibits nomological validity, as the central concept of wanderlust lies in a complex research model/network. It acts as a consequent to certain relationships and a antecedent to certain relationships, where it affects both independent and dependent variables depending on the relationship, in question.

- Construct Validity – construct validity is to do with the issue whether a scale that is devised of a concept does measure or reflect the concept it is supposed to be denoting. It is based on the presumption that the scale is reliable (Bryman, 2012). All scales in this study are reliable and have been taken from previous studies that are in the same realm of concepts, studied in this project. Hence, it is safe to assume that the study also has construct validity.

- External Validity – it may refer to the concept that the results of a study are generalizable to other relevant contexts, basically beyond the research context in which it was conducted. These contexts can be other situations or even other people that belong to the target population (Bryman 2012; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Generalizability is a central issue concerning external validity, where the question is if the results of this study can be generalized for the rest of the population beyond the 225 respondents researched. However, with a non-probability sample like self-selection it is not possible to create a representative sample as the authors do not have control over sample contents. So, it is not possible to confirm generalisability of the population. But over 200 respondents is considered as credible for this level of research. It is also important to say that the respondents belong to a good mix of all genders, ages and countries. So, it could be a case for a follow-up study to test representativeness of this sample through probability sampling (Bryman, 2012; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

4.7.3. Limitations

There are a few limitations that come forth in the chosen methodology of the research project, which are worth acknowledging. Firstly, as a positivist, quantitative and deductive research approach is chosen, this thesis aims to derive a general reality of what wanderlust means and how it affects social actors. Basically, the aim is to make general law like conclusions from the study. However, in doing so it is ignored that people are fundamentally different and one person may have a different reality than the other. This means, that their behaviours and experiences will be different, so what affects those behaviours and experiences will also be different. This might be an interesting angle to consider for further study, where wanderlust is considered from a subjective and interpretivist angle. However, as has been discussed in detail earlier, a positivist, quantitative and deductive research approach has been deemed most appropriate, considering the objective of the study and the resources available (Bryman 2012; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

Secondly, as the chosen method of data collection was a self-administered online questionnaire, it is a limitation that distributing the survey online, only gives access to online population thus ignoring people who may not use the Internet. However, in this era, billions of people use the Internet daily, which means that there is enough people to create a credible sample of respondents from just the ones present online. Furthermore, there was no way to supervise the respondents and check if they understood all the questions properly and answered them after due deliberation. To combat this to a certain extent, the survey was formulated in easy lay-man's language and the instructions were kept short, simple and clear. So, the respondent doesn't have to read too much and can answer the survey with minimal effort (Bryman 2012; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

Moreover, the anonymity of respondents arises doubts of one person using multiple online identities to answer the same survey, but Qualtrics allows for an anonymous hyperlink to be used only once per ID address, ensuring that the same person or household, if necessary does not answer the survey repeatedly (Bryman 2012; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

Method	Choice of methodology based on the research onion by Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill (2012)
1. Research philosophy	Objectivist ontology & Positivist epistemology
2. Research Approach	Deductive approach
3. Research method/choice	Mono-method quantitative study (descripto-explanatory)
4. Research strategy	Survey strategy
5. Time Horizon	Cross-sectional design
6. Data collection	Self-administered online questionnaire
7. Data analysis	Cronbach's alpha & Simple Linear Regression
8. Reliability	Internal reliability - Cronbach's Alpha
9. Validity	Content, Nomological and External Validity

Table 2: Choice of Methodology (Source: Author's own work based on Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012)

5. RESULTS

This chapter provides an overview of the statistical findings of the study including a demographics review and Cronbach's alpha test results regarding internal reliability. The last section showcases the results of linear regression analysis, a method that was used to test the proposed hypotheses.

5.1. Demographics

This section deals with the personal profile of the respondent, also known as the sample characteristics or demographics. Demographics are characteristics of a population. Characteristics such as race, ethnicity, gender, age, education, profession, occupation, income level, and marital status, are all typical examples of demographics that are used in surveys. It is important to include questions regarding demographics when designing a survey, because it helps to assess who the respondents are and how to breakdown overall survey response data into meaningful groups of respondents (DeFranzo, 2012). Respondents in this study are asked to answer demographic questions about their age, citizenship, gender, employment status and lastly, their relationship status (See Appendix 2). The data for citizenship and employment was important to eliminate any Danish citizens and unemployed respondents from the data sample. The reason to do so was because, firstly, the study is about tourism consumer behaviour regarding Denmark, and including Danish citizens in such a study would amount to biased data and it would interfere with the validity and reliability of the data. Secondly, two different variables (work satisfaction and work-life balance) asked questions regarding an individual's work and including unemployed respondents again interferes with the reliability of the data sample. Furthermore, all Danish residents were also eliminated, as people living in Denmark would make for biased respondents, irrespective of their citizenship. An explanation as how to we eliminated Danish residents is also provided in the method section, however, it was a yes/no question and did not give detailed information about the population characteristics so the authors have chosen not to include it in the demographic section.

The following Table 3 gives an overview of the demographics of the data sample. Firstly, it is important to note that 35% of the respondents come from the United States of America, since some of these responses were collected from Mturk, an Amazon subsidiary, and it is most popular in the U.S. China and India come second at 16.4% of the responses, this is an outcome of convenience sampling and the survey was distributed on platforms on Chinese and Indian platforms, due to

familiarity and convenience. Some responses from India are also from Mturk as that is another country where the platform seems to be quite popular. It is also interesting to note that almost 61% of our respondents are female and only around 38% that are male. Furthermore, most of the respondent base are millennials and generation Z under the age of 29 at almost 60% and only around 11% middle aged people that are over 45. Since the survey was distributed only through online platforms, it makes sense as millennials and generation Z have the strongest presence on the Internet (OECD, 2017).

Profiles	Total (%)
Gender	*(n = 225)*
Male	38,7
Female	60,9
Other	0,4
Age	*(n = 225)*
Under 29	59,6
29 - 44	29,3
45 - 63	9,3
64 & over	1,8
Citizenship	*(n = 225)*
United States of America	35,1
China	16,4
India	16,4
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Islands	6,2
Canada	2,7
Germany	2,7
Switzerland	2,7
Netherlands	2,2
Belgium	1,8
France	1,3
Italy	1,3
Poland	1,3
Others (only 1 person per country)	9,9
Relationship Status	*(n=225)*
Single	40,9
In a relationship	30,2
Married or in a domestic partnership	28,9
Employment Status	*(n=225)*
Employed (full-time, part-time, internship, student job)	100

Table 3: Sample Characteristics (Source: Authors' own work)

40.9% of the respondents are single and about 30% in a relationship, with about 28% that are married or in a domestic partnership. This could be in line with the respondents' age, as most of them are younger than 29 and still considered young to be married or in domestic relationships. Finally, 100% of the respondents were employed. Demographics are necessary for the determination of whether the individuals in a study are a representative sample of the target population for generalisation purposes (Salkind, 2010). And the table below tells that the data sample is properly distributed across all categories such as age, gender, citizenship and relationship status. With a 100% representation from employed and non-Danish citizens, it is ensured that the data sample is accurately and generally representative of a larger target population.

5.2. Reliability Studies

Apart from the demographic questions, there were 14 other questions for the 14 main variables of this research model. Except Income, Education, and Social Media Exposure (hours on social media), 11 of them had several items that had to be combined into one item representing that variable. To do that the authors had to add all the respective items up and calculate an average, representing each variable.

However, to be able to do that, Cronbach's Alpha was calculated for each of the 11 variables to determine the internal reliability of their items. Cronbach's alpha is a measure of internal consistency, that is, how closely related a set of items are as a group. In other words, it is a measure of scale reliability or a coefficient of reliability (Cortina, 1993; Gaur & Gaur, 2009; Hajjar, 2018). To combine and average the items into one representative variable, it is important to know if the items are reliable and consistent and if not then particular items must be deleted to bring the alpha up to a desirable number. Any value of Cronbach's alpha greater than 0.7 ($\alpha > 0.7$) was reliable. The following were the results (also see Appendix 3).

Work Satisfaction

With 5 items the Cronbach's Alpha for Work Satisfaction was very high at 0.896 and no item had to be removed to bring up reliability or internal consistency.

Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences

With 3 items the Cronbach's Alpha for Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences was also very high at 0.865 and no item had to be removed to bring up reliability.

Work-Life Balance

With 6 items the Cronbach's Alpha for Work-Life Balance was also very high at 0.886 and no item had to be removed to bring up reliability.

Romanticism

With 7 items the Cronbach's Alpha for Romanticism was just right at 0.738 and no item had to be removed to bring up reliability.

Escapism

With 5 items the Cronbach's Alpha for Escapism was just under the limit at 0.699. Item-Total correlation was the lowest for item no. 4, at only 0.250 and it had to be deleted to bring up the reliability and get the Cronbach Alpha to be at an acceptable level of 0.720. So, with 4 items the coefficient for Escapism was at 0.720 and the scale items were considered internally consistent.

Self-Actualisation

With 7 items the Cronbach's Alpha Self-Actualisation was not acceptable at 0.628 and could not be considered internally reliable at this stage. So, in the first step, the 5th item, had the lowest Item-Total correlation of only 0.151 and was deleted and the coefficient was calculated again to 0.640. However, that was not sufficient either. Furthermore, item number 3, now had the lowest Item-Total correlation of 0.246 and was deleted to bring up the coefficient further to 0.646, which is still not at the acceptable limit of 0.7. In the 3rd step, the 4th item, with the now lowest Item-Total correlation of 0.265, was deleted to bring up the alpha to 0.650. This is the highest possible Cronbach alpha for Self-Actualisation (see Appendix 3). It is impossible to delete more items as it only brings down the reliability coefficient from 0.650, rather than increasing it. So, with 4 items, self-actualisation has a Cronbach Alpha of 0.650, 0.05 away from the acceptable limit. A decision was made to keep the variable as it is part of a bigger model and the limit 0.70 is arbitrary and not exact enough to consider deleting the entire variable.

Curiosity

With 8 items the Cronbach's Alpha for Curiosity was high at 0.807 and no item had to be removed to bring up reliability.

Wanderlust

With 10 items the Cronbach's Alpha for Wanderlust was at an acceptable 0.808 and no item had to be removed to bring up reliability.

Word-of-Mouth

With 4 items the Cronbach's Alpha for Word-of-Mouth was extremely high at 0.931 and no item had to be removed to bring up reliability.

Willingness-to-Visit

With 4 items the Cronbach's Alpha for Willingness-to-Visit was also extremely high at 0.914 and no item had to be removed to bring up reliability.

Willingness-to-Pay

With 4 items the Cronbach's Alpha for Willingness-to-Pay was also extremely high at 0.915 and no item had to be removed to bring up reliability.

After fixing the internal consistency of escapism and self-actualisation, all the internally reliable and consistent items were added for each of the 11 variables and an average was calculated to create the representative variable. The following Table 4 gives a summary of all the variables and their final Cronbach's Alpha after elimination of weak and inconsistent items.

Variable	Final Cronbach's Alpha
1. Work Satisfaction	0,896
2. Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences	0,865
3. Work-life Balance	0,886
4. Romanticism	0,738
5. Escapism	0,72
6. Self-Actualisation	0,65
7. Curiosity	0,807
8. Wanderlust	0,808
9. Word-of-Mouth	0,931
10. Willingness-to-visit	0,914
11. Willingness-to-Pay	0,915

Table 4: Final Cronbach's Alpha (Source: Authors' own work)

5.3. Statistical Findings

In this section, the results of the regression analysis are presented. It was performed on the dataset to test the hypotheses formulated above and determine the relationship between the respective constructs (See Appendix 5).

5.3.1. External Drivers – Wanderlust

H1a: Work satisfaction has a significant relationship with Wanderlust.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Work satisfaction and Wanderlust is insignificant, where $p>0.05$ and thus the null hypothesis is accepted and **H1a is rejected.**

H1b: Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences has a significant relationship with Wanderlust.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences and Wanderlust is insignificant, where $p>0.05$ and thus the null hypothesis is accepted and **H1b is rejected.**

H1c: Work-Life Balance has a significant relationship with Wanderlust.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Work-Life Balance and Wanderlust is insignificant, where p>0.05 and thus the null hypothesis is accepted and **H1c is rejected.**

H1d: Social Media Exposure has a significant relationship with Wanderlust.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Social Media Exposure and Wanderlust is insignificant, where p>0.05 and thus the null hypothesis is accepted and **H1d is rejected.**

H1e: Education has a significant relationship with Wanderlust

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Education and Wanderlust is insignificant, where p>0.05 and thus the null hypothesis is accepted and **H1e is rejected.**

H1f: Income has a significant relationship with Wanderlust.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Income and Wanderlust is insignificant, where p>0.05 and thus the null hypothesis is accepted and **H1f is rejected.**

5.3.2. External Drivers – Tourists' Behavioural Intentions (Denmark)

Word-of-Mouth

H2a: Work satisfaction has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Work satisfaction and Willingness to spread Word-of-Mouth recommendations about Denmark is insignificant, where p>0.05 and thus the null hypothesis is accepted and **H2a is rejected.**

H2b: Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences and Willingness to spread Word-of-Mouth recommendations about Denmark are statistically significant (p<0.01), so the null hypothesis is rejected and **H2b is accepted.**

Additionally, the two share a positive relationship, where β=0.215, which means that an increase in Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences is correlated to an increase in Willingness to spread Word-of-Mouth recommendations about Denmark.

H2c: Work-Life Balance has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Work-Life Balance and Willingness to spread Word-of-Mouth recommendations about Denmark is insignificant, where p>0.05 and thus the null hypothesis is accepted and **H2c is rejected.**

H2d: Social Media Exposure has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Social Media Exposure and Willingness to spread Word-of-Mouth recommendations about Denmark is insignificant, where p>0.05 and thus the null hypothesis is accepted and **H2d is rejected.**

H2e: Education has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Education and Willingness to spread Word-of-Mouth recommendations about Denmark are statistically significant (p<0.05), so the null hypothesis is rejected and **H2e is accepted.** Interestingly, the two share a negative relationship, where β=0.162, which means that an increase in levels of Education is correlated with an increase in Willingness to spread Word-of-Mouth recommendations about Denmark.

H2f: Income has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Income and Willingness to spread Word-of-Mouth recommendations about Denmark are statistically significant (p<0.05), so the null hypothesis is rejected and **H2f is accepted.** Additionally, the two variables share a positive relationship, where β=-0.108, which means that a decrease in Income is correlated to an increase in Willingness to spread Word-of-Mouth recommendations about Denmark, and vice-versa.

Willingness-to-Visit

H3a: Work satisfaction has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Work satisfaction and Willingness-to-Visit Denmark is insignificant, where p>0.05 and thus the null hypothesis is accepted and **H3a is rejected.**

H3b: Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences and Willingness-to-Visit Denmark is statistically significant (p<0.05) and thus the null hypothesis is rejected and **H3b is accepted.** Moreover, the two variables share a positive relationship, where β=0.119, which means that an increase in Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences is correlated to an increase in Willingness-to-Visit Denmark.

H3c: Work-Life Balance has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Work-Life Balance and Willingness-to-Visit Denmark is statistically significant (p<0.05) and thus the null hypothesis is rejected and **H3c is accepted.** Moreover, the two variables share a negative relationship, where β=-0.137, which means that an decrease in Work-Life Balance correlated to an increase in Willingness-to-Visit Denmark, and vice versa.

H3d: Social Media Exposure has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Social Media Exposure and Willingness-to-Visit Denmark is insignificant, where (p>0.05) and thus the null hypothesis is accepted and **H3d is rejected.**

H3e: Education has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Education and Willingness-to-Visit Denmark is statistically significant (p<0.05) and thus the null hypothesis is rejected and **H3e is accepted.** Moreover, the two variables share a positive relationship, where β=0.142, which means that an increase in levels of Education correlated to an increase in Willingness-to-Visit Denmark.

H3f: Income has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Income and Willingness-to-Visit Denmark is statistically significant (p<0.05). Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected and **H3f is accepted.** Moreover, the two variables share a negative relationship, where β=-0.096, which means that a decrease in Income is correlated with an increase in Willingness-to-Visit Denmark, and vice-versa.

Willingness-to-pay

H4a: Work satisfaction has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Work Satisfaction and Willingness-to-Pay for a trip to Denmark is insignificant, where p>0.05 and thus the null hypothesis is accepted and **H4a is rejected.**

H4b: Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences and Willingness-to-Visit Denmark is highly statistically significant (p<0.001) and thus the null hypothesis is rejected and **H4b is accepted.** Moreover, the two variables share a positive relationship, where β=0.333, which means that an increase in Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences is correlated with an increase in Willingness-to-Pay for a trip to Denmark.

H4c: Work-Life Balance has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Work-Life Balance and Willingness-to-Visit Denmark is highly statistically significant (p<0.05) and thus the null hypothesis is rejected and **H4c is accepted.** Moreover, the two variables share a negative relationship, where β=-0.146, which means that an decrease in Work-Life Balance is correlated with an increase in Willingness-to-Pay for a trip to Denmark, and vice-versa.

H4d: Social Media Exposure has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Social Media Exposure and Willingness-to-Pay for a trip to Denmark is insignificant, where p>0.05 and thus the null hypothesis is accepted and **H4d is rejected.**

H4e: Education has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Education and Willingness-to-Visit Denmark is statistically significant $p<0.01$ and thus the null hypothesis is rejected and **H4c is accepted.** Moreover, the two variables share a positive relationship, where β=0.169, which means that an increase in levels of Education is correlated with an increase in Willingness-to-Pay for a trip to Denmark.

H4f: Income has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Income and Willingness-to-Pay for a trip to Denmark is insignificant, where p>0.05 and thus the null hypothesis is accepted and **H4f is rejected.**

5.3.3. Internal Drivers – Wanderlust

H5a: Romanticism has a significant relationship with Wanderlust.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Romanticism and Wanderlust is highly statistically significant ($p<0.001$), so the null hypothesis is rejected and **H5a is accepted**. Furthermore, there is a positive relationship between the two variables, where β=0.306, which means that an increase in Romanticism was correlated with an increase in Wanderlust.

H5b: Escapism has a significant relationship with Wanderlust.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Escapism and Wanderlust is statistically insignificant ($p>0.05$), so the null hypothesis is accepted and **H5b is rejected.**

H5c: Self-Actualisation has a significant relationship with Wanderlust.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Self-Actualisation and Wanderlust is highly statistically significant ($p>0.05$), so the null hypothesis is accepted and **H5c is rejected.**

H5d: Curiosity has a significant relationship with Wanderlust.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Curiosity and Wanderlust is highly statistically significant (p>0.05), so the null hypothesis is accepted and **H5d is rejected.**

5.3.4. Internal Drivers – Tourists' Behavioural Intentions (Denmark)

Word-of-Mouth

H6a: Romanticism has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Romanticism and Willingness to spread Word-of-Mouth recommendations about Denmark is highly statistically significant (p<0.001), so the null hypothesis is rejected and **H6a is accepted.** Furthermore, the two variables share a positive relationship, where β=0.672, and which means that an increase in Romanticism is correlated with an increase in Willingness to spread Word-of-Mouth recommendations about Denmark.

H6b: Escapism has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Escapism and Willingness to spread Word-of-Mouth recommendations about Denmark is statistically insignificant (p>0.50), so the null hypothesis is accepted and **H6b is rejected.**

H6c: Self-Actualisation has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Self-Actualisation and Willingness to spread Word-of-Mouth recommendations about Denmark is statistically insignificant (p>0.50), so the null hypothesis is accepted and **H6c is rejected.**

H6d: Curiosity has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Curiosity and Willingness to spread Word-of-Mouth recommendations about Denmark is statistically insignificant (p>0.50), so the null hypothesis is accepted and **H6d is rejected.**

Willingness-to-Visit

H7a: Romanticism has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Romanticism and Willingness-to-Visit Denmark is highly statistically significant ($p < 0.001$), so the null hypothesis is rejected and **H7a is accepted.** Furthermore, the two variables share a positive relationship, where $\beta = 0.588$, and which means that an increase in Romanticism is correlated with an increase in Willingness-to-Visit Denmark.

H7b: Escapism has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Escapism and Willingness-to-Visit Denmark is statistically insignificant ($p > 0.05$), so the null hypothesis is accepted and **H7b is rejected.**

H7c: Self-Actualisation has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Self-Actualisation and Willingness-to-Visit Denmark is statistically insignificant ($p > 0.05$), so the null hypothesis is accepted and **H7c is rejected.**

H7d: Curiosity has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Curiosity and Willingness-to-Visit Denmark is statistically insignificant ($p > 0.05$), so the null hypothesis is accepted and **H7d is rejected.**

Willingness-to-Pay

H8a: Romanticism has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Romanticism and Willingness-to-Pay for a trip to Denmark is highly statistically significant ($p < 0.001$), so the null hypothesis is rejected and **H8a is accepted.** Furthermore, the two variables share a positive relationship, where $\beta = 0.515$, and which means that an increase in Romanticism is correlated with an increase in Willingness-to-Pay for a trip to Denmark.

H8b: Escapism has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Escapism and Willingness-to-Pay for a trip to Denmark is statistically significant (p<0.05), so the null hypothesis is rejected and **H8b is accepted.** Furthermore, the two variables share a positive relationship, where β=0.205, and which means that an increase in Escapism is correlated with an increase in Willingness-to-Pay for a trip to Denmark.

H8c: Self-Actualisation has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Self-Actualisation and Willingness-to-Pay for a trip to Denmark is statistically insignificant (p>0.05), so the null hypothesis is accepted and **H8c is rejected.**

H8d: Curiosity has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed that the relationship between Curiosity and Willingness-to-Pay for a trip to Denmark is statistically insignificant (p>0.05), so the null hypothesis is accepted and **H8d is rejected.**

5.3.5. Wanderlust – Tourists' Behavioural Intentions (Denmark)

H9A: Wanderlust has a significant relationship with Word-of-Mouth.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed the relationship between Wanderlust and Willingness to spread Word-of-Mouth recommendations about Denmark is statistically significant (p<0.01). This means the null hypothesis is rejected and **H9A is accepted.** Moreover, there is a positive relationship between the two variables, where β=0.429, which means that an increase in Wanderlust is correlated to an increase in Word-of-Mouth recommendations about Denmark.

H9B: Wanderlust has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Visit.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed the relationship between Wanderlust and Willingness to spread Willingness-to-visit Denmark is highly statistically significant (p<0.001). This means the null hypothesis is rejected and **H9B is accepted**. Moreover, there is a positive relationship between the two variables, where β=0.526, which means that an increase in Wanderlust is correlated to an increase in Willingness-to-Visit Denmark.

H9C: Wanderlust has a significant relationship with Willingness-to-Pay.

The regression analysis on SPSS revealed the relationship between Wanderlust and Willingness-to-Pay for a trip to Denmark is statistically significant ($p<0.01$). This means the null hypothesis is rejected and **H9C is accepted**. Moreover, there is a positive relationship between the two variables, where β=0.327, which means that an increase in Wanderlust is correlated to an increase in Willingness-to-Pay for a trip to Denmark.

The major takeaway from the statistical findings that lead us to an answer to the research question is between Romanticism, Wanderlust, and Tourists' Behavioural Intentions to Denmark. Where, romanticism shares a highly significant and positive relationship with Wanderlust and Tourists' Behavioural Intentions, while Wanderlust shares the same relationship with Tourists' Behavioural Intentions. So, it could be assumed that Romanticism in an individual gives rise to Wanderlust and thus Romanticism directly and indirectly though Wanderlust positively and significantly affects travel behaviour to Denmark. The results will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter -- Discussion.
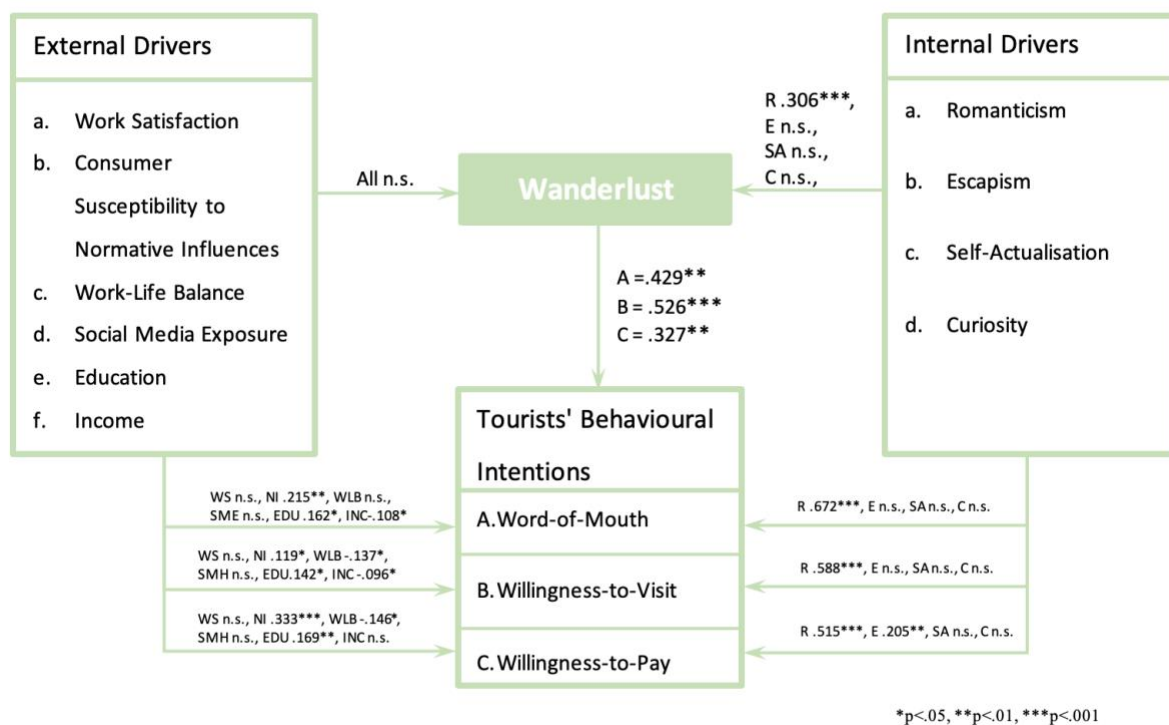
FIGURE 4. WANDERLUST FRAMEWORK – REGRESSION ANALYSIS (SOURCE: AUTHORS' OWN WORK)

Hypothesis	Result
H1: External Drivers - Wanderlust	
H1a: WS - W	n.s.
H1b: NI - W	n.s.
H1c: WLB - W	n.s.
H1d: SMH - W	n.s.
H1e: EDU - W	n.s.
H1f: INC - W	n.s.
H2: External Drivers - Word-of-Mouth	
H2a: WS - WOM	n.s.
H2b: NI - WOM	.215**
H2c: WLB - WOM	n.s.
H2d: SMH - WOM	n.s.
H2e: EDU - WOM	.162*
H2f: INC -WOM	-.108*
H3: External Drivers - Willingness-to-Visit	
H3a: WS - WTV	n.s.
H3b: NI - WTV	.119*
H3c: WLB - WTV	-.137*
H3d: SMH - WTV	n.s.
H3e: EDU - WTV	.142*
H3f: INC - WTV	-.096*
H4: External Drivers - Willingness-to-Pay	
H4a: WS - WTP	n.s.
H4b: NI - WTP	.333***
H4c: WLB - WTP	-.146*
H4d: SMH - WTP	n.s.
H4e: EDU - WTP	.169**
H4f: INC - WTP	n.s.
H5: Internal Drivers - Wanderlust	
H5a: R – W	.306***
H5b: E - W	n.s.
H5c: SA - W	n.s.
H5d: C – W	n.s.
H6: Internal Drivers - Word-of-Mouth	
H6a: R - WOM	.672***
H6b: E - WOM	n.s.
H6c: SA - WOM	n.s.
H6d: C - WOM	n.s.
H7: Internal Drivers - Willingness-to-Visit	
H7a: R - WTV	.588***
H7b: E - WTV	n.s.
H7c: SA - WTV	n.s.
H7d: C - WTV	n.s.
H8: Internal Drivers - Willingness-to-Pay	
H8a: R - WTP	.515***
H8b: E - WTP	.205*
H8c: SA - WTP	n.s.
H8d: C - WTP	n.s.
H9: Wanderlust - Tourists' Behavioural Intentions	
H9a: W - WOM	.429***
H9b: W - WTV	.526***
H9c: W - WTP	.327**

Table 5: Hypothesis testing – Linear Regression Analysis (Source: Authors' own work)

6. DISCUSSION

This paper explored Denmark's potential as a pilgrim destination or a gathering point for people who have wanderlust, where the starting point was Copenhagen being chosen as the No.1 city in the world to visit in 2019 by Lonely Planet (Lonely Planet, 2018). After thorough exploration of the academic literature, a conceptual framework (see Figure 1) was developed to showcase a clear structure of the research directions that would lead to answering the research question(s). There are four major dimensions in this model: external drivers, internal drivers, wanderlust as the central concept, and tourists' behavioural intentions. Measurement scales for each factor were derived from previous academic literature and online survey was the chosen research method for this thesis. To analyse the framework, 43 hypotheses were proposed and tested. In the findings, some hypotheses are accepted and where some variables were found to have a positive or negative relationship while some are rejected (see Table 5).

Thus, in this part of the thesis, the most significant findings will be discussed in comparison with existing theoretical views, with the aim of answering the main research:

"How can Wanderlust contribute to the boom of Denmark's tourism industry?"

Wanderlust, and Tourists' Behavioural Intentions

To begin with, wanderlust had a positive and significant influence on all three tourists behavioural intentions. According to, Ford's (1966) definition, 'traveller' is very distinctive from 'tourist', since travellers willingly enjoy planning and arranging trips, and want to travel independently. This might be unlike a tourist who purchases holiday package or service from travel agents. So, wanderers (people who have wanderlust) should also be identified as a type of traveller due to their want for independence and other similar features (Cohen, 1972; Vogt, 1976). However, the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 2008, p. 1) gives a specific definition of tourism, as "a social, cultural and economic phenomenon which entails the movement of people to countries or places outside their usual environment for personal or business/professional purposes", and visitor (UNWTO, 2008, p. 4), as "a traveller taking a trip to a main destination outside his/her usual environment, for less than a year, for any main purpose (business, leisure or other personal purpose) other than to be employed by a resident entity in the country or place visited… a visitor is classified as a tourist…". Based on these definitions, a wanderer is not necessarily a tourist since they can travel for more than one year

and be employed by the local (e.g. working holiday travellers, or lifestyle travellers studied by Cohen, 2010a & 2010b). However, wanderers do contribute to tourism expenditure since they participate in tourism activities. (UNWTO, 2008). Therefore, wanderers can be assumed to share some tourists' behavioural intentions such as word-of-mouth, willingness-to-visit, and willingness-to-pay, as mentioned in Kock, Josiassen, and Assaf (2016). In the findings of this study, it is found that wanderlust has a positive and highly significant statistical relationship with the three tourists' behavioural intentions. This finding suggests that, even though wanderlust, is a trait that belongs to a distinguished group of people, they still share some similar features with tourists. It indicates that theories and studies about tourism and travel might also be applied in further research about wanderlust, although studies and research directly related to wanderlust are far from sufficient. Besides, it provides suggestions for Denmark tourism marketers that wanderer is a possible potential target group to attract and promote more consumers. Wanderers might be considered as travellers with a small budget such as backpackers and independent travellers, and consequently, they might not be considered as a lucrative target group. However, they are willing to pay for travel products and services in Denmark since their willingness to pay is shown positively related to their wanderlust. This might be a surprising message to stakeholders involved in Denmark's tourism industries. It is a reminder, that however small, this potential customer is also profitable since wanderers are willing to pay for the charm, uniqueness, and attractiveness of Denmark. Meanwhile, a positive WOM and WTV, indicate they are not only willing to visit Denmark, but also want to share their ideas travel experience in Denmark. This holds good potential to enhance the destination image of Denmark as a country for wanderlust. Since Lonely Planet has already labelled Copenhagen as the top one city worth visiting in 2019, and the primary target audience of Lonely Planet is independent travellers experiencing wanderlust (Bhuman, 2009; Weiss, 2017), Denmark will be recognised and remembered by wanderers as their dream destination that can trigger their wanderlust and motivate them to travel there. Thus, due to the congruency effect of self-image and destination image (Sirgy & Su, 2000; Stepchenkova & Zhan, 2013), Denmark's destination image as a wanderer pilgrim place and gathering point will be further enhanced and widely propagated.

Work satisfaction, Wanderlust, and Tourists' Behavioural Intentions

Moving to the external drivers, there is no significant relationship found between work satisfaction and wanderlust. This is not a surprising result as mentioned before that higher job satisfaction may increase worker productivity and reduce absenteeism (Clark, 1997; Raziq & Maulabakhsh, 2015),

which leads to less personal time spending on travel. Also, if one's wanderlust is restless and unconcealed, their commitment to their employer and organisation will be doubted and untrusted (Desforges, 2000). In order to avoid that, individual's desire to travel would be subdued even to zero. However, Desforges's (2000) research is qualitative which may have bias and limitations and Sara's case is not a consensus. Furthermore, job satisfaction is a broad concept and work is only one facet of it, and other aspects such as pay, promotion, supervision, and coworkers (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969; Balzer, Smith & Kravitz. 1990; Stanton et al., 2002) might be what affects wanderlust instead of work itself. Those items have not been considered by this paper. Therefore, it requires further research to a deeper investigation.

As for the work satisfaction and three tourists' behavioural intentions, there are barely former attention or research on it. The test result also suggests there is no significant relationship between them. In the future research, maybe more respondents should be involved and the focus should be put on a wider range of job satisfaction rather than only on the work itself (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969; Balzer, Smith & Kravitz. 1990; Stanton et al., 2002)

Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences, Wanderlust, and Tourists' Behavioural Intentions

Susceptibility to normative influences indicates that individuals tend to get influenced by people around them such as family, friends, colleagues, and the online and offline communities they interact with. Often, their behaviours showcase the influence they accepted (Bearden, Netemeyer, & Teel, 1989). For example, Currie, Wesley, and Sutherland (2007) find that students travel decision-making would be inspired or motivated by their peers. Peer is a person who has similar demographic such as age, background, and social status, as well equal capabilities (Vineeth, 2017). Sometimes, they might not be familiar or closely related like family members, classmates, or colleagues, but one would still weight their opinions and advice much more than authorities. As Gretzel and Yoo (2008) revealed in their study, online peer reviews are more preferred over expert reviews or editorial recommendations. That is no longer a secret in tourism industries and it is why those platform and social media mainly rely on user-generated content. They are popular and valued, since people's travel desire and travel decision making are likely to receive impacts from these channels and methods.

What is worthy to be noticed is that this concept or tendency is widely adopted not only by travel agents and destinations, but also travellers or travel bloggers themselves. They are generally recognised as our peers but their expertise knowledge and experiences on certain things make them the key opinion leader in online communities. Yet their high esteem is held by people who trust and accept their opinions (Pan, MacLaurin, & Crotts, 2007). According to Kelman's (1958 & 1961) social influence theory, before they become key opinion leaders, their behaviours would be induced in order to receive favourable reactions from certain people in communities. In this case, these induced behaviours could be loving travel and travelling frequently. Therefore, a significant relationship between susceptibility to normative influences and wanderlust is suggested to be tested. However, the result shows no significance, which lead us to consider once again about the differences between wanderer and common traveller. Wanderers are independent, they seek novelty, adventure, and the unknown rather than ordinary places (Boksberger & Laesser, 2009; Gray, 1970; Hyde & Lawson, 2003; Kulendran & Wilson, 2000; Mansfeld, 1992; Plog, 1973; Plog, 1991; You, O'leary, Morrison, & Hong, 2000). Therefore, expertise and knowledge might not be necessary for them so that they are not likely to get influence from peers or online/offline communities. What is more, the items of susceptibility to normative influences chosen in the survey is mainly focusing on its impact on people's purchasing behaviours. However, to wanders, a journey is not a product they paid money for. It is a personalised experience costing mainly time, energy, and emotions. Concerning that, wanderer is not likely to see travel as a product or make travel decisions based on other person's subjective opinions. At least, people who are easily influenced or frequently seek advice from others might not be wanderers. Vagabondage is regarded as an important element of wanderlust (Babbitt, 1991; Gish, 1964) and it constitutes uncertainty or purposeless roaming and that is rarely depending on or relevant to others. Meanwhile, this, one again, manifests the distinctness between wanderer and tourist.

Basically, it is examined that respondents who are high on susceptibility to normative influences might not have wanderlust. However, the regression test results illustrate a positive and significant relationship that susceptibility to normative influence has with each of the three tourists' behavioural intentions. Previous literature has noticed this possible relationship (Currie, Wesley, and Sutherland, 2008; Josiassen & Assaf, 2012; Sparks, 2007) and this research study has provided a further evidence for it. Thus, it suggests that even though they do not have wanderlust, people with high susceptibility to normative influences, are still another tourist profile worth to target and attract. And this finding

can be applied into life practice by Denmark's tourism marketers as a new strategy for tourism improvement and promotion.

Work-Life Balance, Wanderlust, and Tourists' Behavioural Intentions

Work-life balance suggests individuals to find a middle ground between work and personal time so that they can avoid drowning in either one of them. Travel, at the same time, has also been suggested as an effective way for people to get away from daily routine and relax. Researchers have discovered that a relaxing and voluntary vacation contributes to a better work performance (Etzion, 2003; Fritz & Sonnentag, 2006; Westman & Etzion, 2001). Therefore, it is assumed that travel helps to release individual's pressure in daily life so that they can stay in a good state and be more capable to maintain the balance between work and life. However, the findings do not support that notion since there is no significant relationship between work-life balance and wanderlust. The reason may be that previous studies (Etzion, 2003; Fritz & Sonnentag, 2006; Westman & Etzion, 2001) mainly demonstrated how travel can be a short-term relief for people to take a break from work and therefore, work better. But it only indicates that travel has positive impact on work performance. If travel is a solution for poor work-life balance remains quest, uncovered. Besides, work is often considered as the overwhelming part (e.g. Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Deery, 2008; Fleetwood, 2007), and an exhausting personal life or non-work life is given less concern. For example, one have too much free time and eager to dedicate oneself to work but there is no such work opportunity available for them currently. Under this circumstance, the desire to travel is not assumed, as high as their desire to find a proper job. That is, when good work-life balance is maintained, travel is usually not a strong desire but only a delightful break; when poor work-life balance occurs, travel is not regarded as an option, as there is no time for it. It is like virtuous circle versus vicious circle. Neither of them tend to trigger a strong desire to travel.

Even though work-life balance is not found significantly related to word-of-mouth, it is significantly and negatively related to willingness to visit and willingness to pay. The findings specifically illustrate that individuals with lower work balance are more willing to visit Denmark and willing to pay for travels to Denmark, it means no matter what, people who want a break from stressful work or an exhausting life, Denmark could be an ideal destination to relax and recharge. That would enrich the potential tourist profile features for Denmark as well, where Denmark can be advertised as a relaxed and stress-free environment for a traveller.

Social Media, Wanderlust, and Tourists' Behavioural Intentions

Social media has become harder and harder to avoid. The Internet is almost indispensable for modern individuals, and there are people influencing others on there (Fastenau, 2018), as well as people getting influenced on there (Arnold, 2017). Certainly, tourism can immensely benefit from such exchange of information and influence which comes with it (Miguéns, Baggio, & Costa, 2008) This is so because a vast amount of travel marketing and advertising are mostly dependent on social media. Various social platforms have either specialised or integrated functions which provide opportunities for tourism marketers to target their ideal audience or discover their potential customers more easily and more accurately. For example, people who follow "@govisitdenmark" on Instagram would get notification of its new post and check the information directly. And if a travel agent aims to advertise and promote their campaign or products of Denmark, the followers of "@govisitdenmark" on Instagram would be their ideal target group. Babaei, Grabowicz, Valera, Gummadi, and Gomez-Rodriguez (2016) highlight in their study, social media sites are like information marketplaces, where information is what people produce and consume. Individuals are free to choose their information channels and types. And thus, they determine the content and the speed of the information they select, receive, and get influenced by.

In the survey, social media exposure was mainly investigated, through the time spent on social media for personal use. And the findings show no significant relationship between social media with wanderlust, word-of-mouth, willingness to visit, or willingness to pay. These findings are not agreed by previous literature, research, and studies. In retrospect, the authors believe the original scale measuring social media's influence in the survey is neither complete nor adequate. Attentions are supposed to be put on the types of social media that people choose and the activities people participate in on social media. Following that, the relationships that social media has with wanderlust and three tourists' behavioural intentions might have a sharper outline. Hereby, it is advised that research in the future should avoid similar problems encountered in this paper and provide a deeper insight and understanding among these factors in tourism sectors.

Education, Wanderlust, and Tourists' Behavioural Intentions

Normally speaking, education takes up quite a good deal of one's time, hence, its influence on people's psychological growth and development is inconceivable. Similarly, it is popularly believed that travel broadens perspectives, experience, and minds (Inkson & Myers, 2003; Sikes, 2006; Roberson Jr, 2003). Additionally, Neumann (1992) adds that people attach meaning and significance to their journeys as they find out how to integrate culture and identities along the way. Maybe that is why the educational benefits of travel experience are revealed and benefits such as personal growth, life skills and knowledge are especially acquired from independent international travel and "objectiveless" travel (Stone & Petrick, 2013). And independent and objectiveless are both features of a wanderer (Babbitt, 1991; Boksberger & Laesser, 2009; Gish, 1964; Gray, 1970; Hyde & Lawson, 2003; Kulendran & Wilson, 2000; Mansfeld, 1992; Plog, 1973, 1991; You, O'leary, Morrison, & Hong, 2000). Moreover, a highly educated person is more open-minded, can think critically and is open to new challenges. (ShareAmerica, 2011). Pertaining to this, is the very definition of education where society has built schools, colleges and university to keep cultural heritage alive and pass on knowledge and value to the new generation (Eurostat). So, the assumption is that a highly educated group of people would understand the educational benefits of travelling and would consider it a part of their formal growth and progress. Therefore, a significant relationship between education and wanderlust is proposed and tested. However, the hypothesis is rejected. It could be reasonable since higher education consumes money and time which might not be affordable for everyone. But travel modes are various, which allows either small or large budgets. Even if taking the price of education out of consideration as it can be free in some regions, it is still not a necessary option for everyone. Since the educational benefits of travel experiences have been studied and agreed by many scholars (Stone & Petrick, 2013), and even dating back to 18th century, where travel was regarded as an indispensable form of education for the upper class (Dent, 1975), the demand and recognised value of travel have been enhanced and intensified. Further, Boles (2012) proposes 5 reasons to explain why college should be replaced with travel. In his opinion, independent travel contributes to boost of sense of autonomy, self-knowledge, self-motivation, self-management, and finally, the fulfilment of travel dreams that is usually hard to be realised. This is a sign that travel is valued, even if not more, at least equally to formal education. Thus, to wanderers, their wanderlust should hardly be concerned with education, and they can be acquired equally and not in relation to the other.

Very different from its relationship with wanderlust, education is significantly and positively related to three tourists' behavioural intentions. Božić and Jovanovic (2017) have identified the word-of-mouth behaviour is mainly caused by the need for social recognition and prestige. And that is a need regardless of individual's education level. The research carried out in this paper is particularly based on Denmark and has examined that the higher education one received, the more willingly one spread favourable words Denmark as a travel destination. Also, with a higher education, their willingness to visit Denmark and pay for travel products and service in Denmark is higher too. These findings, hopefully, will offer new perspectives and directions for Denmark's tourism marketers to enrich their tourist profile as well as to target more accurately in the future.

Income, Wanderlust, and Tourists' Behavioural Intentions

There is no significance of the relationship found between income and wanderlust. Although Kattiyapornpong and Miller (2006) discover a tendency that people with higher household income travel more, however, Zegras and Srinivasan (2006) argue that not much differences appear comparing different income levels when the purpose of travel is about recreation. Also, wandering as a unique travel mode is accessible to anyone no matter how small their budget is since it is a self-tailored journey. Therefore, whether people experiencing wanderlust or not is not likely affected by their income. And the result match previous literature and studies.

With regard to the three tourists behavioural intentions, it shows in the results that income has a negatively significant relationship with word-of-mouth. This can be explained as rich people sense no need to show off their vacations, while to the lower and middle classes, when unusual opportunities occur, such as being upgraded to the first class in a flight or staying in a luxury hotel they normally cannot afford, they see it to gain social recognition and even prestige. In fact, it matches the social influence theory, as individual acquire induced behaviours for favourable reactions from significant others (Kelman, 1958; Kelman, 1961). As for the significant relationship between income and willingness to visit, higher income increase one's ability to afford more trips or a more expensive trip, so it makes sense that the significance is positive. What is more, it is quite interesting that household income is regarded as an indication of the goods and services families can purchase on the market (OECD, 2016), yet the finding shows that respondents' willingness to pay is not likely to be impacted by their income. That is, in this case, individuals with a higher income are not seemed to pay more for travel in Denmark. One possible reason is, no matter how marketers want to make more profit

based on the price discrimination theory (Varian, 1989), regardless the amount of a person's income, individuals tend to pay a fair price for a certain good or service, especially when they are aware of the common price in the general market. For example, to put it very simple, if a normal egg is only worth 1dkk and it is not in short supply, no one would willing to pay more for it. Otherwise, it is their loss. Above all, this is also a quite new perspective for Denmark's tourism marketer to apply in practice.

Romanticism, Wanderlust, and Tourists' Behavioural Intentions

Romanticism is recognised as an internal driver that was proposed to have a significant relationship with wanderlust. Dating back to its origin, wanderlust is originally a German word. It was propagated and heightened especially in the era of German Romanticism in 18th century and carried forward from then on (Gish, 1964). Speaking of Romanticism or Romantics, people's attention are usually drawn towards painters, writers, poets, philosophers, and their works. What have been neglected are the importance of their journeys and their restless yearn for travel and search wanderlust. These are the inspirations of their creation and expression. Gish (1964) is one of the very rare scholars that discussed wandering and wanderlust within the scope of romanticism. His work is a strong evidence to prove that wanderlust is deeply rooted in romanticism while romanticism has shaped the essential elements and key features of wanderlust. It is even reasonable to say, without the impact of romanticism, wanderer is barely different from a tourist. After testing the collected data, the research result also supports a highly significant relationship between romanticism and wanderlust. Furthermore, this relationship is positive. This is in agreement with Pirsig's (1974) interpretation, which indicates that an individual in the romantic mode has strong wanderlust while individual in the classic mode has weak wanderlust. Although there are only few studies that have been conducted in this field, the research results of this study are consistent with existing literature. It lays solid foundation and states a clear purpose for further research in the relationship between romanticism and wanderlust. Moreover, it points out the relationship between intrinsic romantic personality and aspiration of wanderers, which is also interesting to lucubrate and exploit further.

Due to the intimacy of romanticism and wanderlust, it makes sense that romanticism is also positively and significantly related to the three tourists' behavioural intentions. As a matter of fact, positive impact of romanticism on WOM can be found from the eulogising by poets, writers, and artists to their travel experience as well as the never unsatisfied desire to travel (Gish, 1964). Without it,

wanderlust would not have been explored and encouraged during the German Romanticism. Besides, since this paper has chosen Denmark as the focused travel destination, findings indicate that individual in the romantic mode will gladly visit and spend on a trip to Denmark. Certainly, they would speak favourably about Denmark and recommend it as a tourist destination within their social networks. This, again, proposes a new idea for tourism advertising of Denmark as well as a new direction to reach potential customers.

Escapism, Wanderlust, and Tourists' Behavioural Intentions

Travel is commonly regarded as an exit of problems and responsibilities in daily life and it has been studied as a push factor in travel motivations (e.g. Crompton, 1979; Hanai, 2016; Kim, Lee, & Klenosky, 2003; You, O'leary, Morrison, & Hong, 2000). During a travel journey which usually does not occur in one's hometown or familiar area, individuals have the chance to get rid of their daily identity and play a new favourite role (Seaton, 2002; Smith, 2003). Moreover, cited in Richards and Wilson's (2004) article, Krippendorf (1987) even believes that wandering and roaming are the idealised form of travel because it helps to break social constrains and comes along with a sense of freedom. Following that description, this escapist travel can be romanticised. Therefore, the assumed relationship between escapism and wanderlust are supposed to be significant and even positive, like escapism tend to arouse the desire to travel in a wandering or even romantic mode. However, the hypothesis is rejected as no significance was found in this study. This leads us to go back and rethink escapism as a travel motivation. As many discussing these main travel motivations (e.g. Crompton, 1979; Figler, Weinstein, Sollers, & Devan, 1992; Gary, 1970; Mansfeld, 1992), it might be less emphasized that travel motivations are multidimensional and changeable according to specific contexts (Crompton, 1979; Goeldner & Ritchie, 2007). In other words, escapism might be one of the reasons for people to travel, but at the same time, there are also other needs and desires involved. Scholars such as Season (2002) and Smith (2003) argue that escapism as role-playing in the unknown is a just temporary solution, and if the self is not accepted everything (e.g. stress, worries, and responsibilities) would stay the same after return back home. Escapism is a common need that everyone desires and compared with Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Pike, 2007) it seems like, that spiritual and holistic journeys proposed by Smith (2003) mainly reflect the need of self-actualisation. Although since it is a higher-level need, relatively small numbers of people are pursuing it because it is not necessary to all. However, though escapism is not an ultimate solution of life struggles, it belongs to the basic needs of most individuals, like air and water, and therefore, are sought more

frequently. Meanwhile, escapism costs less time and energy so that it can be accessed and achieved simply and easily. It surely is a major motivation to trigger one's travel desire, but as a wanderer is quite distinct concept from tourist, escapism is adopted by the majority tourists rather than particularly by wanderers like romanticism. In fact, the scale of escapism used in the survey also indicates that since the items are consistent with escape from everyday struggles.

Regarding the tourists' behavioural intentions, escapism shows no significance with WOM or willingness to visit, but has a significant and positive relationship with willingness to pay in this research. According to previous literature, escapism has a highly positive impact on social interaction and eWOM (Luís Abrantes, Seabra, Raquel Lages, & Jayawardhena, 2013). At the same time, a great number of all types social media and platforms, together with the popularization of smart phones and the Internet, has provided accessible space for escaping anytime. Combining the theories and findings, it illustrates that Denmark has not been considered by the respondents as a destination for their escaping trips. Consequently, their eWOM behaviour concerning Denmark is less relevant to escapism. As for willingness to pay, Hirschman (1985) supports their positive relationship by stating that consumers can relax from their issues and unpleasant situations from the escapist consumption experiences. Additionally, Cleaver, Green, and Muller (2000) imply that escapists tend to seek hedonistic experience are likely to accept a higher price. And in this case, it is for travel in Denmark. This is a good news for tourism marketers in Denmark since escapist tourists is a larger group than wanderers. And more potential consumers mean more profit potential.

Self-Actualisation, Wanderlust, and Tourists' Behavioural Intentions

Self-actualisation is generally a part of Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Jones & Crandall, 1986; Woodside & Martin, 2008). In his framework, self-actualisation is on top at the "fullest height", which is relatively rarely demanded by individuals (Maslow, 1971, p. 175). Self-actualisation has been widely discussed by scholars. Even looking back into history, there are abundant artworks, literature, and real stories that reflect the yearn for self through travel and journeys (Gish, 1964). In modern society, the lifestyle travellers who are identified as wanderers also agree that travel creates a self-owned space for individuals to face and communicate to themselves deeply and truly (Cohen, 2010a; Cohen, 2010b). However, no significant relationship between self-actualisation and wanderlust is shown in the findings.

When reviewing previous studies about self-actualisation, it was found that the key arguments are about the definition of "self". One major group believes that there is a true inner self linked to one's potential which could be developed, fulfilled and actualised (Maslow, 1971) and this idea is congruent and succeed from the Renaissance and the Romantic era. Later, Wang (1999) mentions a similar item named "authenticity" which encourages to communicate, understand and maintain an integrated sense of self (Cohen, 2010b; Steiner & Reisinger, 2006; Wang, 1999). Another representative opinion demonstrated by Goffman (1978) is individuals are like actors. Their performances are changeable when facing different audience in different contexts. That is, individual has varied identities (Cote & Levine, 2002; McAdams, 1997). If taking "social saturation" (Gergen, 1991) into account, identity is a more practical form for self rather than authenticity. However, like Lefcourt (1973, p. 417) said, even "illusions do have consequences". The true inner self is existing if one believe so. Therefore, to explain this research result, items used in the survey reflect self mainly from the authenticity perspective (a true inner self) instead of identity, which is close to Maslow's (1971) definition. Though self-actualisation is a travel motivation as well as the ultimate need of the hierarchy (Maslow, 1971; Pike, 2007), perhaps it has not been that common for most respondents. Even if many respondents are pursuing it, travel is not the only way to achieve it. The methods and purposes are always different from person to person. If taken another guess, self-actualisation is often studied with senior travellers, which might indicate that as a travel motivation (e.g. Giltinan, 1990; Moal–Ulvoas & Taylor, 2014; Hsu, Cai, & Wong, 2007), self-actualisation works on the elder and the respondent in this study is predominantly on the younger side. For an concrete answer, more further research is required.

Self-actualisation is not found significantly related to any listed tourists' behavioural intentions. The reason could be that they feel no need to share their travel experience since it is all about their inner self. Meanwhile, Denmark is not commonly considered as a destination for self-actualisation, which might because self-realising is usually linked to adventures or novelty in the nature. But Denmark's natural attractiveness has not been energetically promoted. That might lose attentions of this traveller group. As for the willingness to pay, since the willingness to visiting is not effected by self-actualisation, it is reasonable that the motivation to pay is non-significant.

Curiosity, Wanderlust, and Tourists' Behavioural Intentions

Besides the similarity in the interpretations of curiosity and wanderlust such as novelty-seeking, explore the unknown and self-searching (Berlyne, 1954; Boksberger & Laesser, 2009; Gray, 1970; Hyde & Lawson, 2003; Kashdan et al., 2018; Kulendran & Wilson, 2000; Mansfeld, 1992; You, O'leary, Morrison, & Hong, 2000), the strongest evidence that indicates the closeness of them is the gene DRD4-7R, aka the "Wanderlust gene" that is in association with high levels of curiosity (Hilton, 2017; Munafò, 2008; Scotti, 2015). Following that, it is reasonable to postulate that curious people are very likely to have wanderlust. However, previous reviews and discussions about literature in this field bring some questions and arguments. For example, Litman (2008) and Litman and Silvia (2006) suggest two categories of curiosity as I-type and D-type curiosity. According to the elaboration of Koo and Choi (2010) and Jani (2014), I-type curiosity is positively connected to open to experience and emphasises the joy of learning, while D-type curiosity is positively connected to neuroticism and agreeableness and emphasises the sense of security by decreasing uncertainty. Similarly, Kashdan et al. (2018) categorise curious people into four groups, which are the fascinated, problem solvers, empathizers, and avoiders. Among them, the fascinated and problem solvers are supposed to belong to I-type curiosity and the other two should go to D-types curiosity. It is clear to see that people with D-type curiosity (e.g. empathizers, and avoiders) is not likely to have wanderlust since they are afraid of uncertainty and unknown. And these are the core elements sought by people with wanderlust or I-type curiosity in their travels experiences. However, the paper's findings do not support a significant relationship between curiosity and wanderlust. In the survey, the selected scale of curiosity contains both two types of curiosity. Since there is a huge difference between them, mixing them in one scale without differentiation seems to have caused a weaken directionality of curiosity in this case. Therefore, in order to conduct an efficient and deeper investigation in the further research, it is necessary to make a distinction among its subcategories.

Same to self-actualisation and tourists' behavioural intentions, none of the relationships between curiosity and three intentions is significant. The average respondent rates on the higher end of this scale for curiosity, but neutral on word-of-mouth, willingness to travel, and willingness to pay (See Appendix 6). It indicates that Denmark is not an ideal travel destination for curious tourists. They are not likely to be motivated to visit or pay for travel in Denmark so that they have no travel experience to share related to Denmark with their social networks.

In summary, to answer the main research question and its sub questions, wanderlust is supposed to contain elements such as strong desire to travel, independence, novelty-seeking, exploring the unknown, romanticism, self-searching, and self-actualisation. It is originally a German idea and shaped and fostered during the Romantic era. Therefore, wanderlust is highly related and positively impacted by romanticism. Besides, though wanderers are a very distinct group compared to tourists, they are still frequently involved in consumption of tourism activities. And the findings give further insights and details of their high willingness to visit and pay as well as share positive opinion in the case of Denmark. In a nutshell, wanderlust is an important factor to consider by the Danish tourism industry because of its significant impact on consumer behaviour in regards to tourism activities.

7. CONCLUSION

This last part sums up the findings of the study and provides managerial implications of this research. Finally, the paper ends with limitations of the study and provides suggestions for further research.

In the beginning, it was proposed that this paper attempts to close the gap between consumer strategy and consumer psychology, to build a profile of the ideal consumer, that is willing to travel to Denmark. The other objective was to delve deep into which specific emotions, when triggered would be most likely to affect travel behaviour to Denmark. This was because companies like Lonely Planet and VisitDenmark has adopted strategies that use storytelling to trigger emotions, but it not clear which emotions are their targets (Lonely Planet, 2018; VisitDenmark, 2017). This research has provided us with the answer to those questions, where romanticism and wanderlust can be considered synonymous and these feelings, emotions or traits had a highly significant and positive relationship with tourism consumer behaviour, regarding not only high willingness to visit Denmark but also spreading positive word-of-mouth about Denmark and willingness to pay for trips to Denmark, even if prices may rise. It is an interesting conclusion because this paper adds to the theory of wanderlust and suggests that wanderlust is more about the inside, like genes or personal traits, barely influenced by the external.

However, it would be naïve to disregard the external influence on tourism consumer behaviour. But external drivers are very useful to study tourists' behavioural intentions. As external influences, such as high susceptibility to normative influences, education and low work-life balance affect consumer behaviour as well. It is an interesting discovery as it may give extra insight into the type of consumers who may be interested in travelling to Denmark and what might affect their final decision.

As for the remaining variable relationships in this framework, that are not significant, that too is a finding because as researchers we are always presented with data that may not conform to our initial expectations. However, it should be considered a learning curve. So, it is important to acknowledge that maybe the present framework provided (Figure 1 and Figure 4) needs to be modified to better attune it to existing literature on tourism and wanderlust. Additionally, maybe the results found are just true in the case of Denmark and further research might be necessary to detect if the relationships continue to be insignificant in the case of other countries as well.

7.1. Managerial Implications

When doing research, it is important to consider the managerial implications of the study, so that the research has a purpose and direction. This research can be helpful to various stakeholders in the tourism industry.

Firstly, it is an important finding for tourism marketers that romanticism and wanderlust have a highly significant and positive impact on tourism consumer behaviour. This will allow them to build services and ad campaigns that trigger the romantic and wanderer in an individual. This can be possible through video diaries, blogs, social media posts and storytelling that bring out the romantic and wanderlust side of Denmark, where the yearning for expression, communication and adventure will be fulfilled. (Brinton, 1967; Osborne, 1970; Pirsig 1974). Not only Copenhagen, but Denmark has a lot to offer to the romantic and wanderer in everyone. For example, there is a lot of unknown and exciting to explore in the countryside of Jutland that may not get as much attention as Copenhagen. Hence, it is through this research that marketers may realise the potential of highlighting such factors through service design and marketing.

Secondly, even though external drivers may be insignificantly related to wanderlust, but some do share significant relationship with tourists' behavioural intentions/consumer behaviours can be used for Denmark's tourism improvement and promotions. Knowing that tourism behaviour is affected by susceptibility to normative influences, marketers may think about promoting Denmark through more user-generated content, where key opinion leaders, influencers and peers share experiences and information about Denmark. This is already in line with research where people accept and desire information from peers and people they may admire (Gretzel & Yoo, 2008; Kelman,1958; Kelman 1961; Pan, MacLaurin, & Crotts, 2007). So, this an addition to existing research. Furthermore, it is indicated that education is positively and significantly related to tourism consumer behaviour as well. This can be an opportunity for marketers to promote Denmark, as a place for intellectuals and people who like to challenge themselves. For example, in this case, promoting Denmark's rich history regarding the royals and Vikings, could be an interesting take on attracting this customer base. Even something as simple as pointing out Denmark's connection to Niels Bohr could highlight Denmark's positive connection to intellect and education. Lastly, poor work-life balance shows significance to willingness to visit and willingness to pay for a trip to Denmark, which could be used to showcase Denmark as a place to escape and relax before getting back to the grind. The simple Danish way of

living and the concept of "hygge" (Wiking, 2016) is a great way to showcase Denmark's deep connection to a happy, annoyance-free lifestyle. Books and campaigns that highlight this might be the way to attract such consumers in the need of some hygge.

These implications and findings can be just as relevant for other stakeholders. Of course, it is relevant for consumers out there to understand how wanderlust can be used to affect behaviour and where it develops. This can contribute to the understanding of self and enable consumers to make more informed decisions. This is equally interesting for the tourism industry, as it shows how wanderlust has been a missed opportunity and should be considered as an equally important factor/motivator as to why people travel and/or indulge in tourism. It might be useful and in their own interest to add consider the impactful role of a wanderer in tourism and beyond tourism.

Finally, this research is interesting for any country, and not just Denmark who wish to understand and discover new ways of tourism marketing and service design. The research framework, although only limited to Denmark, serves as a foundation that can be applied to any country out there.

7.2. Limitations

The study is a deductive approach where extensive theoretical research was carried out to determine a research framework that would help answer the research question(s). However, many variables showed no relationship with Wanderlust or tourism consumer behaviour, despite what existing literature suggest. Some of these were considered as limitations to the study, in the authors' opinion. Firstly, social media exposure should have ideally had a significant relationship with all outcome variables of behaviour and Wanderlust, however, since this was not the case, it is reckoned that it was due to the scale measurement. Even though the items measure what the concept indicates, it might be that to see a relationship with travel behaviour and wanderlust, it might be more important to measure the content people are exposed to online, rather than the amount of time they spend on social media, in general. Same is the case for, curiosity and self-actualisation, that may be the measurement scale needs to be changed that more specifically explores, a form of those two variables that are closer to wanderlust and travel behaviour, as mentioned in the discussion part of the thesis.

It is also important to recognise that it is a limitation to only focus on Denmark, as travel destination, thus making it hard to generalise results across countries and continents. However, since this research

is about improving tourism in Denmark, it is not a blatant limitation, but rather can be considered as a foundation for similar studies in other countries.

7.3. Further Research

It is impossible to cover all bases with one report, so it is considered imperative to end the paper with an acknowledgement of the need for further research and some suggestions regarding that.

Firstly, it is recommended that this research if carried out again, should consider a change in certain measurement scales of social media, curiosity and self-actualisation. It is recognised that more meaningful results might be derived from this framework, if social media measures the kind of content people come across online, instead of just time spent online, curiosity measures I-type curiosity which is positively connected to open to experience and emphasises the joy of learning, rather than D-type which is in relation to decreasing uncertainty and emphasises neuroticism (Jani 2014; Koo and Choi, 2010), while self-actualisation should may be considered as a concept of multiple-selves instead of one authentic self, which may or may not desire self-discovery or wanderlust (Cote & Levine, 2002; Gergen, 1991; Goffman, 1978; McAdams, 1997).

Further research can distinguish between a tourist and a wanderer, and delve into the role of wanderers not just in tourism but long-term travel and migration effects.

Finally, as mentioned above similar research can be carried out in different countries, to attempt generalisation. As it can help tourism researchers to identify wanderlust as a unique travel motivation factor which contains multiple personal features rather than just a strong desire to explore.

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9. APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. Online Questionnaire

1. Do you currently reside in Denmark?

    ○ Yes (1)

    ○ No (2)

2. What is your country of citizenship?

▼ Afghanistan (1) ... Zimbabwe (195)

3. What is your current employment status?

    ○ Employed (e.g. full-time/part-time/self-employed/student job/internship) (1)

    ○ Unemployed (e.g. retired/homemaker/unable to work) (2)

4. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Somewhat disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Somewhat agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
My work gives me a sense of accomplishment.	○	○	○	○	○
My work is not dull.	○	○	○	○	○
My work is satisfying.	○	○	○	○	○
My work is interesting.	○	○	○	○	○
My work is challenging.	○	○	○	○	○

5. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Somewhat disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Somewhat agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
I buy the same brand as someone I would like to emulate.	○	○	○	○	○
I buy the brand that others will approve of.	○	○	○	○	○
I observe others to be sure I buy the right products.	○	○	○	○	○

6. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Somewhat disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Somewhat agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do.	○	○	○	○	○
On the job, I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests.	○	○	○	○	○
My family/friends dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work.	○	○	○	○	○
My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with family/friends.	○	○	○	○	○
My job or career interferes with my responsibilities at home such as yard work, cooking, cleaning, repairs, shopping, paying the bills or childcare.	○	○	○	○	○
My job or career keeps me from spending the amount of time I'd like to spend with my family.	○	○	○	○	○

7. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Somewhat disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Somewhat agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
I love to pursue new and different vacation experiences.	○	○	○	○	○
I get really excited waiting for my vacation.	○	○	○	○	○
I dream about going to exotic travel destinations.	○	○	○	○	○
I often reflect back on my past vacation experiences.	○	○	○	○	○
I generally return from a vacation feeling relaxed and happy.	○	○	○	○	○
I like telling people about the trips I'm planning on taking.	○	○	○	○	○
I am happiest when I'm on vacation.	○	○	○	○	○
I like to fantasize about vacation travel.	○	○	○	○	○
I expect to take a vacation trip at least once a year.	○	○	○	○	○
Some of my best childhood memories are from vacations I took.	○	○	○	○	○

8. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Somewhat disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Somewhat agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
I think life is an awesome mystery.	○	○	○	○	○
Uncertainty is exciting.	○	○	○	○	○
Intuition is a valuable tool.	○	○	○	○	○
The heart, not the brain, should be your guide.	○	○	○	○	○
In life, unpredictability is preferable to routine.	○	○	○	○	○
I prefer to live in a certain amount of chaos.	○	○	○	○	○
New ideas are exciting.	○	○	○	○	○

9. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Somewhat disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Somewhat agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
I travel to get away from responsibility.	○	○	○	○	○
I travel so everything can be done for me.	○	○	○	○	○
I travel in order to live without being on a timetable.	○	○	○	○	○
I travel to experience a better climate.	○	○	○	○	○
I travel to be able to act like a kid.	○	○	○	○	○

10. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Somewhat disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Somewhat agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
In a quiz, I like to know what the answers are if I get the questions wrong.	○	○	○	○	○
I like to analyze things instead of taking them at face value.	○	○	○	○	○
I love to do experiments and see the results.	○	○	○	○	○
I continually strive to uncover information about topics that are new to me.	○	○	○	○	○
I try to learn something new every day.	○	○	○	○	○
When things go wrong I usually investigate to see what the problem is.	○	○	○	○	○
I have a constant desire to learn more.	○	○	○	○	○
I don't think any amount of knowledge will satisfy my curiosity.	○	○	○	○	○

11. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Somewhat disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Somewhat agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
I do not feel ashamed of any of my emotions.	○	○	○	○	○
I believe that people are essentially good and can be trusted.	○	○	○	○	○
I feel free to be angry at those I love.	○	○	○	○	○
I can like people without having to approve of them.	○	○	○	○	○
It is better to be myself than to be popular.	○	○	○	○	○
I can express my feelings even when they may result in undesirable consequences.	○	○	○	○	○
I am loved because I give love.	○	○	○	○	○

12. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Somewhat disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Somewhat agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
I talk up Denmark as a holiday destination.	○	○	○	○	○
I bring up Denmark in a positive way in conversations about holiday destinations.	○	○	○	○	○
In social situations, I often speak favorably about Denmark as a tourist destination.	○	○	○	○	○
I recommend Denmark as a tourist destination to other people when asked.	○	○	○	○	○

13. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Somewhat disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Somewhat agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
I strongly intend to visit Denmark in the future.	○	○	○	○	○
It is very likely that I would choose Denmark as my tourist destination.	○	○	○	○	○
I would like to take a holiday in Denmark.	○	○	○	○	○
I plan to visit Denmark as a tourist at some point in the future.	○	○	○	○	○

14. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Somewhat disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Somewhat agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
I would continue to visit Denmark even if the prices to go there were increased.	○	○	○	○	○
I would pay a higher price to visit Denmark than to visit other countries.	○	○	○	○	○
I would be willing to spend more money for a holiday in Denmark than for a similar holiday in most other countries.	○	○	○	○	○
As a tourist, I would go to Denmark even if it was more expensive than most other places.	○	○	○	○	○

15. Please estimate the average amount of hours you spend on social media for personal use every day. For example, on sites such as Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, Reddit etc..

○ Less than 1 hour (1)

○ 1-2 hours (2)

○ 2-3 hours (3)

○ 3-4 hours (4)

○ 4-5 hours (5)

○ Over 5 hours (6)

16. What is the highest level of school you have completed or the highest degree you have received?

○ Less than high school degree (1)

○ High school graduate (high school diploma or equivalent including GED) (2)

○ Some college but no degree (3)

○ Associate degree in college (2-year) (4)

○ Bachelor's degree in college (4-year) (5)

○ Master's degree (6)

○ Doctoral degree (7)

○ Professional degree (JD, MD) (8)

17. Information about income is very important to understand. Would you please give your best guess? Please indicate the answer that includes your entire household income (in the previous year) before taxes.

○ Less than $20,000 (1)

○ $20,000 to $34,999 (2)

○ $35,000 to 49,999 (3)

○ $50,000 to $74,999 (4)

○ $75,000 to $99,999 (5)

○ $100,000 or more (6)

18. To which gender identity do you most identify?

○ Male (1)

○ Female (2)

○ Other (3)

19. What is your current relationship status?

○ Single (1)

○ In a relationship (2)

○ Married, or in a domestic partnership (3)

20. What is your age?

▼ 1 (1) ... 150 (150)

APPENDIX 2: Descriptive Statistics – Demographics

CITIZENSHIP

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Australia	1	.4	.4	.4
	Austria	1	.4	.4	.9
	Belgium	4	1.8	1.8	2.7
	Canada	6	2.7	2.7	5.3
	China	37	16.4	16.4	21.8
	Czech Republic	1	.4	.4	22.2
	Finland	1	.4	.4	22.7
	France	3	1.3	1.3	24.0
	Germany	6	2.7	2.7	26.7
	Hong Kong (S.A.R.)	1	.4	.4	27.1
	Hungary	1	.4	.4	27.6
	India	37	16.4	16.4	44.0
	Indonesia	1	.4	.4	44.4
	Ireland	1	.4	.4	44.9
	Israel	1	.4	.4	45.3
	Italy	3	1.3	1.3	46.7
	Kazakhstan	1	.4	.4	47.1
	Malaysia	1	.4	.4	47.6
	Malta	1	.4	.4	48.0
	Nauru	1	.4	.4	48.4
	Netherlands	5	2.2	2.2	50.7
	New Zealand	1	.4	.4	51.1
	Norway	1	.4	.4	51.6
	Poland	3	1.3	1.3	52.9
	Romania	1	.4	.4	53.3
	Slovenia	1	.4	.4	53.8
	South Korea	1	.4	.4	54.2
	Spain	1	.4	.4	54.7
	Sweden	1	.4	.4	55.1
	Switzerland	6	2.7	2.7	57.8
	Thailand	1	.4	.4	58.2
	Uganda	1	.4	.4	58.7
	United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	14	6.2	6.2	64.9
	United States of America	79	35.1	35.1	100.0
	Total	225	100.0	100.0	

AGE

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18	4	1.8	1.8	1.8
	19	1	.4	.4	2.2
	20	3	1.3	1.3	3.6
	21	8	3.6	3.6	7.1
	22	9	4.0	4.0	11.1
	23	27	12.0	12.0	23.1
	24	17	7.6	7.6	30.7
	25	26	11.6	11.6	42.2
	26	15	6.7	6.7	48.9
	27	10	4.4	4.4	53.3
	28	14	6.2	6.2	59.6
	29	9	4.0	4.0	63.6
	30	6	2.7	2.7	66.2
	31	2	.9	.9	67.1
	32	4	1.8	1.8	68.9
	33	5	2.2	2.2	71.1
	34	9	4.0	4.0	75.1
	35	3	1.3	1.3	76.4
	36	5	2.2	2.2	78.7
	37	7	3.1	3.1	81.8
	38	1	.4	.4	82.2
	39	2	.9	.9	83.1
	40	5	2.2	2.2	85.3
	41	1	.4	.4	85.8
	42	2	.9	.9	86.7
	43	3	1.3	1.3	88.0
	44	2	.9	.9	88.9
	45	3	1.3	1.3	90.2
	46	2	.9	.9	91.1
	47	5	2.2	2.2	93.3
	49	1	.4	.4	93.8
	52	1	.4	.4	94.2
	53	2	.9	.9	95.1
	56	2	.9	.9	96.0
	59	1	.4	.4	96.4
	61	1	.4	.4	96.9
	62	1	.4	.4	97.3
	63	2	.9	.9	98.2
	64	1	.4	.4	98.7
	65	2	.9	.9	99.6
	68	1	.4	.4	100.0
	Total	225	100.0	100.0	

GENDER

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	87	38.7	38.7	38.7
	Female	137	60.9	60.9	99.6
	Other	1	.4	.4	100.0
	Total	225	100.0	100.0	

RS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Single	92	40.9	40.9	40.9
	In a relationship	68	30.2	30.2	71.1
	Married, or in a domestic partnership	65	28.9	28.9	100.0
	Total	225	100.0	100.0	

EMPLOY

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Employed (e.g. full–time/part–time/self–employed/student job/internship)	225	100.0	100.0	100.0

APPENDIX 3. Cronbach's Alpha – Reliability Test

Work Satisfaction

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.896	5

Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influences

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.865	3

Work-Life Balance

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.886	6

Romanticism

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.738	7

Escapism

Step 1. With 5 items

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.699	5

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
E1	12.93	11.102	.531	.616
E2	13.20	10.574	.548	.607
E3	12.36	12.106	.462	.648
E4	12.04	14.534	.250	.720
E5	12.65	11.656	.482	.638

Step 2. Final alpha after deleting item 4

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.720	4

Self-Actualisation

Step 1. With 7 items

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.628	7

Item–Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item–Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
SA1	22.44	11.854	.461	.547
SA2	22.28	12.834	.352	.587
SA3	22.67	13.516	.237	.627
SA4	22.13	13.952	.273	.611
SA5	21.63	15.162	.151	.640
SA6	22.28	12.079	.457	.550
SA7	21.85	12.813	.449	.558

Step 2. With 6 items after deleting item 5

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.640	6

Item–Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item–Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
SA1	18.19	10.510	.440	.569
SA2	18.03	11.071	.385	.591
SA3	18.42	11.852	.246	.646
SA4	17.88	12.240	.290	.624
SA6	18.04	10.722	.435	.571
SA7	17.60	11.329	.441	.574

Step 3. With 5 items after deleting item 3

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.646	5

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
SA1	14.98	7.691	.437	.573
SA2	14.82	7.891	.435	.575
SA4	14.67	9.329	.265	.650
SA6	14.83	8.126	.388	.598
SA7	14.40	8.249	.476	.560

Step 4. Final alpha with 4 items after deleting items 3, 4, 5

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.650	4

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
SA1	11.23	5.444	.469	.553
SA2	11.07	5.875	.410	.595
SA6	11.08	6.052	.368	.625
SA7	10.64	6.069	.483	.552

Curiosity

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.807	8

Wanderlust

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.808	10

Word-of-mouth

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.931	4

Willingness-to-visit

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.914	4

Willingness-to-pay

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.914	4

APPENDIX 4. Assumption Tests

1. Multicollinearity - Tolerance and VIF threshold

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	NI	.862	1.160
	WLB	.885	1.130
	SMH	.932	1.073
	EDUCATION	.972	1.028
	INCOME	.952	1.051

a. Dependent Variable: WS

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	WLB	.958	1.044
	SMH	.936	1.068
	EDUCATION	.974	1.027
	INCOME	.929	1.076
	WS	.928	1.078

a. Dependent Variable: NI

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	SMH	.943	1.060
	EDUCATION	.959	1.043
	INCOME	.908	1.102
	WS	.918	1.090
	NI	.923	1.083

a. Dependent Variable: WLB

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	EDUCATION	.965	1.036
	INCOME	.916	1.092
	WS	.924	1.082
	NI	.863	1.159
	WLB	.902	1.109

a. Dependent Variable: SMH

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	INCOME	.908	1.102
	WS	.930	1.075
	NI	.865	1.156
	WLB	.884	1.131
	SMH	.931	1.074

a. Dependent Variable: EDUCATION

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	WS	.963	1.039
	NI	.874	1.145
	WLB	.885	1.129
	SMH	.934	1.070
	EDUCATION	.960	1.042

a. Dependent Variable: INCOME

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	E	.975	1.026
	SA	.937	1.067
	C	.950	1.053

a. Dependent Variable: R

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	SA	.812	1.231
	C	.879	1.138
	R	.754	1.326

a. Dependent Variable: E

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	C	.880	1.136
	R	.717	1.394
	E	.804	1.244

a. Dependent Variable: SA

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	R	.674	1.483
	E	.806	1.240
	SA	.816	1.225

a. Dependent Variable: C

2. Skewness and Kurtosis

Statistics		SMH	EDUCATION	INCOME	W	WS	NI	WLB	R	E	SA	C	WOM	WTV	WTP
N	Valid	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Skewness		.827	-.848	.613	-.727	-.916	-.162	.318	-.419	-.080	-.403	-.369	-.487	-.891	.077
Std. Error of Skewness		.162	.162	.162	.162	.162	.162	.162	.162	.162	.162	.162	.162	.162	.162
Kurtosis		.576	.837	-.513	.378	.334	-1.184	-.798	-.270	-.775	-.240	-.117	-.652	.439	-1.022
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.323	.323	.323	.323	.323	.323	.323	.323	.323	.323	.323	.323	.323	.323

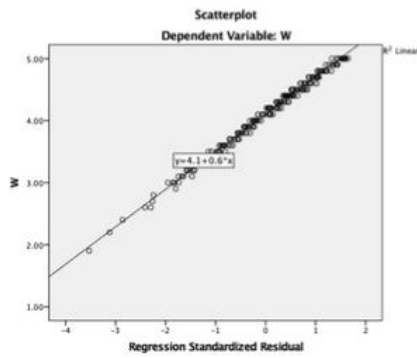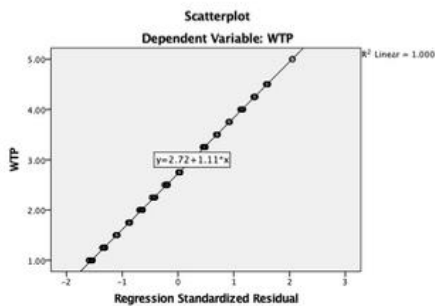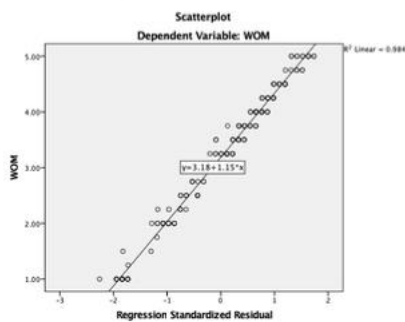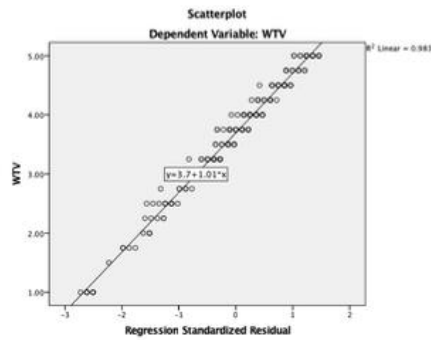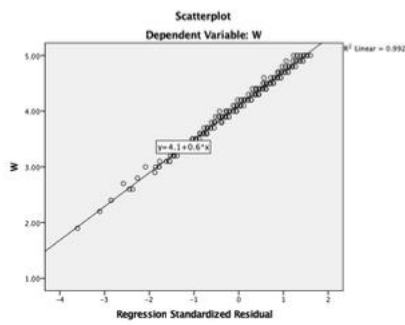**3. Homoscedasticity – Scatterplot with all outcome variable**

Work Satisfaction
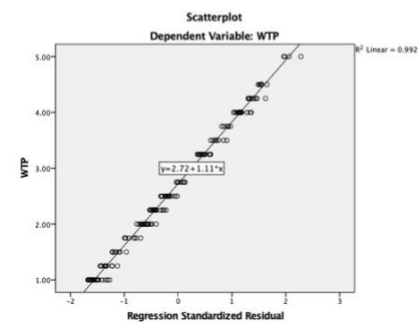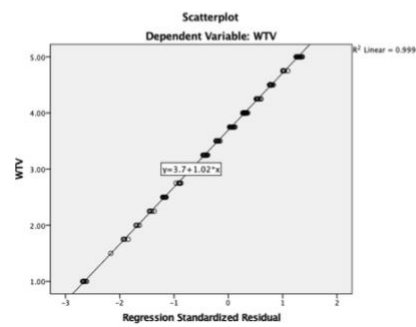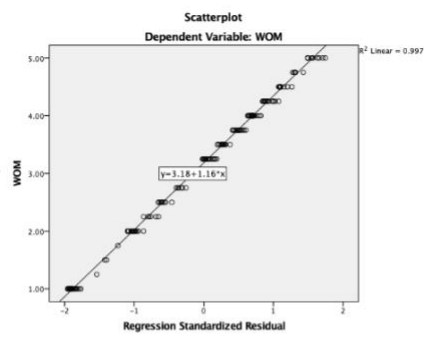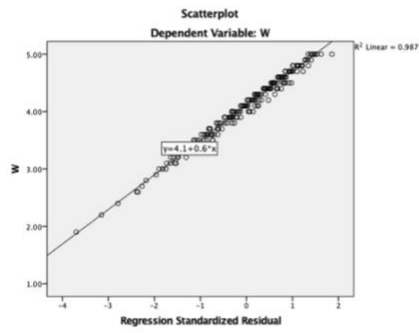
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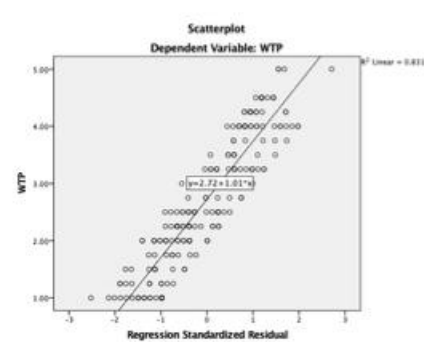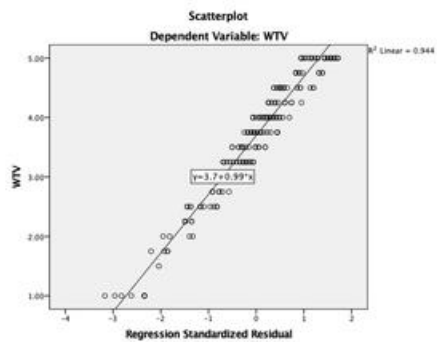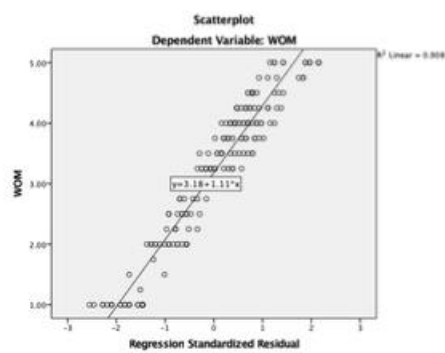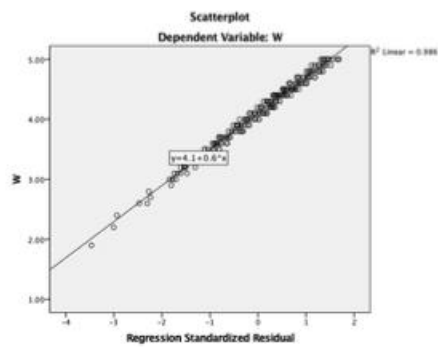
Work-Life Balance
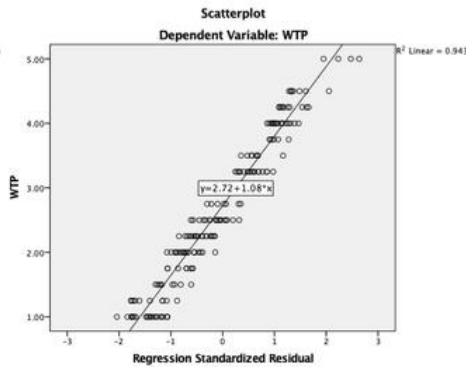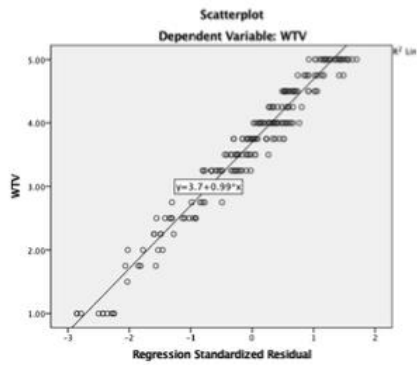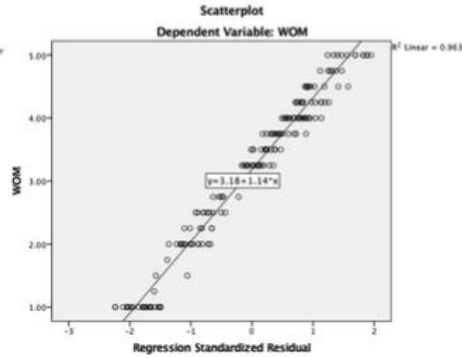
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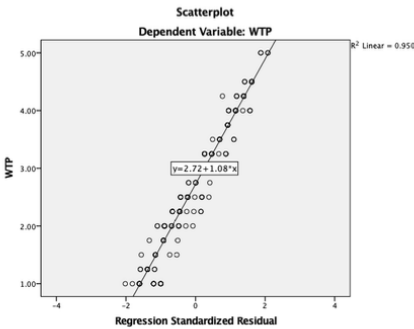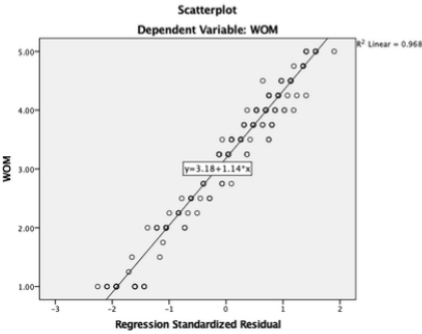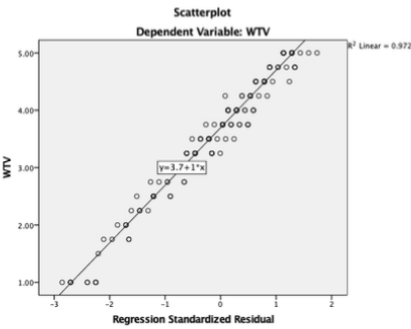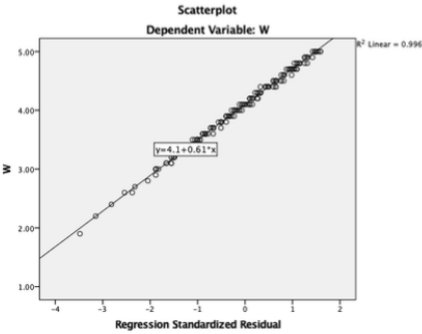
Education

Income

Romanticism

Escapism

Self-Actualisation

Curiosity

Wanderlust

Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: WOM

R^2 Linear = 0.950

$y=3.18+1.13*x$

Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: WTV

R^2 Linear = 0.902

$y=3.7+0.97*x$

Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: WTP

R^2 Linear = 0.968

$y=2.72+1.09*x$
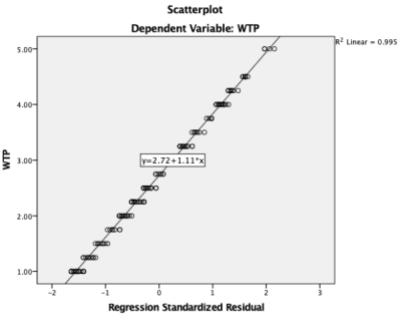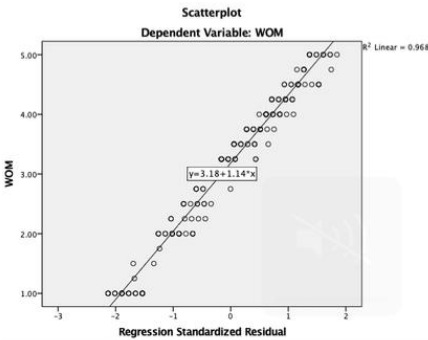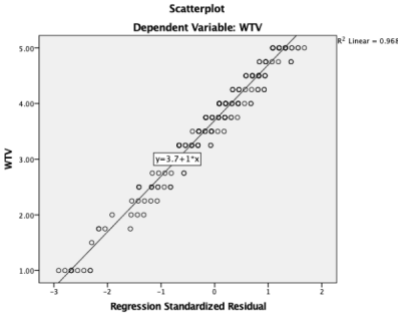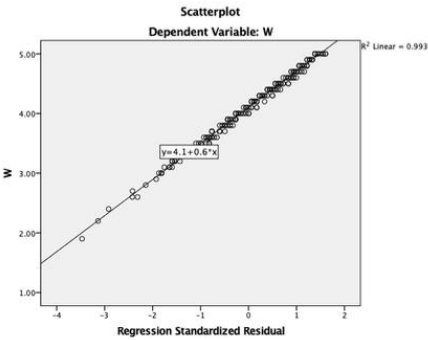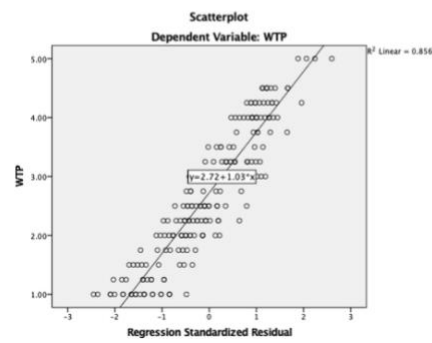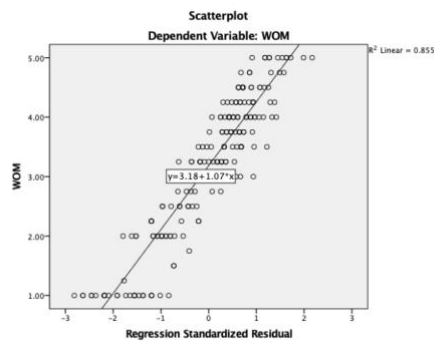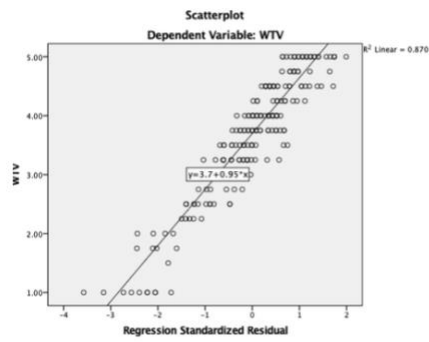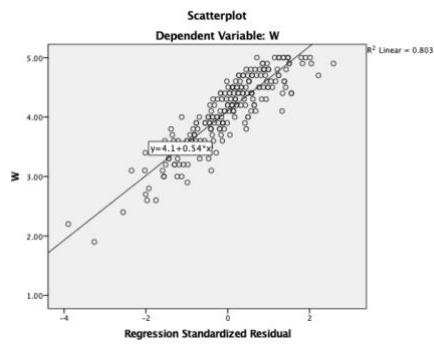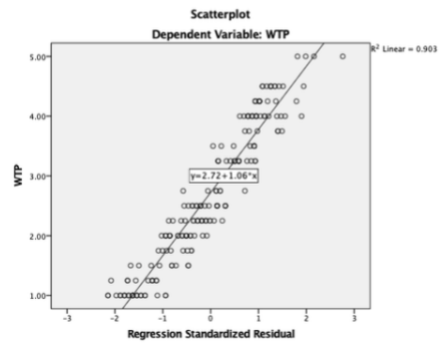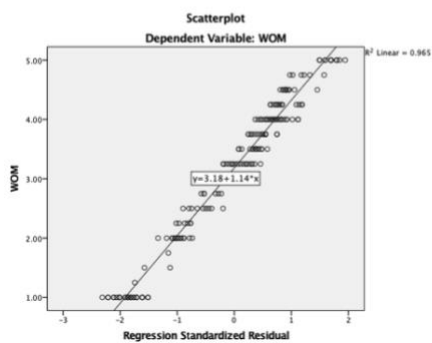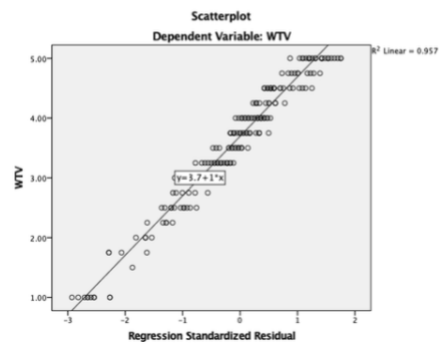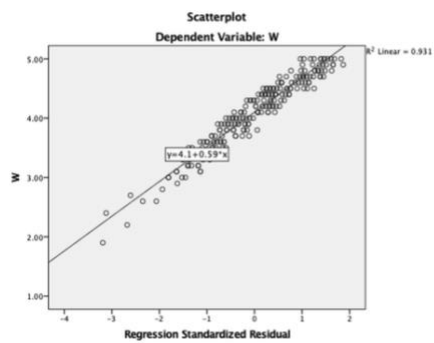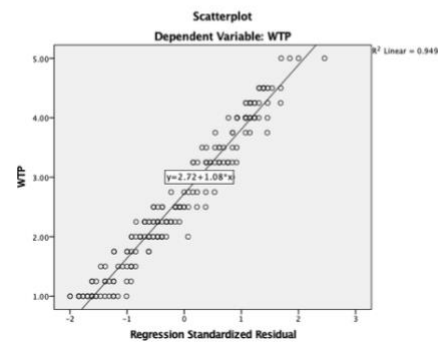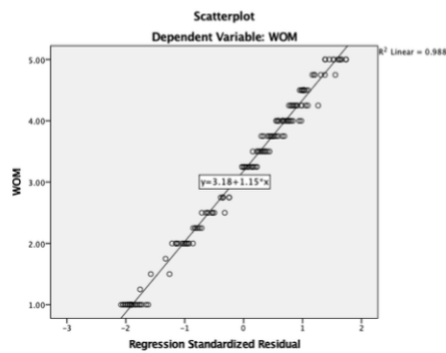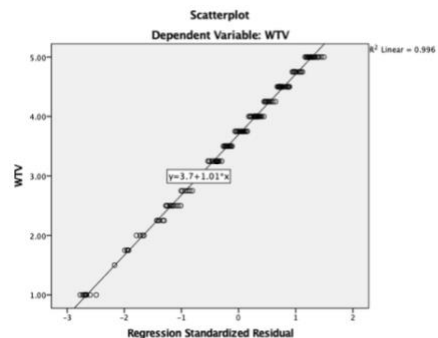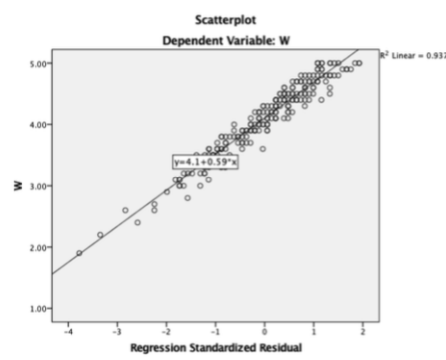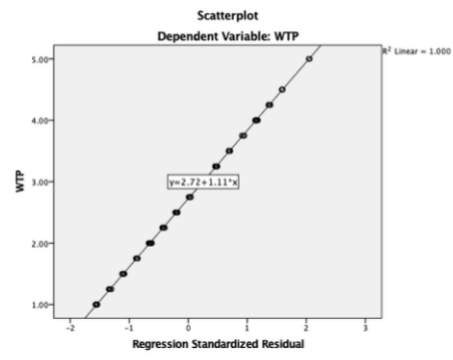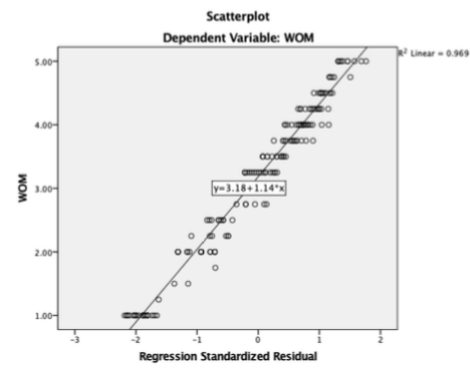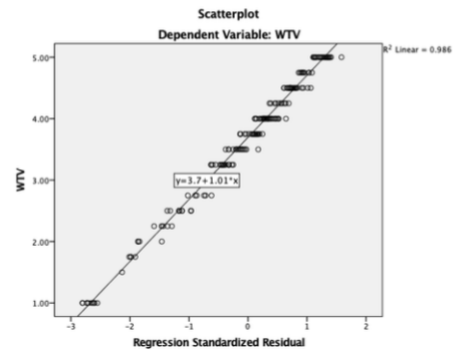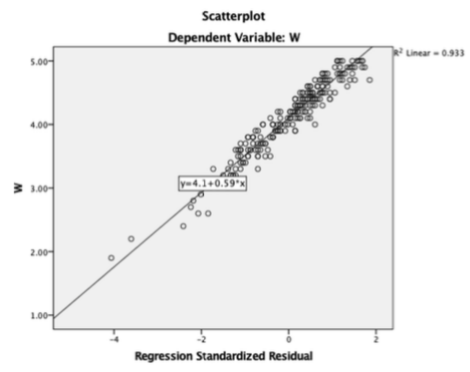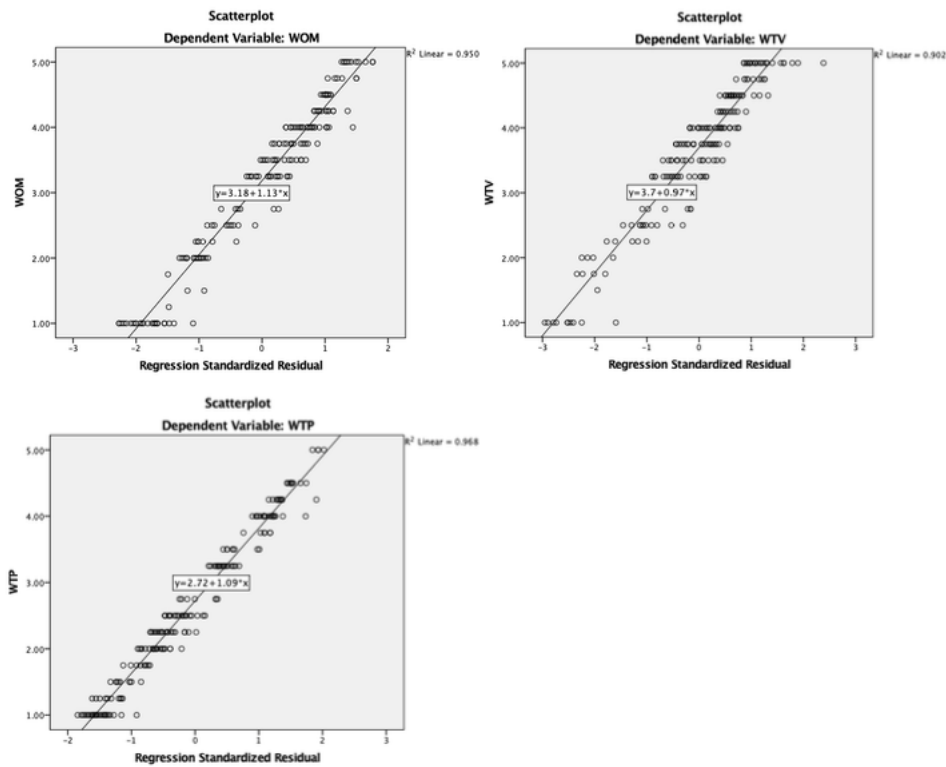
APPENDIX 5: Linear Regression Analysis Results

External Drivers – Wanderlust

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.494	6	.582	1.617	.144[b]
	Residual	78.505	218	.360		
	Total	81.999	224			

a. Dependent Variable: W
b. Predictors: (Constant), INCOME, EDUCATION, WLB, SMH, WS, NI

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.479	.286		12.169	.000
	WS	.087	.047	.130	1.878	.062
	NI	.032	.037	.061	.849	.397
	WLB	.026	.042	.043	.614	.540
	SMH	.038	.035	.076	1.107	.270
	EDUCATION	.024	.037	.044	.644	.520
	INCOME	-.035	.028	-.087	-1.257	.210

a. Dependent Variable: W

External Drivers – WOM

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	44.957	6	7.493	6.383	.000[b]
	Residual	255.888	218	1.174		
	Total	300.846	224			

a. Dependent Variable: WOM
b. Predictors: (Constant), INCOME, EDUCATION, WLB, SMH, WS, NI

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.949	.570		3.422	.001
	WS	.069	.084	.054	.824	.411
	WLB	-.108	.076	-.094	-1.416	.158
	NI	.215	.067	.217	3.202	.002
	SMH	.068	.063	.070	1.080	.281
	EDUCATION	.162	.066	.156	2.449	.015
	INCOME	-.108	.050	-.143	-2.182	.030

a. Dependent Variable: WOM

External Drivers – WTV

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	28.519	6	4.753	5.127	.000[b]
	Residual	202.091	218	.927		
	Total	230.610	224			

a. Dependent Variable: WTV

b. Predictors: (Constant), INCOME, EDUCATION, WLB, SMH, WS, NI

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.029	.506		5.985	.000
	WS	.032	.075	.029	.431	.667
	WLB	-.137	.068	-.136	-2.024	.044
	NI	.119	.060	.137	1.995	.047
	SMH	.065	.056	.077	1.171	.243
	EDUCATION	.142	.059	.156	2.414	.017
	INCOME	-.096	.044	-.144	-2.164	.032

a. Dependent Variable: WTV

External Drivers – WTP

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	60.007	6	10.001	10.116	.000[b]
	Residual	215.533	218	.989		
	Total	275.541	224			

a. Dependent Variable: WTP

b. Predictors: (Constant), INCOME, EDUCATION, WLB, SMH, WS, NI

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.357	.523		2.596	.010
	WS	.041	.077	.034	.536	.592
	WLB	-.146	.070	-.133	-2.085	.038
	NI	.333	.062	.351	5.413	.000
	SMH	-.046	.058	-.050	-.799	.425
	EDUCATION	.169	.061	.170	2.775	.006
	INCOME	-.016	.046	-.022	-.358	.721

a. Dependent Variable: WTP

Internal Drivers – Wanderlust

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	18.172	4	4.543	15.659	.000[b]
	Residual	63.827	220	.290		
	Total	81.999	224			

a. Dependent Variable: W

b. Predictors: (Constant), C, E, SA, R

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.091	.295		7.086	.000
	R	.306	.070	.330	4.377	.000
	E	.062	.042	.097	1.468	.144
	SA	.054	.052	.068	1.032	.303
	C	.127	.065	.124	1.948	.053

a. Dependent Variable: W

Internal Drivers – WOM

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	45.785	4	11.446	9.873	.000[b]
	Residual	255.061	220	1.159		
	Total	300.846	224			

a. Dependent Variable: WOM

b. Predictors: (Constant), C, E, SA, R

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.568	.590		.963	.337
	R	.672	.140	.379	4.808	.000
	E	.033	.084	.027		.699
	SA	-.107	.105	-.071	-1.025	.306
	C	.118	.131	.060	.901	.368

a. Dependent Variable: WOM

Internal Drivers – WTV

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	32.714	4	8.178	9.092	.000[b]
	Residual	197.896	220	.900		
	Total	230.610	224			

a. Dependent Variable: WTV

b. Predictors: (Constant), C, E, SA, R

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.854	.520		3.568	.000
	R	.588	.123	.379	4.779	.000
	E	.059	.074	.055	.790	.430
	SA	-.140	.092	-.106	-1.522	.129
	C	.013	.115	.007	.111	.912

a. Dependent Variable: WTV

Internal Drivers – WTP

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	52.575	4	13.144	12.969	.000[b]
	Residual	222.966	220	1.013		
	Total	275.541	224			

a. Dependent Variable: WTP

b. Predictors: (Constant), C, E, SA, R

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.697	.552		1.264	.207
	R	.515	.131	.303	3.938	.000
	E	.205	.079	.176	2.602	.010
	SA	.144	.098	.099	1.469	.143
	C	-.240	.122	-.127	-1.965	.051

a. Dependent Variable: WTP

Wanderlust – WOM

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	15.111	1	15.111	11.794	.001[b]
	Residual	285.734	223	1.281		
	Total	300.846	224			

a. Dependent Variable: WOM
b. Predictors: (Constant), W

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	1.424	.518		2.747	.007
	W	.429	.125	.224	3.434	.001

a. Dependent Variable: WOM

Wanderlust – WTV

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	22.676	1	22.676	24.319	.000[b]
	Residual	207.934	223	.932		
	Total	230.610	224			

a. Dependent Variable: WTV
b. Predictors: (Constant), W

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	1.540	.442		3.482	.001
	W	.526	.107	.314	4.931	.000

a. Dependent Variable: WTV

Wanderlust – WTP

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8.766	1	8.766	7.327	.007[b]
	Residual	266.775	223	1.196		
	Total	275.541	224			

a. Dependent Variable: WTP
b. Predictors: (Constant), W

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	1.383	.501		2.762	.006
	W	.327	.121	.178	2.707	.007

a. Dependent Variable: WTP

APPENDIX 6: Descriptive Statistics – Mean Values for Research Framework Variables

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
SMH	225	1	6	568	2.52	1.199
EDUCATION	225	2	8	1102	4.90	1.115
INCOME	225	1	6	640	2.84	1.529
W	225	1.90	5.00	922.90	4.1018	.60504
WS	225	1.00	5.00	866.20	3.8498	.90020
NI	225	1.00	5.00	645.67	2.8696	1.16870
WLB	225	1.00	5.00	636.67	2.8296	1.01201
R	225	1.71	4.86	813.86	3.6171	.65319
E	225	1.00	5.00	677.00	3.0089	.95310
SA	225	1.25	5.00	825.25	3.6678	.76358
C	225	2.25	5.00	918.63	4.0828	.58941
WOM	225	1.00	5.00	716.50	3.1844	1.15890
WTV	225	1.00	5.00	831.75	3.6967	1.01465
WTP	225	1.00	5.00	613.00	2.7244	1.10910
Valid N (listwise)	225					