

An Explorative Study of Wanderlust

Examining the desire to travel for the sole purpose of traveling rather than reaching a destination



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Resume

Med udgangspunkt i et eksplorativt studie, har denne afhandling til formål at konceptualisere begrebet wanderlust med 'travel motivation' litteraturen som teoretisk grundlag. Endvidere vil vi undersøge, hvad wanderlust driver og drives af. Til dette finder vi det relevant at sammenligne begrebet med et allerede etableret koncept inden for 'travel research' litteraturen, og som yderligere har en tendens til at blive forvekslet med begrebet wanderlust. For at etablere wanderlust som et koncept og endvidere differentiere det fra andre koncepter, vil vi sideløbende gennem afhandlingens forløb sammenligne og undersøge konceptet 'tourism xenophilia', hvilket defineres som: '*An individual's attraction toward the perceived foreignness of destinations*' (Nørfelt et al., 2019).

For at kunne belyse det valgte problemfelt bedst muligt har vi valgt at redegøre for relevante teorier for at skabe udgangspunktet for afhandlingens dataindsamling, analyse og diskussion. I den teoretiske referenceramme belyses et udpluk af litteraturen inden for 'travel motivation', idet vi anser wanderlust som en potentiel 'travel motivator' for individer. Dette vil fungere som afhandlingens teoretiske grundlag, og dermed det område, hvor vi ønsker at tilføje ny viden. Da wanderlust endvidere er et begreb, der aldrig er blevet undersøgt før, og som derfor endnu ikke besidder en universel definition, har vi ydermere fundet det relevant at redegøre for den snævre mængde af eksisterende litteratur, som har inkorporeret begrebet. Hertil tager afhandlingen udgangspunkt i, at der netop ikke er blevet gennemført nogle grundige studier eller undersøgelser på baggrund af begrebet. Med aftag i den eksisterende litteratur, danner vi derfor vores egen definition af begrebet som en del af konceptualiseringen. Da wanderlust har sine rødder i lysten til at rejse *bare* for at rejse, er begrebet defineret som følgende: '***An individual's desire to travel for the sole purpose of traveling rather than reaching a destination***'. Denne definition vil være omdrejningspunktet for udarbejdelsen af afhandlingen og vil derfor blive brugt som den objektive forståelse for begrebet. Afslutningsvis introduceres forskellige definerede og etableret begreber inden for 'travel research' litteraturen for at skabe et overblik over et udpluk af de koncepter, der eksisterer inden for litteraturen, og som samtidigt læner sig tæt op ad begrebet wanderlust.

På baggrund af den eksisterende litteratur og udvalgte videnskabelige skalaer, har vi opstillet i alt 21 hypoteser for at teste potentielle faktorer, der kan drive wanderlust og potentielle

faktorer, som wanderlust kan have en effekt på. Med udgangspunkt i de samme faktorer, har vi endvidere opstillet hypoteser for tourism xenophilia for at undersøge og belyse mulige variationer mellem de to koncepter.

Med aftag i den positivistiske tankegang, har afhandlingen benyttet sig af kvantitativ data. For at teste de 21 hypoteser har vi lavet en spørgeskemaundersøgelse, som udgør afhandlingens primære data. En størstedel af spørgsmålene, der er blevet stillet i undersøgelsen, er baseret på videnskabelige skalaer, da dette øger den samlede validitet af afhandlingen. For yderligere at øge reliabiliteten af afhandlingen, har vi samarbejdet med et kommunikations- og analysebureau for at indsamle data. Med dette har vi sikret os at denne data er repræsentativ for befolkningen, hvorfor vi kan drage objektive konklusioner ud fra vores resultater.

På baggrund af undersøgelsesresultaterne er det blevet påvist, at wanderlust er et koncept, der eksisterer, og som påvirkes og er påvirket af forskellige faktorer. Endvidere er det blevet tydeliggjort, at wanderlust og tourism xenophilia er to forskellige koncepter, som yderligere påvirkes af og har en indvirkning på forskellige faktorer. Udfaldet af opgavens analyse og diskussion peger således på, at wanderlust er en potentiel og vigtig 'travel motivator', som både litteraturen, teorien og diverse interessenter burde tage til eftertanke i fremtidige studier, undersøgelser, segmenteringer og markedsføringstiltag. For eksempel, er det blevet påvist, at wanderlust drives af personlighedstræk såsom 'restlessness' og 'novelty seeking'. Endvidere er det blevet synliggjort, at wanderlust har en stærk og positiv effekt på individers tilbøjelighed og lyst til at rejse alene. Faktorer, som differentierer sig fra tourism xenophilia, der i stedet drives af faktorer såsom 'curiosity' og 'early travel experience'.

Med denne afhandling har vi udarbejdet den første dybdegående undersøgelse af wanderlust. I den overordnede sammenhæng kan det derfor konkluderes, at afhandlingen har belyst, at wanderlust er et fænomen for sig selv, som kan have adskillige gavnlige betydninger og indvirkninger - både for teorien og i praksis.

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1. Introduction

'Twenty years from now you will be more disappointed by the things you didn't do than by the ones you did do. So, throw off the bowlines, sail away from the safe harbor. Catch the trade winds in your sails. Explore. Dream. Discover'

H. Jackson Brown Jr., 1990

Operating in a dynamic and turbulent marketing environment, one variable that may remain constant in the travel and tourism marketplace is individuals' desire to consume the enjoyment and benefits of traveling (Shields, 2011). Tourism, as the business of attracting visitors and catering to their needs, has rapidly grown into the world's largest industry, surpassing autos, steel, electronics, and agriculture (McIntosh, Goeldner, and Ritchie, 1995). The numbers of tourists around the world are so great that it could be referred to as the 'migration characteristic of our age' (Wolfe, 1966). The Danes, for instance, have a large appetite for traveling. In fact, a recent study concluded that a majority of Danes consider traveling as a crucial part of their overall quality of life. Another study, which provides annual statistics on tourism demand in the European Union and EFTA countries, has placed Denmark as the top 3 country in Europe in relation to average number of personal trips taken per tourist. As a matter of fact, it was presented that Danes take approximately 6.9 trips per tourist annually (Eurostat, 2017). This is great news; not only for the tourism in Denmark, but for several travel marketers and travel agencies, who help the Danes on their journey out in the world (Dansk Erhverv, 2020). Consequently, the tourism industry has increasingly evolved into an arena of fierce competition in which marketing has become an important element of tourism management (Sirgy and Su, 2000). Thus, for the travel and tourism industry to prosper in a turbulent environment, where we see an increasing number of tourists together with a growing interest for traveling in general, travel and tourism marketers need to capitalize on consistent consumer traits and motives. They must be prepared to accommodate the needs of both current and future travelers (Shields, 2011).

But why *do* people travel? This may be the most fundamental question to ask within tourism behavior research. Why *did* early humans start to travel in the first place? The fact that travel beyond familiar 'home'-territory evolved into an evolutionarily stable strategy (ESS) indicates that there was an advantage in terms of survival and reproduction. An

alternative explanation might be that individuals, who took the risk and strayed beyond familiar territory and survived the greater dangers in the past, had greater survival skills such as intelligence, cunning, and strength (Crouch, 2013). It has further been suggested that '*every mammalian species has to move around. Indeed, a key to the mammals' intelligence is their on-the-ground activity. Humans are no different. An itch, a restlessness, is built into our nature... The restlessness is a relic of our hunter-gatherer past*' (Wallace, 1991). Although some may argue that tourism may seem like a modern notion, dominated by no-frills air flights, selfie sticks, and Lonely Planet guides, touristic tendencies may, in reality, have begun long before the birth of EasyJet and Airbnb (Blackall, 2019).

An important consideration in understanding and predicting tourist behavior concerns the underlying motivation governing the choice of tourist destinations and modes of travel involved. Research concerning travel motivation has frequently assumed that tourists are both able and willing to articulate their travel needs (Pearce and Caltabiano, 1983). To understand travel motivation, a variety of scales and theories have been proposed and empirically tested in the extant tourism literature. The gravity of motivation in tourism is quite obvious; it acts as a trigger that sets off all the events involved in travel (Parrinello, 2002). Several researchers have used motivational theory to try to interpret the underlying motivations of tourists (Brown, 2005). *Why do we travel?* There are several motivating factors, which encourage travel (Vogt, 1976). However, it can be argued that no tourists are likely to be influenced by just one motivator. In fact, individuals are more likely to be affected by a number of them (Swarbrooke and Horner, 2003). In general, it is important to understand that motivation occurs when an individual wants to satisfy a need. Tourist motivation refers to touristic travel, or to a specific choice in particular (Parrinello, 1993), and further seeks to explain *why* an individual or group has behaved or is about to behave in a certain way (Dann, 1981). One way of integrating travel motivation studies into aspects of tourism research lies in connecting the motivation models and patterns to destination choice studies. There are several kinds of travel decisions and choices including selecting transport, accommodation, and activity options (Pearce and Packer, 2013). Nevertheless, the overriding historical concern of tourism researchers in relation to travel motivation has been destination image and selection (March and Woodside, 2005; Pike, 2002). However, an important factor to keep in mind is that not all travelers have the same values and expectations as the mass tourist. Other groups have differing styles and preferences when it comes to traveling (Vogt, 1976). For example, there

are significant cultural differences in the propensity for travel as well as preferred styles of tourism. There are, for instance, differences in group vs. individual tourism preferences. In general, there exist an enormous range in the travel propensities and preferences of individuals. Some people simply never travel outside their normal living and working environment – and have absolutely no desire in doing so (Crouch, 2013). Other people have an aversion for vacations. And then there are some individuals, who seek to undertake amazing feats of travel and tourism (Laing, 2006; Laing and Crouch, 2011) or who have no wish, whatsoever, to settle down in one location or ‘home’ (Crouch, 2013).

However, understanding *how* tourists decide whether to spend their holiday domestically or abroad, or how they prefer to travel in general, are of strategic importance to travel agencies and marketers (Nørfelt et al., 2019). While many concepts, or motivators, are noted within the travel motivation and research literature (see e.g. Pittinsky et al., 2011; Stürmer et al., 2013; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2016; Nørfelt et al., 2019;), the desire to travel for the sole purpose of traveling and *not* reaching a destination has not been included yet. This desire, also referred to as wanderlust, has not been widely discussed nor examined in the extant literature (Shields, 2011). In fact, a recent search of past literature uncovered merely one study that identified wanderlust as a research variable (Holbrook and Olney, 1995). However, this has not prevented people in the past to actively use wanderlust as a term in their own, subjective way. Thereby, trying to define it through their written or visual work of art. In fact, several people have used wanderlust to describe or explain a certain vibe, mood, action, desire, lust, or a personality trait. For instance, several online dictionaries have tried to define wanderlust, however, they all vary from site to site (see e.g. Urban Dictionary, n.a.; Cambridge, n.a.; Your Dictionary, n.a.). One dictionary describes the term as ‘*a very strong desire to travel*’ (Your Dictionary, n.a.). Another states that wanderlust is ‘*the wish to travel far away and to many different places*’ (Cambridge Dictionary, n.a.). Moreover, many individuals further use wanderlust as the name for their online traveling blogs. Accordingly, they write about travel lifestyles, destinations, travel activities, and cultures (see e.g. The Wanderlust Post; The Wanderlust Blogger; World of Wanderlust; Chronic Wanderlust). Additionally, by searching on #wanderlust as a hashtag on Instagram, 117.288.621 posts appear. When glancing briefly through the posts, it appears that a majority of people use wanderlust as a hashtag when it comes to posts and photos that are related to traveling, faraway destinations, or wild and explorative activities (Instagram, 2020a).

Besides being a popular term on the Internet and on social media, wanderlust has also been used as chapter-headlines in fiction literature or as a way of describing a certain lifestyle or character (see e.g. Bollard, 2016; Laderman, 2016; Griffith, 2017; Tansella, 2017; Appel, 2019). It has also been used as a reference in several poems, for instance, to describe the search for the unfamiliar or unrecognizable (see e.g. Saxe, 1976). Furthermore, wanderlust has even been used to name popular movies and Netflix series, which try to capture the essence of wanderlust through their plot (see e.g. Wain, 2012; Snellin, 2018). Lastly, wanderlust is occasionally mentioned briefly in tourism and travel research literature in relation to other concepts, however, wanderlust has never been conceptualized nor studied in-depth in any context before.

Although wanderlust seems to be a popular term to use among individuals, specifically, in relation to the topic of traveling, it is clear that there is still missing a universal understanding and reliable definition of the term. It would be beneficial for both companies and consumers to gain a clear and consistent understanding of wanderlust. Based on this notion, it will be less complicated to use the term in several business contexts and it will further be easier to relate to the meaning in general. However, in order for wanderlust to be considered as a concept, or official travel motivator, within tourism literature, the term should be thoroughly conceptualized, reviewed, examined, and discussed like its fellow concepts, such as tourism xenophilia, allophilia, and xenocentrism have been in past and extant literature. Specifically, tourism xenophilia has been widely discussed in previous tourism literature. The concept in itself refers to *'an individual's attraction toward the perceived foreignness of destinations'* (Nørfelt et al., 2019). Thus, the concept fits well into the extant travel research literature in relation to travel motivation, where the main focus has been on destination image and selection (March and Woodside, 2005; Pike, 2002). However, a close examination of the limited literature on wanderlust and the literature on tourism xenophilia will reveal that there is a tendency to mix up the concepts. In fact, it seems as if a majority of individuals using wanderlust to describe a certain thing or a specific person actually are referring to tourism xenophilia and the meaning behind this concept. Hence, the current misperceptions need to be eliminated.

Thus, the intent of conceptualizing wanderlust is to, among other things, illuminate the concept, fulfill the current research gap, and give aim to further research in the theoretical field. In addition, by examining the concept thoroughly, a distinction will be made

between wanderlust and its related concepts, particularly the concept of tourism xenophilia. In addition, knowledge of wanderlust may provide several stakeholders with relevant insights in relation to a new, potential travel motive that has not been considered before together with new ways to segment the market (J.-H. Kim 2014).

1.1 Research Aim

The aim of this study is to conceptualize and investigate the construct *wanderlust* based on the foundation of travel motivation literature and on the existing, however, limited literature on the term. Furthermore, the study will consider the possible drivers and outcomes of wanderlust, while simultaneously comparing the construct with the already established concept of tourism xenophilia. This thesis is conducted to investigate a new and potential travel motivator and further intends to develop a reliable scale based on wanderlust to enable researchers and marketers to explore and conduct possible future research on the concept. Thus, the overall research question is:

What is Wanderlust and what does it drive and is driven by?

Indicatively, the purpose of this study is to examine and explore the following sub-questions:

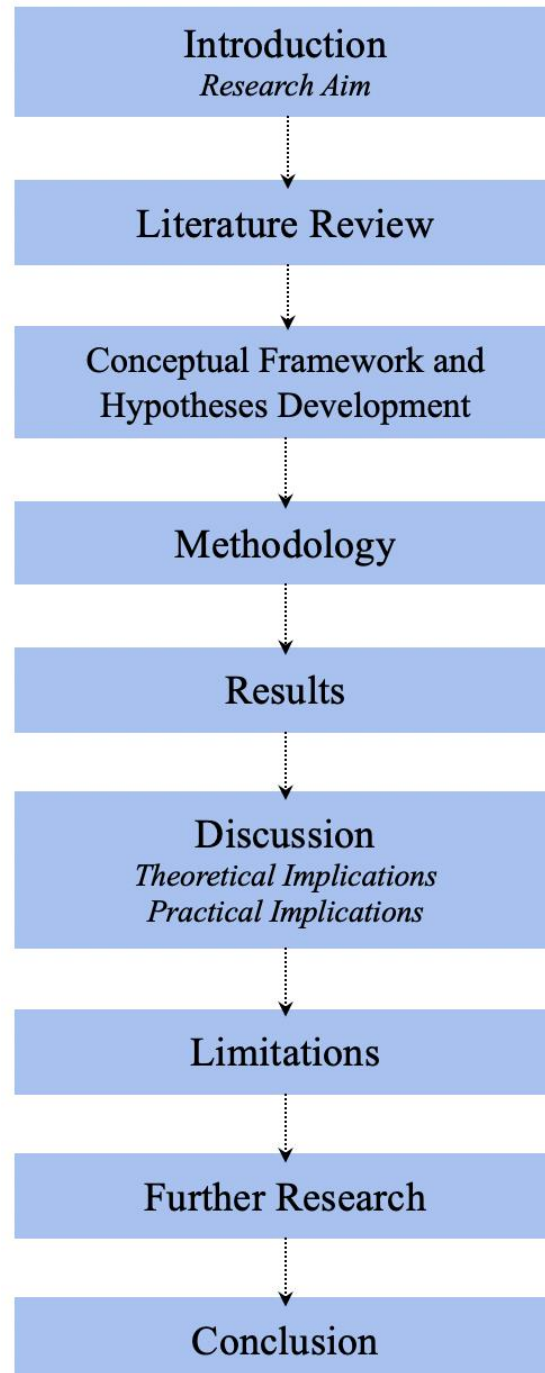
- 1. What drives the concept of wanderlust?***
- 2. What effect does wanderlust have on specific travel-related outcomes?***
- 3. What differences exist between wanderlust and tourism xenophilia?***

The thesis will be organized as follows. First, the relevant literature on the topic will be presented, hereunder, literature on travel motivation, wanderlust, and other relevant concepts that exist within travel research literature and which are further closely related to wanderlust, specifically the concept of tourism xenophilia. The presented literature review will be used as the foundation of our proposed hypotheses, which will be tested through an online survey of high complexity that are based on carefully selected scales. This will constitute our thesis' primary data. The thesis will continue to outline the methodological approach and framework for this study and the research conducted. The subsequent sections will report the findings of the study, followed by a discussion of both the theoretical and practical implications. Lastly,

we will present the limitations of this study and subsequently introduce the potential future research options based on this thesis. Finally, we will conclude upon our main findings.

A visual presentation of our thesis structure is presented in Figure 1 below:

Figure 1



Please note that the following words will be used interchangeably:

Terminology
Tourism Xenophilia; Xenophilia; Xenophiles; TXI <i>This concept will also be referred to as a focal variable; variable; or construct in a statistical matter</i>
Wanderlust; Wanderlusters; Wanderluristic traits; Wanderlust gene; Wanderlust travelers; Wanderluristic individuals; Wanderluristic consumers <i>This concept will also be referred to as a focal variable; variable; or construct in a statistical matter</i>
Company; Organizations
Stakeholders; Practitioners
Tourism research literature; Travel research literature
Tourism behavior; Travel behavior
Traveler; Tourist
Motivation; Motive

2. Literature Review

Firstly, an examination of the travel motivation literature will be presented in order to establish the theoretical foundation of this thesis. Secondly, we will introduce and examine the extant literature on wanderlust to provide the reader with a thorough understanding of the term and its origin. After setting the scene, a conceptualization of the term will be presented, including our final definition of wanderlust, which will be adhered to throughout this study. Subsequently, we will present other related concepts to wanderlust that exist within tourism and travel literature to provide an overall context of the terminology used within tourism scholars. Finally, we will establish a clear distinction between ‘wanderlust’ and ‘tourism

xenophilia' based on the existing theory and literature, which will be used as the foundation for our conceptual framework and hypotheses development (see section 3).

2.1 Travel Motivation

Due to globalization and lower travel costs, it has become both easier and more affordable for tourists to travel. Consequently, tourism managers are in a situation where they potentially can attract more tourists than ever before. Nevertheless, competition is harsh, and tourists need to make many kinds of travel decisions, including the selection of transport, accommodation, and activities. Therefore, understanding tourists' behavior and specifically what they base their travel choices on is of utmost importance to tourism managers (Nørfelt et al., 2019).

Motivation is commonly seen as the driving force behind all actions. As a psychological term, motivation compels individuals and yearns for action (Mohsin et al., 2017). Within tourism, travel motivation is a crucial factor that acts as a trigger that sets off all the events involved in travel (Brown, 2005). Within tourism research, a travel motive is specifically defined as *'the set of needs which predisposes a person to participate in a touristic activity'* (Mehmetoglu and Normann, 2013). Thus, motivation is a starting point for studying tourist behavior and, beyond that, for understanding systems of tourism (Pearce and Lee, 2005). In other words, it represents the whys and the wherefores of travel (Brown, 2005). As a result, travel motivation has received considerable attention in the tourism literature (Zehrer and Siller, 2007) and has, among other things, shown to be important in order to identify market segments, explain consumption patterns, and to understand revisit intentions (Larsen and Wolff, 2014). Although it is just one out of many variables explaining tourist behavior, it is regarded as one of the most important.

By examining the travel motivation literature, it appears that motivational research dates back to the Post-World War II era, and is, arguably, built upon the idea that the consumer is not always aware of the reason for his or her purchasing behavior. During the 50s and 60s, motive research received lots of attention for explaining consumer behavior. Accordingly, the field of motivation strives to clarify why behavior occurs. Specifically, the term 'motivation' stems from the Latin verb 'movere', which means 'to move'. Hence, motivation refers to the processes that move a person to behave in specific ways. Furthermore, a motive is a hypothetical construct, which outlines the inner drive of an individual, i.e., the basis for

behavior. A motive is therefore a reason for behavior, and motivation is the interaction of all motives in a concrete situation (Zehrer and Siller, 2007).

In addition, theorists within travel motivation literature have developed the concepts of 'pull' and 'push' motives. Push motives are socio psychological factors internal to the individual that explain the desire to go on a vacation. Crompton (1979), among other things, pointed to the need for relaxation, exploration, and social interaction as dominant push motives relevant to the vacation decision. On the contrary, pull motives are aroused by the destination and encompass climate characteristics, historical sights, and other destination characteristics. Thus, where push factors are believed to initiate the desire to travel, pull factors are thought to influence destination choices (Bello and Etzel, 1985).

In addition, Swarbrooke and Horner (2003) argued that the main factors driving an individual's tourist motivation are: personality, lifestyle, past experience, past life, perceptions, and image. Further, changes that occur within an individual's life stage, such as having a child or an increase or decrease in income, may also impact travel motives. Swarbrooke and Horner (2003) stated that no tourists are likely to be influenced by just one motivator. Instead, they are more likely to be affected by a number of them at any one time (Brown, 2005). Furthermore, built upon the premise that vacations offer an opportunity to re-evaluate and act out one's self-image, it has been suggested that travel behavior reflects a hierarchy of five levels of travel motives. These five levels of the 'Travel Career Ladder' are as follows: relaxation, stimulation, relationship, self-esteem development, and fulfillment. Thereby, it resembles Maslow's hierarchy of needs. This hierarchy could be related to the travel industry in the sense that unless individuals have their physiological and safety needs met, they are less likely to be interested in traveling the world (Mill and Morison, 2002). As with work careers, people start at different stages and are likely to move around at different stages during their life. Accordingly, the fulfillment that tourists seek from traveling can change throughout a lifetime (Brown, 2005).

Unlike the frequently measured purpose of travel (e.g., 'for business' or 'for pleasure'), which is rather simplistic, the motivation for traveling is seen as complex, as it reflects an individual's needs and wants (Pearce and Lee, 2005). Theorists have noted that travel motivation research is challenging due to, among other things, the wide range of human needs. Additionally, the universality of the topic makes it difficult to construct theories, which apply across cultures. Pearce and Lee (2005) argued that both travel choice and travel behavior will be understood a lot better if travel motivation theory and measurement are improved. In this

context, it is relevant to mention that the majority of studies within travel motivation revolve around destination image and destination selection (Pearce and Packer, 2013). The destination is, undoubtedly, one important and relevant aspect of what motivates tourists to travel. Nevertheless, as suggested by the investigation above, there exist several other motives behind traveling. A concept that has not been researched before is the concept of wanderlust. Based on this notion, we will introduce, examine, and discuss wanderlust in the following section.

2.2 Background and Conceptual Definition of ‘Wanderlust’

In general, researchers within tourism literature agree that psychological factors influence whether consumers will travel, their choice of destinations, how they will travel, and the activities they will engage in while traveling (Lehto et al., 2002). However, even the most comprehensive models developed to understand tourist motivation do not include the concept of wanderlust (Pearce and Lee, 2005). The concept of wanderlust has, in fact, not been widely discussed in past nor extant literature. Models of tourism consumption (for instance, Woodside and Dubelaar, 2002) usually start with the decision-making processes prior to taking an actual trip. In that sense, ‘the wanderlust gene’ could play an impactful role in any pre-travel decision-making process. That is, wanderlust would, arguably, provide motivation for the initial decision and desire to travel (Shields, 2011).

However, a recent search for past literature uncovered that the amount of literature on wanderlust is almost non-existing. In fact, it is only possible to stumble upon the concept in fiction, poetries, YouTube videos, blogs, movies, and series. Merely one scientific and reliable study has been conducted on the term (Shields, 2011). Although online dictionaries, fiction, and one research article have tried to conceptually define wanderlust in several ways, there is still no clear consensus (Shields, 2011). The first documented use of the term in English occurred in 1902. It was used as a reflection of a characteristically German preference for wandering, which may, in fact, be traced back to German Romanticism as well as the ‘Wanderbird’ seeking its unity with Nature (Erikson, 1993). The term in itself originates from the German words ‘wandern’ meaning ‘to hike’ and ‘lust’, which signifies a ‘desire’. Thus, by merging the two words together, the direct translation becomes: ‘*Enjoyment of hiking*’, although it is often used to describe an enjoyment of wandering or a desire to travel (Wikipedia, 2020). In the early twentieth century, Robert E. Park described the term in opposition to the

values of status and organization (Beirne, 2005), whereas postmodernism, in contrast, saw it as 'playfully empowering' (Ganser, 2009).

In Robert E. Park's and Ernest W. Burgess' (1984) work on Human Behavior in the Urban Environment, wanderlust is used to describe the mind of the 'hobo': '*The trouble with the hobo mind is not lack of experience, but lack of a vocation. The hobo is, to be sure, always on the move, but he has no destination, and naturally he never arrives*' (Park and Burgess, 1984). In addition, wanderlust is defined as the elementary expression of the romantic temperament and the romantic interest in life. According to Park and Burgess (1984), wanderlust has assumed for the hobo, as for so many others, the character of the vice. Moreover, the hobo has gained his freedom, but has at the same time lost his direction. In this sense, restlessness and the impulse to escape from the routine of ordinary life drive the hobo, who further seeks change solely for the sake of change: '*It is a habit, and, like the drug habit, moves in a vicious circle*' (Park and Burgess, 1984).

A greater portion of literature further relies upon this definition of wanderlust as a trait that reflects a desire to travel and a strong focus on the journey – not the destination. In a tourism research journal, Peggy O. Shields (2011) defined wanderlust as a '*strong desire to travel*', '*the positive drive to travel*', and '*the compulsion to travel*', which corresponds to the definitions published by several online dictionaries: '*A strong desire to travel*', '*Someone who has wanderlust has a strong desire to travel*', and '*A very strong or irresistible impulse to travel*' (Oxford, Collins, Urban Dictionary). The aim of this specific study was to examine the tendencies of wanderlust among college students. Moreover, the tourism marketing journal intended to determine the impact of wanderlust on past travel profiles, current attitudes towards travel, and on anticipated travel behavior for both vacation and business travel. What could be derived from the study was that those college students who traveled a great amount prior to college also traveled more after entering college compared to those who did not travel a lot as children. Thus, starting in childhood and continuing into expectations for the future, travel patterns are, according to Shields, impacted by the 'wanderlust trait' (Shield, 2011).

Other traits of wanderlust are implied in, for instance, literary fiction such as the following quotation taken from Anne Milano Appel's (2019) English translation of the Italian work of Dino Campana with the headline 'wanderlust': '*Are you traveling far?*', '*I don't know*', *he replied. 'I have no idea where this train is going.'* '*Then why did you take it?*' *the man asked logically, 'if you don't even know where it's going?' 'To travel,' he said, 'because trains travel'*

(Appel, 2019). What this short sample tries to capture is that wanderlust, arguably, can be defined as ‘traveling just to travel – not to go somewhere specific’, meaning that it is not the destination that is important nor the goal of the trip. It is the journey in itself that matters. The man on the train does not care about where or in which direction the train is heading. He simply uses the train because it can help him on his journey to travel (Appel, 2019).

Another text that supports this implied attitude towards the term wanderlust, is a poem carrying the term itself as the headline. It begins as follows: ‘*Searching for something that I won’t recognize... That isn’t anywhere I’ve been. That won’t be there when I arrive – Not that I know where to look, even if I knew what I was after (...)*’ (Saxe, 1976). Looking at the tone of the poetry and the chosen vocabulary, one may assume that wanderlust is applied to describe a state of mind or a way of living. What can further be derived from this statement is that people with wanderlust, again, travel just to travel – sometimes without knowing exactly where they are going or what they are looking for. Hence, the destination is not important to people carrying the ‘wanderlust gene’. This view is further supported in online blogs. For instance, a blog under the name ‘wanderlust worker’ has created a post dedicated to wanderlust with the headline ‘*Focus On the Journey Not the Destination*’ (Wanderlustworker.com, n.a.). The blog post begins with a quote from Greg Anderson saying: ‘*Focus on the journey, not the destination. Joy is found not in finishing an activity but in doing it*’ (Wanderlustworker.com, n.a.). Supplementary, another blog post created by the company Aiesec, which is an organization that provides young people with opportunities to develop themselves through international programs, has provided the Internet with their take on the term wanderlust. The post describes wanderlust as ‘*a deep uncontrollable desire to hit the road and travel*’, and further uses quotes such as ‘*life is a journey, not a destination*’ (Aiesec, 2015). These statements further support the rather consistent view saying that wanderlust is not about reaching a destination. In fact, wanderlust is not about reaching any type of objective.

Another stream of literature has also used the term wanderlust to describe characters or a specific atmosphere. A biography about the famous economist Bill Phillips contains a chapter under the name ‘wanderlust’ (Bollard, 2016). Here, it is made clear that Bill Phillips is a man that, arguably, possesses ‘wanderlusting traits’ due to his life on the road and his way of living: ‘*Bill had not set out to be a swagman; rather he was more like a young international backpacker years ahead of his time, seeking out life’s experiences*’ (Bollard, 2016). Thus, Bill

Phillips was essentially a man who used to travel the world and live on the edge with almost no money; characteristics that could be connected to the concept of wanderlust.

Scott Laderman (2016) also uses wanderlust to describe a specific trait, in this case, the surfer's state of mind. In a diplomatic historical journey, Scott Laderman (2016) examines the history of surfing in Hawaii in the long 1970's: '*Surfing was about the search, the journey, the discovery*' – an utterance, which supplements the view that wanderlust is about the journey in itself. Daniel Firth Griffith (2017) further examines wanderlust in the west. His best definition of wanderlust was found in his grandfather's memoirs: '*Wanderlust was the desire to explore beyond the safe harbors of one's own world*' (Griffith, 2017). This definition highlights the great interest for exploration that could, arguably, be connected to the term wanderlust. That is, to move beyond the border of your home and search for something else, to discover something more, or simply to travel through an unfamiliar area to learn and explore something new. In addition, a journal of history of psychiatry examines the life of Auguste Forestier's and his 'unbroken wanderlust' (Tansella, 2017). The text initiates with the following sentence: '*Auguste Forestier began running away as an adolescent, taking the train without a ticket for long journeys. His longing for the faraway may explain these repeated escapades (...)*' (Tansella, 2017). As seen with the literature examined above, wanderlust is about the journey. The destination is not mentioned, as it is not of great importance. Instead, it is the longing of being on the road that potentially drives 'the wanderluster' to leave home and explore the world, suggesting that traveling can be a mental journey rather than a physical one. This may indicate that travel can be a form of meditation for individuals with wanderlust.

This view is further highlighted in YouTube videos, where different channels have created their take on the term. For instance, BBC Ideas (2020) created a video under the name 'Why do some people have wanderlust - and not others?'. The video is initiated with the quote created by Lovelle Drachman: '*Blessed are the curious for they shall have adventures*', which, according to BBC, is certainly true for people with wanderlust. The video further describes the wanderluster as someone with an insatiable appetite for travel, and further argues that the people who want to travel far and wide have it in their genes, that is, 'the wanderlust gene' (BBC Ideas, 2020). Another YouTube channel called BuzzFeed has illustrated their view on wanderlust. In a short video, they portray the different signs you can look after to determine whether you have wanderlust. These are signs such as (1) daydreaming of being abroad, (2)

bringing your passport everywhere, and (3) feeling most at home, when you are not at home (BuzzFeed, 2013).

In contrast, other literature believe that wanderlust may reflect an intense urge for self-development by exploring the unknown, confronting unforeseen challenges, getting to know unfamiliar cultures, ways of life, and behaviors (Fenichel, 1946). In other words, some literature does not use wanderlust in relation to travel for the *sole* purpose of traveling, although a majority of the extant literature adapts this view. Instead, they focus on the exploration part by suggesting that wanderlust, in fact, is about discovering the unknown – whether it is in, for example, the destination, people, sex partners, or lifestyles.

For instance, according to Gray's travel motivation theory, wanderlust is described as '*the desire to go from a known to an unknown place*'. This definition may look familiar looking at the literature examined above (Gray, 1970). Nonetheless, in his theory, wanderlust is one of the motives that can help us understand why nature tourists search for settings, which are different from the city-work-home routine (Rhodes, 2003). However, he further identifies wanderlust as a '*basic trait of some individuals that causes them to leave familiar things behind and seek out exciting new places and new cultures*' (Gray, 1970). He, then, classifies tourists into categories, wanderlust being one of them. 'Wanderlust tourists' was, in this sense, described as those who want to '*soak in the culture and explore the different environments of the destination, to seek novel, uncommon experiences, and gain new knowledge*' (Gray, 1970). Moreover, a person possessing wanderlust traits is someone who seeks '*different cultures, institutions, and cuisine*' (Gray, 1970). Looking more closely at these definitions, however, it seems as if Gray is describing the well-known and researched phenomena of xenophilia and tourism xenophilia - and not wanderlust.

This may arguably also be the case of the popular magazine carrying the name itself: The Wanderlust magazine. This magazine is a trustworthy source of travel inspiration, attracting approximately 700.000 unique users every month (Wanderlust.co.uk, 2020). The magazine describes its readers as 'wanderlust', uttering that 'the planning is almost as exciting as the trip itself'. In addition, they emphasize the importance of the destination and experiencing indigenous culture and gastronomy (Wanderlust.co.uk, 2020). Hence, one could argue that there is a slight tendency in the extant literature to confuse wanderlust with the concept of xenophilia and tourism xenophilia. The reason being that xenophilia is described as an attraction to people, cultures, cross-cultural exploration, and destinations (see e.g. Stürmer

et al. 2013; Nørfelt et al., 2019). Components, which, arguably, are not associated with the essential traits of wanderlust described in the majority of the contemporary literature on wanderlust.

Consequently, this tendency can also be found in the film industry. In 2012, David Wain directed a movie with the title 'Wanderlust'. The storyline follows a Manhattan couple who surveys alternative living options after being rattled by a sudden unemployment. The couple ultimately decides to experiment with living on a rural commune where free love rules (Wain, 2012). Although wanderlust is not explained or explored in a literal sense, it could be argued that Wain's interpretations of wanderlust come to live in the overall plot of the movie. In this case, wanderlust is about discovering something new and leaving your current life behind to explore the unknown in relation to people and alternative lifestyles.

Another supporter of this view could be Luke Snellin, who created a Netflix series in 2018 under the title 'Wanderlust' as well. This series is about an exploration of the relationships of a multigenerational family, looking at how happy relationships are created and maintained, while exploring whether lifelong monogamy could be a game changer for them (Snellin, 2018). Although the storyline is different, what can be derived in relation to the meaning of wanderlust is, in fact, the same; to explore something new, maybe even something better. These takes on wanderlust tend to focus on a specific objective. That is, wanderlust is, in this sense, described as exploring the unknown and something new in relation to people, cultures, and lifestyles, thereby also describing what seems to be the definition of tourism xenophilia instead.

Thus, the current disagreement and misalignment in the extant literature regarding the conceptualization of the term 'wanderlust' and what constitutes it deserves clarity and closer scrutiny. Hence, the prevailing research gap needs to be filled. Although most literature either defines wanderlust or portray wanderlust as something related to either traveling or exploring the unknown, we find it necessary to create a clear distinction and definition of the term 'wanderlust'. Based on a thorough review of the existing literature, this study argues that wanderlust is, in fact, a term that should exist within tourism literature and the travel industry. In addition, it further seems as if a great portion of the perspectives on 'the wanderlust gene' are misinterpreted and confused with the concept of tourism xenophilia. Since wanderlust, as a term, is not conceptualized yet, meaning that there does not exist a commonly used nor official definition of wanderlust, we find it necessary to create a definition that can fulfill this existing gap. Thus, in the following section, we will suggest our conceptual definition of

wanderlust taking into account the literature introduced above. However, it should be noted that the literature portraying wanderlust with xenophilic traits will be rejected.

Back in 1879, author Robert Louis Stevenson published a book under the name ‘Travels with a Donkey in the Cévennes’. Stevenson expresses what may be the first written case of wanderlust: *‘I travel not to go anywhere, but to go. I travel for the travel’s sake. The great affair is to move’* (Stevenson, 1993). What can be derived from this sentence is that an individual who possesses the wanderlust gene does not need to go anywhere specific. That is, the destination is not the focal point. A ‘wanderluster’ does not necessarily need to stay in one spot only. They are curious to explore the journey in itself - not the destination.

Taking the contemporary literature into account, we therefore define Wanderlust as: ***‘An individual’s desire to travel for the sole purpose of traveling rather than reaching a destination’***. We believe that this definition captures the essence of ‘the wanderluristic traits’ described in most of the extant literature and is further distinct from the definition of tourism xenophilia. Thus, the conducted definition will be adhered to throughout this study. The present study and definition are built on the perception that wanderlust is not about traveling to a specific destination, traveling in or with a group, nor becoming part of an outgroup and exploring new cultures. Instead, traveling, in this sense, is simply about the journey. In other words, one could argue that traveling has two main aspects: *How* (experience) and *Where* (the destination) (Gadhiya, 2019). In this notion, wanderlust belongs to the ‘how’. That is, wanderlust is about being abroad; the adventure, the expedition, the hike, the walk, the road - the journey. It is the individual’s desire to travel just to travel - not the desire to reach a destination or the purpose of becoming part of an out-group and engaging with locals, as some literature have portrayed it. The latter, however, refers to other related concepts to wanderlust, which will be examined in the following section.

2.3 Related concepts

In order to give a proper view of the terminology and concepts that exist within travel research literature, we find it relevant to outline several distinct concepts, which are, in some way or another, related to wanderlust, thereby resembling the former definitions and newly developed definition of wanderlust. For a discussion around the specific differences and similarities

between wanderlust and the related concepts, please see the section following table 1. It should be noted that this section is only created to give the reader a wider perspective of the extant concepts. The chosen definitions have been selected on an examination of past literature.

Table 1

	Objective	Definition	Ex. reference
Wanderlust	The journey, adventure, curiosity, exploration, restlessness, novelty seeking, lack of vocation	<i>'An individual's desire to travel for the sole purpose of traveling rather than reaching a destination' (this thesis)</i>	Emma B. Nielsson and Emma N. Tangø (2020) - This thesis
Allophilia	People, culture, general positive attitude towards foreign countries, 'love for the other'	<i>'An individual's feelings of affection, engagement, kinship, comfort, and enthusiasm toward members of a group seen as 'different' and 'other'' (Pittinsky, Rosenthal, and Montoya, 2009)</i>	- Pittinsky, Rosenthal, and Montoya, 2009 - Pittinsky et al. 2011
Tourism Xenophilia	People, the destination, culture, general positive attitude towards foreign countries, in-group and out-group bias, 'love for the stranger', curiosity	<i>'An individual's attraction toward the perceived foreignness of destinations' (Nørfelt et al., 2019)</i>	- Stürmer, 2013 - Nørfelt et al., 2019 - Perlmutter, 1954
Xenocentrism	People, the destination, culture, positive out-group bias, negative in-group bias	<i>'Individuals who prefer a society other than their own and who rate and scale everything in reference to it and not to their own' (Kent and Burnight, 1951, p. 258).</i>	- Kent and Burnight, 1951 -Diamantopoulos, 2019
Cosmopolitanism	People, culture, cultural objectivity	<i>'A set of beliefs, attitudes, and qualities that involve a conscious openness to the world and to cultural differences' (Prince et al., 2016).</i>	- Prince et al., 2016 - Szeszynski and Urry, 2002

Consumer affinity	People, culture, positive attitude towards specific countries	<i>'A spontaneous or natural liking or sympathy for someone or something' (Oberecker et al., 2008)</i>	- Oberecker et al. 2008 - Hartz et al., 2005
Sunlust	The destination, tourism-related amenities	<i>'The natural attractions that motivate people to travel to other destinations such as the climate and relaxation' (Gray, 1970, as cited in Fry et al. 2010).</i>	- Gray, 1970 - Kulendran and Wilson, 2000

In order to provide an overall context of the terminology used within travel literature and to differentiate the concept of wanderlust from neighboring concepts, we will, in the following outline the six concepts of allophilia, tourism xenophilia, xenocentrism, cosmopolitanism, consumer affinity, and sunlust. As opposed to wanderlust, the six respective concepts have been conceptualized and researched to a greater extent in various research articles and will therefore be examined below.

The Harvard professor Todd Pittinsky coined the concept of 'allophilia', while he was studying individuals' positive out-group biases, as he realized he was unable to find the antonym to 'prejudice' in any dictionary (Pettus, 2006). The concept of 'allophilia' stems from the Greek words of 'liking' or 'love' for the 'other'. Allophilia refers to an individual's feelings of affection, engagement, kinship, comfort, and enthusiasm toward members of a group seen as 'different' and 'other' (Pittinsky et al., 2009). Thus, similar to the concept of wanderlust, allophilia revolves around being curious and open towards something that is different or 'other' than the usual. However, wanderlust and allophilia differ to a great extent in terms of the element of people or the 'out-group'. Having a positive attitude toward out-groups is central to allophilia (Pittinsky et al., 2011), whereas an individual with traits of wanderlust will not necessarily be interested in this interaction.

The second concept, which precedes the concept of 'allophilia', yet is very similar in its meaning, is 'xenophilia'. The two concepts are intertwined, and as a result, many researchers use both concepts to explain the same phenomenon, i.e., a love or liking of the out-group (Stürmer et al., 2013). However, the two concepts are not completely similar in their definitions. While 'allophilia' refers to a liking or a love for the 'other', xenophilia specifically refers to a liking or a love for the 'stranger'. One may argue that the concept of xenophilia rose as an opponent to the concept of 'xenophobia', which is the rejection of foreigners and

intergroup hostility (Nørfelt et al., 2019). More specifically, it is defined as the avoidance and dislike of out-group members (Fincher and Thornhill, 2012) and the manifestation of fear of difference and foreignness (Dove, 1998). Nevertheless, psychologists and anthropologists already recognized the concept of ‘xenophilia’ back in the 1950’s, documenting that some individuals are attracted to foreignness (Stürmer et al., 2013). In recent years, however, there has been a more extensive focus upon the concept of ‘xenophilia’. The concept stems from *xénos* and *philia*, meaning ‘stranger’ and ‘love’ or ‘friendship’ (Stürmer et al., 2013). In accordance, Perlmutter (1954) defines xenophilia as a ‘*love for strangers and foreigners*’, whereas more contemporary literature defines it as ‘*an attraction to foreign people, cultures, or customs that manifests itself in curiosity and hospitality toward foreigners and benevolent cross-cultural exploration*’ (Stürmer et al., 2013). Thus, xenophilia is a positive out-group bias; ‘*a favorable attitude toward exploratory contact with individuals from other groups that are perceived as culturally different and unfamiliar on the basis of their language, ethnicity, habits, or customs*’ (Stürmer et al., 2013). The concept has also been specifically defined within travel research as ‘Tourism Xenophilia’: ‘*An individual’s attraction toward the perceived foreignness of destinations*’ (Nørfelt et al., 2019). Thus, tourism xenophilia can be understood as an attraction toward foreign destinations that can be traced back to an innate drive to explore beyond the borders of the in-group. In accordance, these studies show that ‘tourism xenophilia’ explains several important tourist and resident behaviors, such as willingness to engage with locals, resident hospitality, support for immigration policies, and travel to foreign destinations (Nørfelt et al., 2019). By comparing the concept of wanderlust to the concept of tourism xenophilia, the two show high resemblance in regard to the terms of ‘exploration’ and ‘curiosity’. However, the exploration manifests itself differently within the two concepts; tourism xenophilia revolves around an attraction towards exploring a specific destination (e.g. foreign people, cultures, and customs), whereas wanderlust revolves around the journey of traveling.

A third concept, which simultaneously captures out-group favoritism as well as in-group derogation is ‘xenocentrism’ (Diamantopoulos, 2019). Hence, in contrast to the concepts of allophilia and xenophilia, ‘xenocentrism’ does not only relate to a fascination of the out-group, but an actual favoritism of it. Xenocentrism can be defined as ‘*the belief that what is foreign is best, that our own lifestyle, products, or ideas are inferior to those of others*’ (Eshleman et al., 1993). Xenocentrism was initially conceived as a counterpart to Sumner's

(1906) ethnocentrism concept, which represents how individuals accept or reject others based on in-group similarity vs. out-group difference (Prince et al., 2016). In contrast to ethnocentrism, xenocentrism characterizes '*individuals who prefer a society other than their own and who rate and scale everything in reference to it and not to their own*' (Kent and Burnight, 1951). According to Kent and Burnight (1951), '*xenocentrism is a psychological attitude which implies a biased view.... One who is ethnocentric sees virtues where none exist; one who is xenocentric sees faults where none exist*'. Evidently, the key attribute of xenocentrism is favoritism toward out-groups coupled with negative stereotypical perceptions of one's own group (i.e., the in-group) (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2016). The concept of xenocentrism, to some extent, resembles the concept of wanderlust, again in terms of an attraction to the unknown. However, the two concepts are highly dissimilar in terms of the prejudice and biased view that xenocentrism represents, as xenocentric individuals generally prefer other societies over their own. In comparison, the concept of wanderlust does not represent a biased view; a person with wanderlusting traits is not biased in regard to the individual's in- or outgroup. The concept of wanderlust, in contrast to xenocentrism, does not even mention in- or out-groups. Thus, the two concepts of wanderlust and xenocentrism, as with the previous concepts, again differ in regard to the element of 'people'.

In contrast to xenocentrism and ethnocentrism, the fourth concept of 'cosmopolitanism' neither refers to biases toward the in-group nor the out-group, but instead implies an objective evaluation of all groups on their own merits (Kent and Burnight, 1951). In the literature, consumers displaying cultural objectivity are known as cosmopolitans (Prince et al., 2016). Openness toward global culture or citizenship replaces any single country bias. According to Szerszynski and Urry (2002), '*cosmopolitanism involves the search for, and delight in, the contrasts between societies rather than a longing for superiority or for uniformity*'. (Prince et al., 2016) Within the domain of marketing, consumer cosmopolitanism has been outlined as an intrinsic personality trait, a value, and an attitude (Thompson and Tambyah, 1999 as cited by Prince et al., 2016). Furthermore, the concept is defined as '*a set of beliefs, attitudes, and qualities that involve a conscious openness to the world and to cultural differences*' (Prince et al., 2016). Cosmopolitanism involves a willingness to interact with others and an open-mindedness to other cultures and the world in general. Thus, the cosmopolitan individual welcomes and endorses the local culture, accompanying it with other cultural perspectives and values (Prince et al., 2016). As noted by Prince et al. (2016), '*as opposed to being pulled toward*

(ethnocentric) or away from (xenocentric) the home/national culture, the cosmopolitan is at home everywhere'. This open, unbiased, and objective view that cosmopolitanism represents is rather similar to the concept of wanderlust. Both concepts revolve around an openness to what is unknown. Nevertheless, the concept of cosmopolitanism yet again mentions the interaction with others, which is the key differentiator from wanderlust.

In contrast to the four concepts mentioned above, the fifth concept of 'consumer affinity' does not explore general positive attitudes toward foreign countries, but instead the impact of country-specific favorable attitudes (Oberecker et al., 2008). People frequently harbor affinities toward specific foreign countries, which for example is reflected in preferences for certain countries as trade partners, and the choice of vacation destinations (Oberecker et al., 2008). Countries can evoke a diverse set of affective responses, such as sympathy and interest (Dijker, 1987), which in turn can affect general decision-making around whether to purchase a product or travel to a particular country. The concept of affinity is derived from the Latin expression *affinitas* meaning 'related' or, more literally, 'bordering on'. The concept is defined as *'a spontaneous or natural liking or sympathy for someone or something'* (Oberecker et al. 2008). Sociology literature further defines the concept as *'forces that cause one person ... to be drawn to, and seek a relationship with, another ... based on the latter's attributes'* (Hartz et al., 2005). Thus, the concept of consumer affinity, as for the concept of wanderlust, constitutes an interest in the unknown. However, the two concepts differ in regard to the elements of 'people' and 'destination'. Consumer affinity revolves around building relationships or being drawn to others, which the concept of wanderlust does not mention. Moreover, the concept of consumer affinity puts its emphasis on specific countries; individuals with consumer affinity harbor affinities toward specific foreign countries, which is in contrast to the concept of wanderlust that values the journey, not the destination.

As earlier mentioned, Gray (1970) classifies tourists into categories, with wanderlust being one of them, and the sixth and last concept of 'sunlust' being the other. According to Gray, the existence (or lack) of better or different tourism-related amenities than are available locally determines sunlust travel. This creates a 'push-pull' motivation, whereby the attractions of the destination pull tourists and the relative lack of attractive home-based characteristics push travelers to distant destinations (Kulendran and Wilson, 2000). Thus, sunlust can be defined as *'the natural attractions that motivate people to travel to other destinations such as the climate and relaxation'* (Gray, 1970, as cited in Fry et al. 2010). In contrast to the five

concepts mentioned above, both the concepts of sunlust and wanderlust do not deal with the element of 'people'. However, while the concept of sunlust revolves around tourism-related amenities, which makes a certain destination attractive to the sunlust traveler, the concept of wanderlust is concerned with the journey itself and not the destination.

In conclusion, the six concepts above all represent an attraction to foreignness, which, arguably, can give rise to an individual's motivation to travel. However, a common characteristic, which first and foremost, differentiates them from the concept of wanderlust is that all six concepts, despite that of Sunlust, do not incorporate the desire or motivation to travel in the mere definition. Even though the concept of sunlust does include the word 'travel' in its definition and describes a travel motivator, the concept puts its entire emphasis upon pull-factors such as tourism-related amenities, which are directly related to the travel destination, rather than the journey. Thus, making a clear differentiation to the concept of wanderlust. The concepts of allophilia, xenocentrism, consumer affinity, and cosmopolitanism can, furthermore, be argued to encompass psychological attitudes, which revolve around preferences and biased views upon other people and groups, rather than solely explaining a motivation for traveling. Even though the concept of tourism xenophilia does not relate directly to traveling in its definition, it represents a deep-rooted attraction to foreign destinations, which manifests itself in curiosity toward foreigners and cross-cultural exploration. Thus, the concept represents a desire to travel in the sense of seeking fulfillment of the need for exploration and attraction to something new and unknown in relation to out-groups, cultures, and foreign destinations.

2.4 Two distinct concepts: Wanderlust vs. Tourism Xenophilia

When comparing the concept of wanderlust to the one of tourism xenophilia, it becomes evident that both concepts are directly linked to the individual's motivation or compulsion to travel and predisposition of being a tourist. In addition, both concepts are related to an individual's innate curiosity, desire to experience the world, and being open-minded towards the unknown. First and foremost, it should be noted that the concept of TXI was chosen as it is closely related to, however, also distinct from the concept of wanderlust. In order to establish wanderlust as a concept, we therefore find it relevant to simultaneously compare wanderlust with an already established construct and to further test for any variances between the two respective focal variables in relation to specific drivers and outcomes. This will be examined

and discussed in the Hypotheses Development and Conceptual Framework (X.X) of this thesis. In addition, the concept of tourism xenophilia has its roots in the concept of xenophilia, as TXI can be understood as an attraction toward foreign destinations that can be traced back to the innate drive to explore beyond the borders of the in-group (Nørfelt et al., 2019). Thereby, it includes the desire to travel to destinations *as well as* the favorability towards out-groups, that is, foreign cultures and people. Thus, this thesis will adhere to TXI in terms of terminology rather than xenophilia due to the obvious travel element of ‘tourism xenophilia’.

As outlined previously, tourism xenophilia can be understood as a concept, which relates to seeking contact with out-group members (Pittinsky, 2011), and showing an interest in foreign cultures and traditions. It furthermore relates to having a curious mindset and traveling in order to reach a certain destination.

First, by taking wanderlust into account in this context, the two concepts, arguably, differentiate by the mere fact that the concept of wanderlust is not related to human contact as such in the literature. In comparison, a xenophile is highly interested in becoming part of a local community, i.e., to become part of a particular out-group and in that sense explore and understand ‘foreignness’ to its fullest. For instance, by eating local food, engaging with local people, and living in local houses (Nørfelt et al. 2019).

Secondly, by looking at the commonalities of the concepts, it can be argued that wanderlust and tourism xenophilia also share some of the same characteristics. For instance, a curious mindset, the strong desire to travel, and an interest in the exploration of new things. However, as the current literature on wanderlust has illustrated, the exact destination may not be of great importance; it is the journey and the exploration of the unknown that is the center of attention. On the contrary, one may argue that it is the destination that is specifically important, when looking at tourism xenophilia. As the definition implies, xenophiles are interested in exploratory contact with individuals from other groups (Stürmer et al., 2013). Thus, the destination may be of greater importance when choosing which country, and thereby which culture and out-groups to visit and explore. This exploratory mindset is therefore different in a sense that xenophiles, arguably, know what they are looking for, whereas people with traits of wanderlust may never find out. However, as the literature has highlighted, this is not a crucial component to a person with traits of wanderlust, and for this reason, it is, among other things, a crucial differentiating factor between the two concepts.

Lastly, whereas tourism xenophilia has been researched and covered within tourism scholars, it is made clear that wanderlust is not conceptually anchored in any existing literature or theories developed so far. Thus, motivated by the lack of research on wanderlust in tourism and travel research, and its potentially important theoretical contributions and practical implications, we find it interesting to explore this research gap with the purpose of adding a new and latent travel motivator. To further establish wanderlust as a concept within travel research literature, more specifically as a travel motive within the travel motivation literature, it would be beneficial to compare the term to an already established concept. Although there exist several concepts within the travel research literature, as presented above, we find it necessary to compare wanderlust with the concept of tourism xenophilia. The reason being that both the concept of wanderlust and the concept of tourism xenophilia represent an individual's desire to travel, and, as presented previously, they share several differences, however, also several commonalities, which makes this comparison interesting.

2.5 Summary

An introduction and examination have been made on the extant literature on Wanderlust (WA) and other relevant and related concepts that exist within travel research literature. Based on the minimum amount of literature and theories that exist on wanderlust, we have created a definition of the concept and started the conceptualization process. As wanderlust has been described in past literature in relation to individuals' strong desire to travel without necessarily having a specific purpose, we have conducted a definition of the concept that sounds as follows: *'An individual's desire to travel for the sole purpose of traveling rather than reaching a destination'*. This definition will be adhered to throughout this study. In addition, the literature review has presented the reader with other related concepts within travel research literature that has been conceptualized and examined before. Among these exist the concept of Xenophilia, more specifically Tourism Xenophilia (TXI). By examining the extant literature and theories on this concept, it is made clear that WA and TXI are closely related in terms of previous definitions on WA and in the way both concepts are described in past literature. Consequently, the two concepts are rather intertwined, which has resulted in researchers using both concepts to explain the same things in past literature. This may be due to the fact that the two concepts have been linked to, among other things, individuals' motivation or compulsion to travel. Furthermore, both concepts have also been closely linked to the same use of terminology, such

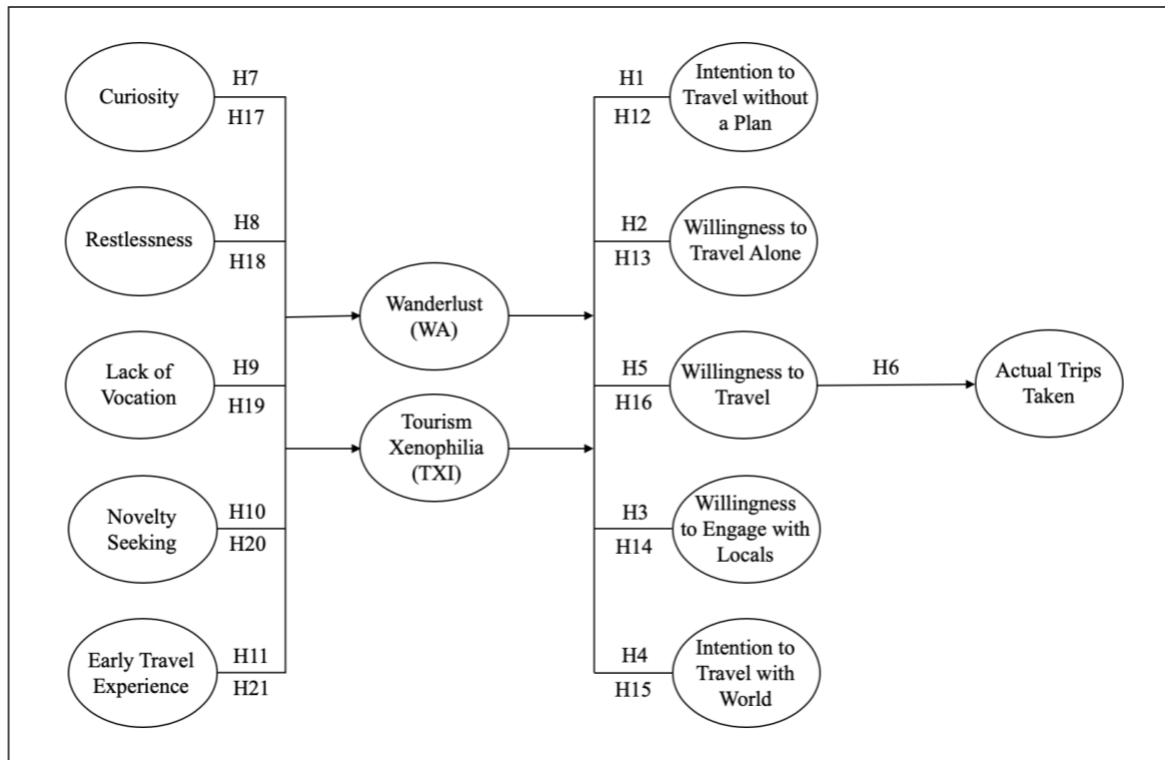
as ‘exploration’, ‘novelty seeking’, and ‘mind-wandering’ or the like. However, the two concepts differ significantly in relation to ‘destination’; whereas individuals with wanderlust would travel for the sole purpose of traveling and not reaching a destination, individuals with tourism xenophilia consider the destination as a crucial motivator, thereby indicating a significant difference as well.

Thus, by taking our literature review as our point of departure, we find it interesting to examine and conceptualize WA, while, in parallel to this study, test various drivers and outcomes on both WA and TXI in order to establish wanderlust as a concept as well as test for any possible variations between the two concepts. In order to test these, several hypotheses will be made, which will be presented in the following section.

3. Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses Development

The previous sections elaborated on and discussed the extant literature on, among other things, the two focal variables: Wanderlust (WA) and Tourism Xenophilia (TXI). Whereas TXI has been conceptualized in past literature, WA has still not received any thorough attention and has, therefore, not been conceptualized either. However, there has been a tendency to use the two concepts alongside each other within the travel research and travel motivation literature. Thus, in the following section, we develop and present several hypotheses concerning the drivers of wanderlust together with the possible outcomes and effect, which wanderlust has on different intentional and behavioral constructs. Moreover, this is based on the written philosophy that *‘the usefulness of a scale is determined by how well it predicts relevant and varied phenomena’* (Kock, Josiassen, and Assaf, 2018). Although the drivers and outcomes of this study are of diverse nature, they have all been derived from humans’ fundamental motive of exploration and the unfamiliar (Nørfelt et al., 2019). Subsequently, we will present the hypotheses related to tourism xenophilia (TXI), which is based on the same drivers and outcomes concerning the concept of wanderlust. This will enable us to compare the two focal variables. Moreover, it will enhance the possibility of showing that, although they are similar in several ways, wanderlust and tourism xenophilia are, in fact, different concepts, which is affected by different drivers and further have an impact on different outcomes. Through the developed hypotheses, we therefore intend to offer new interdisciplinary insights (Figure 2).

Figure 2



The first hypothesis focuses on the individual’s intention to travel without a plan. In general, vacations provide an opportunity to make many choices. That is, travelers can choose a destination, travel companions, lodging, restaurants, activities, modes of travel, and so on (Stewart and Vogt, 1999). However, we argue that people with wanderlust tend to favor the unpredictable. Hence, they do not like to plan a vacation in detail because it takes away some of the unexpectedness. In fact, people with wanderlust would probably prefer to take off on a trip with no pre-planned routes in their mind. This is, among other things, due to the novelty seeking gene that people with wanderlust have. That is, the individual’s desire for novelty; to experience something new and different (Steward and Vogt, 1999). Consequently, few studies have been made within this area. However, a study investigating international students’ travel behavior proposes that planning involvement is negatively related to utilitarian value, indirectly lowering satisfaction, thereby suggesting that consumers are more likely to be satisfied when they have less strong expectations of a trip or travel destination (Babin and Kim, 2001). Thus, we propose that people with wanderlust are more likely to travel without making any pre-planning.

Hypothesis 1: WA has a positive effect on individuals' intention to travel without a plan

Previous census and literature suggest that solo travel, that is, traveling without a companion, is among the fastest growing segments (Jordan and Gibson, 2005; Mehmetoglu et al., 2001; Opaschowski, 2006), driven by shifts in social structures and lifestyles. Factors such as an active, aging population, the rise of childless couples and later marriage, and especially a rising population of singles have combined produced a substantial change in travel and leisure demands. Indeed, solo travelers prefer freedom and flexibility (Laesser et al., 2008) and thus, it can be argued that solo travelers are part of what is referred to as the independent travelers group, which are people who arrive in a country alone and thus have flexibility in their itinerary and some degree of freedom in where they choose to travel (Lawson and Hyde, 2003). According to the Travel Industry Association of America (TIA), leisure travel comprises a total of 82 percent of US domestic person-trips, of which almost a third, that is, 31 percent, are made by persons traveling alone. Thus, traveling on their own and exploring at their own pace seem to have a great appeal for many travelers (Chiang and Jogaratnam, 2005). Since wanderlust often has been used in the literature to describe individuals who have traveled alone, we therefore believe that wanderlust may show a positive effect on individuals' willingness to travel alone.

Hypothesis 2: WA has a positive effect on individuals' willingness to travel alone

While people with wanderlusting traits have a higher willingness to travel alone at some point during their lifespan, we believe that wanderlust, in fact, may show a positive effect on tourists' willingness to engage with locals as well. However, this may be due to the fact that wanderlusters enjoy exploring the unknown and the unfamiliar. Although various tourism scholars have recognized that tourists are interested in different degrees of contact with locals (e.g., Fan et al., 2017; Mo, Howard, and Havitz, 1993), we believe that people with wanderlust do not travel for the *purpose* of engaging with locals and experiencing new cultures. They may do it - and enjoy it - if the opportunity comes along, but it is not the purpose of why they travel. We therefore suggest that wanderlust has a less significant positive effect on tourists'

willingness to engage with locals, however, we believe that this factor can be explained through the novelty seeking personality of the wanderluster and not because they are actively seeking contact and engagement with locals when traveling. Hence, individuals with wanderlust will seek contact with locals if they find it necessary on their journey.

Hypothesis 3: WA has a slightly positive effect on individuals' willingness to engage with locals

Research shows that a positive perception most often leads to positive intentions (Ajzen and Fishbein, 2005). In this study, we suggest that a stronger degree of wanderlust will lead to higher intentions, in this case referring to the intention to travel the world. As the literature review revealed, people with wanderlust have a strong desire to travel for the sole purpose of traveling; sometimes without knowing where they are going or what they are looking for (see e.g. Appel, 2019; Saxe, 1976). Simply put, it is the journey that matters to people with the wanderlust gene, not the destination. Moreover, wanderlust has previously been used to describe people or characters in literature who have traveled the world and 'lived on the edge' (see e.g. Tansella, 2017; Bollard, 2016). These characteristics are strongly linked to the characteristics of a wanderluster. Based on this notion, we hypothesize that wanderlust has a positive effect on individuals' intention to travel the world.

Hypothesis 4: WA has a positive effect on individuals' intention to travel the world

The next hypothesis suggests that wanderlust has an effect not only on intentions to travel, but on actual behavior. As mentioned in hypothesis 4, research shows that a positive perception generally leads to positive intentions (Ajzen and Fishbein, 2005). For example, in the study of tourism xenophilia (TXI), Kock et al. (2019) find that positive perceptions of traveling (TXI) leads to a greater willingness to travel. Similarly, in this study we expect the same outcome; that a stronger desire to travel (WA) will lead to higher intentions, which in this case is willingness to travel. In addition, we examine the effect of willingness to travel on actual behavior because tourism scholars have pointed to a potential gap between behavioral intentions and actual behavior (e.g., Juvan and Dolnicar, 2014). Thus, we hypothesize that

willingness to travel will have a positive effect on actual behavior as indicated by the number of actual trips taken over the last two years.

Hypothesis 5: WA has a positive effect on individuals' willingness to travel

Hypothesis 6: Individuals' willingness to travel has a positive effect on actual trips taken

A potential driver of wanderlust is curiosity. Curiosity can be commonly defined as the '*recognition, pursuit, and desire to explore novel, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous events*' (Kashdan et al., 2017, p. 130). Although there have been multiple attempts to conceptualize how people differ in their curiosity, scholars seem to agree on the fact that curiosity is critical to human survival and growth (Kashdan et al., 2017). In addition, curious people are in general known to ask a large number of unprompted questions (Peters, 1978), examine interesting images (Silvia, 2005), investigate how other people think, feel, and behave (Renner, 2006), take risks to acquire new experiences (Zuckerman, 1994), and persist on challenging tasks (Sansone and Smith, 2000). Compiling all of these factors together, there is a clear alignment in the perception of the overall function of the curious mindset; to seek out, explore, and immerse oneself in situations with potential for new information and experiences. Consequently, multiple studies have been conducted trying to create a great measurement tool for assessing the different drivers of curiosity. A recent study has tried to combine the factors into a five-dimensional factor model, which is the most valid way to understand the complex structure of curiosity. This model includes elements such as joyous exploration, deprivation sensitivity, stress tolerance, social curiosity, and thrill seeking; traits, which capture the core essence of the curious mindset (Kashdan et al., 2017). Thus, we propose that curiosity is, in fact, a driver of wanderlust as the journey, when traveling, may represent excitement, dissimilarity, and new challenges. These factors align well with the wanderlusting traits and with the fact that curiosity incites an individual to explore and discover.

Hypothesis 7: Curiosity has a positive effect on WA

Another potential driver of wanderlust is restlessness. This term is often used in relation to terms such as boredom and mind-wandering (e.g. Danckert, Hammerschmidt, Marty-Dugas,

and Smilek, 2018). In fact, boredom may lead to either mind-wandering or restlessness. A study created in the late 1800s suggests that when people in a lecture were bored, they exhibited significantly more ‘sway’ in their posture, and fidgeted more frequently, which illustrated a clear index of what is today referred to as ‘restlessness’ (Galton, 1885). In other words, boredom leads to restlessness. Moreover, boredom is, in fact, a unitary construct characterized as a restlessness borne of unsatisfactory engagement (Merrifield and Danckert, 2014). When people are feeling bored or restless, it is an unpleasant experience, which is associated with a range of negative outcomes including depression (Goldberg et al., 2011), and a lack of meaning with life (Fahlman et al., 2009). Most often, when people are feeling bored, they try to extricate from this, which should lead arousal levels to rise. More importantly, those arousal levels should hit a peak when efforts to engage in stimulating activities fail, which will then be accompanied by feelings of restlessness (Eastwood et al., 2012; Fahlman et al., 2013). Thus, the feeling of restlessness should rise with rising levels of boredom. In fact, a recent study has suggested that restlessness represents a suboptimal response to boredom (Danckert et al., 2018). We therefore propose that restlessness is a driver of wanderlust as traveling may represent excitement, novelty, and exploration, thereby, an antidote to both boredom and restlessness.

Hypothesis 8: Restlessness has a positive effect on WA

The idea that work can be approached as a calling or vocation has a long history (Hardy, 1990). However, it has a rather short past within the social sciences, which only recently have begun to investigate the construct (e.g., Bunderson and Thompson, 2009; Davidson and Caddell, 1994; Duffy and Sedlacek, 2007; Elangovan, Pinder, and McLean, 2010; Serow, 1994; Steger, Pickering, Shin, and Dik, 2010; Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin, and Schwartz, 1997). Moreover, the notion of calling seems to rest on a holistic understanding of work in the context of life, highlighting concerns such as career development, job satisfaction, well-being, and personal growth (Dik et al., 2012). In this study, we hypothesize that an individual’s *lack* of vocation has a positive effect on wanderlust. This is correlated to the previous driver of restlessness, which may lead individuals with a lack of meaning in life (Fahman et al., 2009). Moreover, individuals who are uncertain of their calling in life may develop a higher degree of willingness to simply leave everything behind and travel out into the world to explore it. On

that journey they may, in return, figure out what their vocation in life is. However, individuals possessing the wanderlust gene may, in fact, not care about it. On the other hand, they may even consider ‘traveling’ as their calling. Based on this notion, we believe that a lack of vocation has a positive effect on wanderlust.

Hypothesis 9: Lack of vocation has a strongly positive effect on WA

The search for novelty motivates many travelers. When people travel, they seek out various levels of either novelty or familiarity depending on their preferences and the institutional setting of the trip (Cohen, 1972). However, in general, novelty seems to provide a basic motivation for tourism (Crompton, 1979), although only few studies have been made examining novelty within the tourism context (Bello and Etzel, 1985). Furthermore, it has been argued that familiar or commonplace trips only occur when the tourist seeks to fulfill specific social needs such as affinity, relations, or social interactions, or when the tourist experiences anxiety in contemplating novel experiences (Snepenger, 1987). Consequently, it has been argued that when the environment fails to provide the individual with stimulation at an optimal level, individuals will be motivated to seek out complexity and novelty conditions. For some individuals, the daily routine makes them bored, which will then make them seek out novel pleasures, that is, doing and seeing new and different things (Bello and Etzel, 1985). In fact, they may even seek out novelty travel, which is defined as ‘*a trip characterized by new, unfamiliar experiences that differ from prior life experiences*’ (Faison, 1977). Thus, in this study, we suggest that novelty seeking has a positive effect on wanderlust as it can incite individuals to travel for the sole purpose of traveling in the hope of gaining novel experiences and a new environment.

Hypothesis 10: Novelty seeking has a positive effect on WA

Findings from a study of wanderlust among college students indicate that wanderlust, in fact, begins with early, and varied, travel experiences and continues to inspire future travel behavior (Shields, 2011). As the study concluded, today’s college students exhibit a significant level of wanderlust and give every indication that they are favorably predisposed to travel and further expect to do so in the future. Moreover, the study also indicated that those who experience

wanderlust now, and thereby those who have traveled frequently in the past, are also more willing to dedicate a significant amount of their household income to travel expenses (Shields, 2011). However, we believe that this notion, i.e., early travel experience, is not only accountable for college students. Instead, we argue that early travel experience is a great driver of wanderlust in general, thereby not necessarily dependent on age. Thus, we propose that early travel experience has a positive effect on wanderlust.

Hypothesis 11: Early travel experience has a strongly positive effect on WA

In the following section, we would like to test the concept of tourism xenophilia (TXI) as well. Thus, we will conduct hypotheses based on the same outcomes and drivers used to test the concept of wanderlust above. Although we are looking at two different concepts, we still suppose that both constructs (i.e., WA and TXI) will show a positive effect on some of the same outcomes. In addition, we further believe that some drivers will have a positive effect on both constructs as well. However, we also believe that some of the drivers will have a different effect on TXI than the effect WA has and vice versa. We further believe that some of the outcomes will have a different effect on TXI than the effect WA has. To clarify this notion, we have outlined the hypotheses related to TXI (H:12-H:22) in the section below. When necessary, we will elaborate thoroughly on the possible resemblance or dissimilarities.

Xenophilic people favor the foreignness of a destination, people, cultures, or customs that manifests itself in curiosity and hospitality toward foreigners and benevolent cross-cultural exploration (Stürmer et al., 2013). Thus, we hypothesize that TXI, in opposition to WA, has a less positive effect on tourists' intention to travel without a plan. We believe that xenophiles travel to discover the foreignness of a specific destination or culture (Nørfelt et al., 2019), and thus, it can be argued that they tend to favor making pre-planning decisions prior to a trip as they want to experience and explore something specific, whether it is a certain destination or a certain culture (Nørfelt et al., 2019; Stürmer et al., 2013). However, there may some xenophiles who will seek and explore the foreignness of destination without having to make a lot of pre-planning prior to traveling.

Hypothesis 12: TXI has a slightly positive effect on individuals' intention to travel without a plan

Besides being attracted towards foreignness and strangers, xenophiles further want to become part of the local community at a destination (Stürmer et al., 2013). Thus, it may be argued that people with tourism xenophilia do not wish to embark on a journey alone or enter a destination by themselves. They want to be around people all the time, whereas WA would not mind embarking on a journey by oneself; they do not travel for the purpose of meeting people and staying at a destination to become part of a new community as the case is seen with xenophilic individuals. Xenophilic individuals travel to experience the foreignness of people, strangers (Perlmutter, 1954), and the destination (Nørfelt et al., 2019). Based on this notion, we hypothesize that TXI, in fact, will have a direct negative effect on individual's willingness to travel alone.

Hypothesis 13: TXI has a negative effect on individuals' willingness to travel alone

With reference to hypothesis 13 and the appertaining explanation, we further hypothesize that TXI has a strongly positive effect on individual's willingness to engage with locals. As explained above, tourism xenophilia, among other things, refers to a liking or a love for the 'stranger' (Stürmer et al., 2013). Additionally, xenophiles have a favorable attitude toward exploratory contact with individuals from other groups that are perceived as culturally different and unfamiliar, for instance, in the terms of language, ethnicity, habits, or customs (Stürmer et al., 2013), which further supports this hypothesis.

Hypothesis 14: TXI has a strongly positive effect on individuals' willingness to engage with locals

As with WA, we also hypothesize that TXI has a positive effect on individuals' intention to travel the world. However, the purpose of traveling the world may be different. Whereas individuals with wanderlust arguably favor the journey and thereby can travel without making any pre-planning decisions in relation to, among other things, destinations, xenophiles, on the

other hand, favor the foreignness of destinations and people and, thus, will travel the world for the purpose of seeking this foreignness and exploring it.

Hypothesis 15: TXI has a positive effect on individuals' intention to travel the world

The next hypothesis suggests that TXI, as seen with WA as well, has an effect on individuals' willingness to travel. This is based on the extant literature, which describes TXI as a motive for traveling. Thus, we hypothesize that TXI has a positive effect on individuals' willingness to travel.

Hypothesis 16: TXI has a positive effect on individuals' willingness to travel

Based on the arguments stated previously in relation to wanderlust (H:7-H:10), we argue that the same drivers that have a positive effect on WA, that is, curiosity, restlessness, lack of vocation, and novelty seeking have a positive effect on TXI as well. However, the effect may be less positive in relation to the driver 'lack of vocation', as tourism xenophilia is not associated with individuals who necessarily want to leave their everyday life behind to travel for the sole purpose of traveling, however, there may be some individuals who would. Moreover, the effect may further be less positive in relation to the driver 'restlessness' as no prior literature has described xenophiles with traits of restlessness. However, the slightly positive effect may be caused by the fact that previous research on the concept has discovered 'boredom proneness' as a predictor of TXI, which may lead to a feeling of restlessness (Merrifield and Danckert, 2014). To sum, we believe that there may be a slight difference in the level of effect that 'lack of vocation' and 'restlessness' have on the two focal variables.

Hypothesis 17: Curiosity has a positive effect on TXI

Hypothesis 18: Restlessness has a slightly positive effect on TXI

Hypothesis 19: Lack of vocation has a slightly positive effect on TXI

Hypothesis 20: Novelty-seeking has a positive effect on TXI

Moreover, it has been shown that there is a correlation between early travel experience and wanderlust. If you have traveled a lot as a child, you are more likely to travel more in the future

(Shields, 2011). As TXI, among other things, refers to an individual’s attraction toward the perceived foreignness of destinations (Nørfelt et al., 2019), we believe that early travel experience could have a positive effect on TXI as well. If you have traveled a lot to foreign destinations at an early age and consequently has been exposed to the foreignness of destinations, there may be a chance that you will be inspired to travel more to foreign destinations in the future. However, we believe that the effect ‘early travel experience’ has on TXI is, in fact, not as positive as seen with WA, due to the fact that ‘early travel experience’ has been specifically examined in relation to WA (Shields, 2011) . Thus, we hypothesize that early travel experience has a slightly positive effect on TXI.

Hypothesis 21: Early travel experience has a slightly positive effect on TXI

3.1 Summary

Based on our literature review and on our chosen scientific scales, we have created 21 hypotheses (H1-H21), which we will use as the foundation for our primary data collection. Hypothesis 1 to Hypothesis 5 will test the effect and relationship that Wanderlust (WA) has on specific outcomes, whereas Hypothesis 6 will test the actual travel behavior of individuals, that is, whether there is a connection between individuals’ willingness to travel (H5) and the actual trips they have taken (H6). Subsequently, Hypothesis 7 to Hypothesis 11 will test the possible drivers or predictors of WA. Consequently, to establish any differences between the concept of Tourism Xenophilia (TXI) and Wanderlust, 10 additional hypotheses have been created, which are based on the same drivers and outcomes that were used to test the concept of WA. Thus, Hypothesis 12 to Hypothesis 16 tend to examine the effect and relationship that TXI has on specific outcomes. In addition, Hypothesis 17 to Hypothesis 21 tend to examine the possible drivers or predictors of TXI.

Table 2 outlines the conducted hypotheses for wanderlust (WA) and tourism xenophilia (TXI) to create a simple overview of the similarities or differences between the two focal variables.

Table 2

WA Hypotheses	TXI Hypotheses	Comparison
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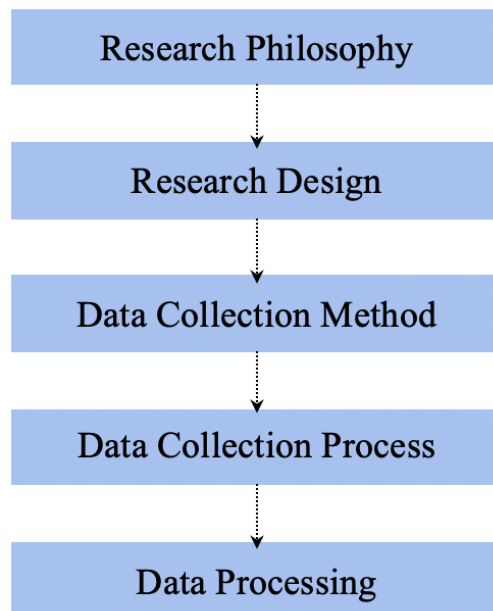
<i>Hypothesis 1:</i> WA has a positive effect on individuals' intention to travel without a plan	<i>Hypothesis 12:</i> TXI has a slightly positive effect on individuals' intention to travel without a plan	Both constructs have a positive effect on individuals' intention to travel without a plan, however, the effect WA has is more positive than the effect TXI has
<i>Hypothesis 2:</i> WA has a positive effect on individuals' willingness to travel alone	<i>Hypothesis 13:</i> TXI has a negative effect on individuals' willingness to travel alone	Whereas WA has a positive effect on individuals' willingness to travel alone, TXI will show a direct negative effect
<i>Hypothesis 3:</i> WA has a slightly positive effect on individuals' willingness to engage with locals	<i>Hypothesis 14:</i> TXI has a strongly positive effect on individuals' willingness to engage with locals	Both constructs have a positive effect on individuals' willingness to engage with locals, however, the effect TXI has is significantly more positive than the effect WA has, which is only slightly positive
<i>Hypothesis 4:</i> WA has a positive effect on individuals' intention to travel the world	<i>Hypothesis 15:</i> TXI has a positive effect on individuals' intention to travel the world	Both constructs have a positive effect on individuals' intention to travel the world, however, the effect WA has is more positive than the effect TXI has
<i>Hypothesis 5:</i> WA has a positive effect on individuals' willingness to travel	<i>Hypothesis 16:</i> TXI has a positive effect on individuals' willingness to travel	Both constructs have a positive effect on individuals' willingness to travel
<i>Hypothesis 6:</i> Individuals' willingness to travel has a positive effect on actual trips taken		This hypothesis tends to examine whether there is any relationship between individuals' willingness to travel (that is, H5) and actual trips taken. In other words, this hypothesis is created to examine actual travel behavior.
<i>Hypothesis 7:</i> Curiosity has a positive effect on WA	<i>Hypothesis 17:</i> Curiosity has a positive effect on TXI	Curiosity has a positive effect on both WA and TXI
<i>Hypothesis 8:</i> Restlessness has a positive effect on WA	<i>Hypothesis 18:</i> Restlessness has a slightly positive effect on TXI	Restlessness has a positive effect on both WA and TXI, however, the

		effect restlessness has on WA is significantly more positive than the effect restlessness has on TXI, which is only slightly positive
<i>Hypothesis 9:</i> Lack of vocation has a positive effect on WA	<i>Hypothesis 19:</i> Lack of vocation has a slightly positive effect on TXI	Lack of vocation has a strongly positive effect on WA, however, the effect TXI has is only slightly positive
<i>Hypothesis 10:</i> Novelty seeking has a positive effect on WA	<i>Hypothesis 20:</i> Novelty seeking has a positive effect on TXI	Novelty seeking has a positive effect on both WA and TXI
<i>Hypothesis 11:</i> Early travel experience has a strongly positive effect on WA	<i>Hypothesis 21:</i> Early travel experience has a slightly positive effect on TXI	Early travel experience has a positive effect on both WA and TXI, however, the effect WA has is strongly positive, whereas TXI only has a slightly positive effect

4. Methodology

In the following section, the methodology of this thesis will be presented. A visual presentation of the structure is illustrated in Figure 3 below.

Figure 3



First, the research philosophy, including ontology, epistemology, and axiology will be introduced. Secondly, the research design and the data collection method will be introduced. Subsequently, the data collection process will be touched upon, which entails information around questionnaire items, language barriers, and the specific measures. Lastly, data processing will be outlined, which includes a section about who the respondents are as well as information about validity and reliability of the study.

4.1 Research Philosophy

The research philosophy includes assumptions of what constitutes acceptable knowledge (epistemology) and the nature of reality (ontology) as well as the role of values (axiology). These assumptions will lay the foundation of the methodology section in this thesis.

The research paradigm in this thesis is classical positivism. Positivism relates to the philosophical stance of the natural scientist and entails working with an observable social reality to produce law-like generalizations (Saunders et al., 2019). Positivism was explicitly formulated for the first time in the 1820's by Auguste Comte (1798-1857), who can be seen as The Father of Positivism. In his work '*Cours de Philosophie Positive*' (1830-42), Comte formulated the idea that society solely should be built upon what can be characterized as 'positive' knowledge. Nevertheless, positivism has its origin in natural science, which can be dated back to the 1600's (Thurén, 2013). Later, its methods and viewpoints have been scattered across various other sciences. According to positivism, the world is 'out there' waiting to be analyzed through specific scientific examinations. Positivists believe in a definitive truth. Accordingly, this can be obtained through a critical examination of claims and observations, and solely trusting the facts that, with all probability, can be seen as true. In general, positivism is characterized by four theoretical stances (Nygaard, 2012):

- 1) Science should be based upon the directly observable and abstain from the metaphysical world, religion, feelings, and political opinions
- 2) All sciences, i.e., social science as well as natural science, should adopt the same methodology
- 3) Naturalism: Every phenomenon has a natural explanation

4) A search for lawfulness as the ideal scientific result

It has been widely discussed how these general theoretical ideas should be decomposed to a concrete scientific method. While logical positivism argues that scientific work should be done through verifying and confirming theories empirically, supporters of Karl Popper (1959) conversely argue that it should be done through falsifying and disproving (Nygaard, 2012). However, on a concrete methodological plan, positivism leads to scientific work, which consists of setting up hypotheses that either can be confirmed or disproved by gathering data under controlled conditions. Thus, the approach of hypothesis-testing will be used in this study, as it is a positivistic approach, which, if accompanied by reliable data, arguably, can debouch into valid conclusions.

4.1.1 Ontology

Ontology relates to assumptions about the nature of reality. The positivist ontology is realistic and external, meaning that there is an external reality independent of people's perception of it. The positivist ontology is what has been given for the senses, and as a result can be observed objectively. According to the positivist ontology, there is one true answer to any research phenomenon, which is 'out there' ready to be researched. Moreover, the positivist ontology argues that reality is material and consists of objects and individuals (Nygaard, 2012).

4.1.2 Epistemology

Epistemology can be described as assumptions about knowledge and, hereunder, what constitutes acceptable knowledge, and how we can communicate knowledge to others. The positivist epistemology is objective and argues that it is possible to obtain certain knowledge, if it is entirely based on observable actualities (Nygaard, 2012). In simplicity, positivism argues that if you remove everything you thought you knew, but you were not sure about, you have a core of positive knowledge left. According to positivism, we only have two sources of knowledge: What can be observed with our senses and what can be derived logically (Thurén, 2013). Therefore, acceptable knowledge can solely be obtained through scientific empiricist methods designed to yield pure data and facts (Saunders et al., 2019). Therefore, traditions and authorities cannot be trusted, and we should not let ourselves get carried away by our feelings. Instead, we need to critically examine claims and observations, and only trust data and

actualities that can be seen as certain. These actualities should subsequently be analyzed logically in order to draw conclusions. Since we base logic on mathematics, the actualities should be quantified and processed statistically to draw general conclusions (Thurén, 2013). In summary, the epistemological focus is upon discovering observable and measurable facts; only phenomena that can be observed and measured leads to the production of meaningful and credible data (Saunders et al., 2019).

4.1.3 Axiology

Axiology refers to the role of values and ethics and can be explained as *'the extent and ways the researcher's own values influence the research process'* (Saunders et al., 2019). As the positivist ontology suggests, positivism is built up around an external reality independent of people's perception of it, which means that the researcher is neutral and independent from what is researched. Thus, the researcher remains detached from the research and data to avoid influencing the findings. This means that the researcher undertakes research, as far as possible, in a value-free way. This is possible for the positivist due to the measurable and quantifiable data that is collected. The researcher claims to be external to the process of data collection as there is little that can be done to alter the substance of the data collected (Saunders et al., 2019).

4.2 Research Design

The research design is the overall strategy, which throughout a thesis ensures that the research problem is addressed in an effective and thorough manner. Thus, it makes up the blueprint for the collection, measurement, and analysis of data. The research design is related to the identification and formulation of the problem (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). As the concept of wanderlust has not been thoroughly conceptualized nor researched prior to this study, the research design applied is 'exploratory research', which have been carried out on the basis of empirical data. Exploratory research tends to address problems, which have not been studied widely before, in order to identify the nature of the problem (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019).

4.2.1 Hypothesis testing

One way to carry out exploratory research is through the hypothetic-deductive approach of hypothesis testing. A hypothesis is a claim made about a population, which can be tested by

using sample results (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). Thus, hypotheses testing is performed to assess whether the stated hypothesis is likely true in the population of interest. The hypotheses in this study are formulated upon the existing, but limited literature and theory available on the concept of wanderlust together with the travel motivation literature. Therefore, the research has been built upon a thorough literature review to first discover the definition of wanderlust and subsequently what possibly drives and affects the concept of 'wanderlust'. Additionally, the concept of 'tourism xenophilia', which is close to wanderlust in its definition, was discovered and included in the hypothesis testing. In that way, it is possible, when analyzing the results, to discover the similarities and differences between the two concepts. Further, on the basis of the literature review, a set of relevant drivers and outcomes were chosen by the researchers. Subsequently, on the basis of the various drivers and outcomes, a total of 21 hypotheses were developed.

The hypothesis testing will result in evidence that either supports or challenges the theory. Thus, if there is evidence that challenges the hypothesis, the hypothesis will be rejected, whereas if the evidence strengthens the hypothesis, the hypothesis is supported. In conclusion, the research design of this thesis has been divided into the following five stages (Robson, 2002):

- 1) Previous theory will be examined and lead to the development of hypotheses
- 2) The hypotheses will be fully developed
- 3) The hypotheses will be tested
- 4) The results will be examined and processed
- 5) If there are any significant findings, they will add to theory

4.3 Data Collection Method

In order to test the 21 hypotheses, we have collected primary data. Primary data can be explained as '*original data collected for a specific research goal*' (Hox and Boeije, 2005). Thus, primary data is collected for the specific research problem at hand, using procedures that fit the research problem best.

As the research paradigm, within this thesis, is positivistic, the primary data collected in this thesis is quantitative. Quantitative research concerns the quantity or measurement of a phenomenon. Hence, quantitative research is concerned with quantifying (i.e., measuring and

counting) phenomena (Langdridge and Hagger-Johnson, 2009). Quantitative data can be identified as *'data that can be described numerically in terms of objects, variables, and their values'* (Hox and Boeije, 2005). Quantitative research subscribes to an empirical approach to knowledge, which states that if we measure something accurately enough, we can make claims, with some degree of certainty, about this particular object (Langdridge and Hagger-Johnson, 2009). In contrast to quantitative data, qualitative data involves the understanding of the complexity, detail, and context of the research subject, often consisting of texts, such as interview transcripts and field notes, or audiovisual material (Hox and Boeije, 2005). There are advantages and disadvantages of both research approaches. Where the qualitative research method recognizes the subjective experience of participants and enables an 'insider' perspective on different social worlds, it is often not possible to make generalizations or replicate the study, which consequently results in low validity and reliability (Langdridge and Hagger-Johnson, 2009). For quantitative research, the subjective and individual experience of the participant is not fully recognized, and the study consequently does not become as in-depth as for the qualitative study. Instead, the high number of respondents found in quantitative research makes it representative and enables the possibility of generalization to a larger population.

The quantitative method chosen in this study is the online survey: *'In a survey, a large and representative sample of a predefined target population is interviewed'* (Hox and Boeije, 2005). Characteristically, a large number of standardized questions are asked, and the responses are coded in standardized answer categories to find relationships between variables. In general, a survey is carried out when researchers are interested in collecting data on the observations, attitudes, feelings, experiences, or opinions of a population. Thus, information on subjective phenomena can be collected only by asking respondents about these. In addition, surveys are also used to collect data about behavior (Hox and Boeije, 2005).

4.3.1 Sampling Technique

The group of units, which we want to make judgments about, is people above the age of 18 living in Denmark. The sampling technique chosen to reflect this population is probability sampling. Probability sampling approaches provide every individual in the population with a chance (not equal to zero) of being included in the sample (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). The

specific probability sampling approach is stratified sampling. Stratified sampling is an elaborate technique of probability sampling, where the population is divided into several homogenous groups called strata (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). These strata are based on key sample characteristics, in this case gender, age, and regions, which have been drawn from Danmarks Statistik based on the known distribution in the population. Subsequently, a random number of observations have been drawn from each stratum. The reason behind performing stratified sampling is to draw as representative samples from the target population as possible.

4.4 Data Collection Process

Prior to writing the thesis, we initiated a collaboration with the communications agency ‘Primetime’ and more specifically their department ‘Insights and analysis’ to collect our primary data. Primetime found our research area very interesting, and therefore wanted to work together with us on collecting our data. Thus, we formulated a questionnaire, which we sent to Primetime, who distributed the survey out to an online survey panel through an opinion-research institute.

4.4.1 Questionnaire Items

The questions asked in the survey are generally multi-item constructs, with an exception from a few single-item constructs (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). The majority of all items are based upon scientific scales. The reason for this choice is to increase the overall construct validity (see more under ‘validity’). All constructs, together with the specific items, can be found under ‘measures’. It was important for our data collection process that the respondents answered all the questions asked during the survey. Thus, the opinion research institute set up the questionnaire with a filter that ensured exactly this. Consequently, it was not possible for the respondents to continue moving forward in the survey nor complete it without answering every question. In addition, all items in the survey can be characterized as closed-end questions with only one question per item. The reasoning behind this choice is to lower respondent fatigue, which, among other things, occurs with open-ended question types and high question complexity. The close-ended questions are furthermore accompanied by a 7-point Likert scale to facilitate the answers. Here, the respondents indicate the degree to which they agree or disagree to the statement asked in the question (1 = Strongly disagree, 4 = Neither agree or

disagree, and 7 = Strongly agree). The choice of a 7-point Likert scale instead of a 5-point Likert scale rests on the notion that 7-point Likert scales are better in terms of obtaining more variation in responses (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019).

4.4.2 Language barriers

In regard to language barriers, the survey was originally formulated in English. However, since we chose to limit our target audience to solely include people from Denmark, we decided to translate the questionnaire into Danish. In that way, we were certain that the respondents would understand the questions. We are aware that there are various threats related to translating a survey into another language. Therefore, as bilingual speakers, we chose to use the translation method of ‘back-translation’. With a bachelor’s degree in ‘English and Organizational Communication’ from Copenhagen Business School, we believe that we can act as translators in the following translation process. As described by Bernard (1988), it entails three stages:

- 1) First the survey was translated from the source language into the target language by a bilingual translator (Emma Tangø)
- 2) Second, another bilingual translator (Emma Nielsson) translated the target language survey back into the source language.
- 3) Finally, the original and back-translated versions were compared, and the target language survey was modified until it accurately reflects the source language survey

By adopting this translation approach, we reduce non-response and measurement error in the survey (McKay et al., 1996).

4.4.3 Measures

The survey consists of a total of 48 items. These consist of seven demographic questions; *age, gender, educational level, employment, marital status, employment, and income*, 16 questions about drivers, which are divided into five batteries; *lack of vocation, restlessness, curiosity, novelty seeking, and early travel experience*, 14 outcome-related questions, which are divided into six batteries; *intention to travel without a plan, intention to travel, actual travel behavior, willingness to engage with locals, willingness to travel alone, and intention to travel the world*, and lastly 11 questions around the two focal variables; *wanderlust and tourism xenophilia*.

Where the demographic questions are natural questions, i.e., objective numbers, the rest of the questions are latent, i.e., hidden inside a respondent’s mind until it has been answered by the respondent (Nørfelt et al., 2019). In the following table 3, all the scale characteristics for both drivers and outcomes, apart from the demographic questions, will be outlined in English (see Appendix A for the translated Danish version).

Drivers of WA and TXI

Table 3

Driver	1. Lack of Vocation
Items	<p>Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree/disagree, 7 = strongly agree)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I believe that I have been called to my current line of work • My career is an important part of my life’s meaning • My work helps me live out my life’s purpose
Scale characteristics	<p>The scale has been adapted from Dik et al. (2012). The study revolves around researching ‘work as a calling’, and the authors introduce the Brief Calling Scale (BCS). The scale originally consists of 24 items. However, due to limited space and in order to lower respondent fatigue, the scale has been narrowed down to a total of three questions. The choice of the three questions simply rests on our perception of what makes best sense in the context of this thesis and furthermore what is easiest for the respondents to understand.</p>

	We have tested the reliability on this scale, and it is .731, which indicates that there is an acceptable degree of internal consistency between the items (see Appendix A).
Source	Dik et al., 2012 B.J. Dik, B.M. Eldridge, M.F. Steger, R.D. Duffy. Development and validation of the Calling and Vocation Questionnaire (CVQ) and Brief Calling Scale (BCS). Journal of Career Assessment, 20 (2012), pp. 242-263, 10.1177/1069072711434410

Driver	2. Restlessness
Items	<p>Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree/disagree, 7 = strongly agree)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I feel compelled to interrupt others during conversations • I am distracted by visual stimuli • I have difficulty relaxing because of reoccurring thoughts • I have difficulty planning
Scale characteristics	The scale is adapted from Weyandt et al. (2003). The purpose of the study was to explore whether college students with and without ADHD performed differently on the IRS and to further examine the reliability and underlying factor structure of the IRS. The scale originally consists of 19 items that are scattered across a four-factor structure. However, due to limited space and again to lower respondent fatigue, the scale has been narrowed down to four

	<p>questions, where the item with the highest correlation value from each factor has been included in our survey. In that way, the items represent the different types of restlessness described in the study.</p> <p>We have tested the reliability on this scale, and it is .634, which indicates that there is an acceptable degree of internal consistency between the items (see Appendix A).</p>
Source	<p>Weyandt, L. L., Iwaszuk, W., Fulton, K., Ollerton, M., Beatty, N., Fouts, H., ... Greenlaw, C. (2003). The Internal Restlessness Scale: Performance of College Students With and Without ADHD. <i>Journal of Learning Disabilities</i>, 36(4), 382–389.</p> <p>https://doi.org/10.1177/00222194030360040801</p>

Driver	3. Curiosity
Items	<p>Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree/disagree, 7 = strongly agree)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I enjoy learning about subjects that are unfamiliar to me • I can spend hours on a single problem because I just can't rest without knowing the answer • The smallest doubt can stop me from seeking out new (novel) experiences • I like finding out why people behave the way they do • Creating an adventure as I go is much more appealing than a planned adventure

<p>Scale characteristics</p>	<p>The scale has been adapted from Kashdan et al. (2018). The study is about the five-dimensional curiosity scale and the identification of different subgroups of curious people. The scale originally consists of 25 items that are divided into: joyous exploration, deprivations sensitivity, stress tolerance, social curiosity, and thrill seeking. However, again to lower respondent fatigue so that the questionnaire is not too long and uninteresting to reply to, one item per factor has been chosen by the researchers, which makes up a total of five questions.</p> <p>We have tested the reliability on this scale, and when all five items are included it is .418. However, after deleting two items (item 3 and 5), the reliability increased to .497. According to Sarstedt and Mooi (2019), this indicates an unacceptable degree of internal consistency between the items (see Appendix A), which should be seen as a limitation.</p>
<p>Source</p>	<p>Kashdan B. Todd, Stikma C. Melissa, Disabato J. David, Patrick E. McKnight, John Bekier, Joel Kaji, Rachel Lazarus (2018). The five-dimensional curiosity scale: Capturing the bandwidth of curiosity and identifying four unique subgroups of curious people, <i>Journal of Research in Personality</i>, Volume 73, PP. 130-149.</p>

<p>Driver</p>	<p>4. Novelty seeking</p>
<p>Items</p>	<p>Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree/disagree, 7 = strongly agree)</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • My ideal vacation involves looking at things I have not seen before • I want to experience new and different things when I am traveling • When traveling, I enjoy the change of environment which allows me to experience something new
<p>Scale characteristics</p>	<p>The scale is adapted from Lee and Crompton (1992). The purpose of their study was to define the construct of novelty in the context of tourism, to conceptualize its role in the destination choice process, and to develop an instrument to measure novelty.</p> <p>The scale originally consists of 21 items with four different dimensions being thrill, change from routine, boredom alleviation, and surprise, which all together explain the novelty seeking construct in the context of tourism. Here, the three items adapted from the scale are from the dimension ‘change from routine’, as the change in environment consistently has emerged as a primary reason for taking a vacation (Lee and Crompton, 1992). Only 3 of the 7 items under ‘change from routine’ have been included, again to lower respondent fatigue. The choice of the three final items simply rests on our perception of what makes best sense in the context of this thesis and is easiest for the respondents to understand.</p> <p>We have tested the reliability on this scale, and it is .865, which indicates that there is a satisfactory degree of internal consistency between the items (see Appendix A).</p>
<p>Source</p>	<p>Lee, T.-H., and J. L. Crompton (1992) Measuring Novelty Seeking in Tourism. <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i> 19:732-751.</p>

Driver	5. Early travel experience
Items	<p>Please indicate the number of trips you have taken prior to the age of 18:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • None • 1-5 trips • 6-10 trips • 11-15 trips • 16-20 trips • Over 20 trips
Scale characteristics	<p>The scale is adapted from Shields (2011). According to the study, wanderlust begins with early and varied travel experiences and continues to inspire future travel behavior. The scale has been adapted from originally measuring ‘trips taken prior to college’ to ‘trips taken prior to the age of 18’. The reasoning behind this choice has been to accommodate the fact that not all respondents have completed nor are currently attending college.</p> <p>We have not tested the reliability on this scale, as there only is one item, which means that we cannot test the internal consistency between more items (see Appendix A).</p>
Source	<p>Shields O. Peggy (2011) A Case for Wanderlust: Travel Behaviors of College Students, <i>Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing</i>, 28:4, 369-387, DOI: 10.1080/10548408.2011.571572</p>

Outcomes of WA and TXI

<p>Outcome</p>	<p>6. Intention to travel without a plan</p>
<p>Questions</p>	<p>Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree/disagree, 7 = strongly agree)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I would like to take off on a trip with no pre-planned routes in my mind • I like vacations that are unpredictable • I don't like to plan a vacation trip in detail because it takes away some of the unexpectedness
<p>Scale characteristics</p>	<p>The scale is adapted from Lee and Crompton (1992). The purpose of their study was to define the construct of novelty in the context of tourism, to conceptualize its role in the destination choice process, and to develop an instrument to measure novelty. The scale originally consists of 21 items with four different dimensions being thrill, change from routine, boredom alleviation, and surprise, which all together explain the novelty seeking construct in the context of tourism. Here, the three items adapted from the scale, are all from the dimension 'surprise'. Surprise is defined as a feeling caused by unexpected features resulting from a discrepancy between what an individual believes and the reality of environmental stimuli (Lee and Crompton, 1992). Thus, it can be argued that the element of surprise, to a higher degree, occurs when traveling without a plan than traveling with a plan.</p>

	We have tested the reliability on this scale, and it is .793, which indicates that there is an acceptable degree of internal consistency between the items (see Appendix A).
Source	Lee, T.-H., and J. L. Crompton (1992) Measuring Novelty Seeking in Tourism. <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i> 19:732-751.

Outcome	7. Willingness to travel
Questions	<p>Over the span of 12 months, I intend to travel:</p> <p>(OBS! Please do not take the corona pandemic into account when answering this question)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 0 times • 1 time • 2 times • 3 times • 4 times • 5 times • Over 6 times
Scale characteristics	We have developed this scale with inspiration from Nørfelt et al. (2019) where they, among other things, research individuals' willingness to travel to a particular destination. However, since Nørfelt et al. (2019) have not shared the items for this construct, we have created our own scale.

	We have not tested the reliability on this scale, as there only is one item, which means that we cannot test the internal consistency between more items (see Appendix A).
Source	Nørfelt, A. W., Kock, F., & Josiassen, A. (2019). Tourism Xenophilia: Examining Attraction to Foreignness. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i> . https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287519883037

Outcome	8. Actual trips taken
Questions	<p>How many times have you traveled over the last 2 years?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • None • 1 time • 2 times • 3 times • 4 times • 5 times • Over 6 timers
Scale characteristics	<p>The scale is adapted from Nørfelt et al. (2019). In the study, the authors, among other things develop a scale to discover the actual travel behavior of the respondents.</p> <p>We have not tested the reliability on this scale, as there only is one item, which means that we cannot test the internal consistency between more items (see Appendix A).</p>

Source	Nørfelt, A. W., Kock, F., & Josiassen, A. (2019). Tourism Xenophilia: Examining Attraction to Foreignness. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i> . https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287519883037
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Outcome	9. Willingness to engage with locals
Questions	<p>Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree/disagree, 7 = strongly agree)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● I intend to engage with locals on my next holiday to a foreign destination ● I will engage with locals the next time I go on vacation to a foreign destination ● On my next holiday to a foreign destination, I will definitely try to engage with the locals
Scale characteristics	<p>The scale is adopted from Nørfelt et al. (2019). The study provided the first investigation of tourism xenophilia, which they define as ‘<i>an individual’s attraction toward the perceived foreignness of destinations</i>’. In the study, the authors, among other things, measure the respondents’ willingness to engage with locals. This scale originally consists of 3 items, which have all been included in this study.</p> <p>We have tested the reliability on this scale, and it is 914, which indicates that there is a satisfactory degree of internal consistency between the items (see Appendix A).</p>

Source	Nørfelt, A. W., Kock, F., & Josiassen, A. (2019). Tourism Xenophilia: Examining Attraction to Foreignness. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i> . https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287519883037
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Outcome	10. Willingness to travel alone
Questions	<p>Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree/disagree, 7 = strongly agree)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I prefer to travel alone • Traveling alone adds to the travel experience • I don't need company when I start my travels
Scale characteristics	<p>After looking through existing literature and searching for a valid scale that measures an individual's willingness to travel alone, it has been found that no such scale exists. Therefore, with an offspring in the literature around traveling alone (see example under 'source'), we have created our own scale in order to examine the connection between an individual's willingness to travel alone and WA as well as TXI.</p> <p>We have tested the reliability on this scale, and it is .860, which indicates that there is a satisfactory degree of internal consistency between the items (see Appendix A).</p>
Source	Laesser, C., Beritelli, P., & Bieger, T. (2008). Solo travel: Explorative insights from a mature market (Switzerland). <i>Journal</i>

	of Vacation Marketing, 15(3), 217–227. https://doi.org/10.1177/1356766709104268
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Outcome	11. Willingness to travel the world
Questions	<p>Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree/disagree, 7 = strongly agree)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Someday, I intend to travel the world ● I intend to travel extensively around the world one day ● ‘Traveling the world’ is on my bucket list
Scale characteristics	<p>We believe that ‘intention to travel the world’ is an important outcome in relation to WA, as people with wanderlust have a strong desire to travel for the sole purpose of traveling. However, it is not possible to find any scales that measure an individual’s intention to travel the world. For that reason, we have chosen to conduct our own scale to be able to examine the connection between an individual’s intention to travel the world and WA.</p> <p>We have tested the reliability on this scale, and it is .959, which indicates that there is a satisfactory degree of internal consistency between the items (see Appendix A).</p>
Source	No source

Focal variables (WA and TXI)

Focal Variable	Tourism Xenophilia (TXI)
Items	<p>Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree/disagree, 7 = strongly agree)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I am fascinated with foreign destinations • Foreign destinations are magical to me • My curiosity is aroused by foreign destinations • Foreign destinations incite my spirit of discovery • Foreign destinations are thrilling to me
Scale characteristics	<p>The scale is adopted from Nørfelt et al. (2019). The study provided the first investigation of tourism xenophilia, which they define as ‘<i>an individual’s attraction toward the perceived foreignness of destinations</i>’. In the study, the authors conceptualize Tourism Xenophilia and develop a scale to measure the concept, which consists of a total of five items. All five items have been included in the questionnaire to make it as representative as possible.</p> <p>We have tested the reliability on this scale, and it is .944, which indicates that there is a satisfactory degree of internal consistency between the items (see Appendix A).</p>
Source	<p>Nørfelt, A. W., Kock, F., & Josiassen, A. (2019). Tourism Xenophilia: Examining Attraction to Foreignness. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i>. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287519883037</p>

Focal variable	Wanderlust (WA)
Items	<p>Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree/disagree, 7 = strongly agree)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I travel to travel, not to reach a destination • I find pleasure in being on the go • It is the journey that attract me, the destination is secondary • When traveling, I want to be on the move • The journey is more interesting than the destination • To me, the journey is what makes me happiest when I am traveling
Scale characteristics	<p>The six items above have been formulated on the basis of this thesis' literature review and thereby the definition of 'wanderlust'. As a result, the overall theme of the six items is based upon the desire to be 'on the go', the favorability towards the journey, and the preference of traveling for the sole purpose of traveling rather than traveling to reach a destination.</p> <p>We have tested the reliability on this scale, and it is .848, which indicates that there is a satisfactory degree of internal consistency between the items (see Appendix A).</p>
Source	This thesis

4.5 Data Processing

Following the data collection, and after a total number of 200 survey interviews were gathered (N = 200), the opinion research institute checked the data for freeriders (i.e., respondents who answer the same to every question or respondents who use an abnormal amount of time to answer the questionnaire). In order to check for freeriders, the opinion research institute did two things: First, they found the average response time, which in this case was 7.5 minutes and afterwards assessed interviews that were either 25% under or 25% above this time. This was done to check if their response patterns were off. Second, they created a so-called ‘throughput’ for each interview, where they assessed the patterns in the response, and if there was an interview where a respondent for example answered ‘4’ to a majority of questions, they evaluated whether this respondent answered the questions without reading them. Subsequently, the raw data was aggregated into an Excel document. The raw data from Excel was then put into SPSS in order to be analyzed. This data analysis, among other things, entailed performing a normality test and a multiple linear regression analysis, which we will elaborate on in the ‘results’-section.

4.5.1 Respondents

As mentioned previously, sampling is the process by which we select cases from a population. The most important aspect of sampling is that the selected sample is representative of the population and thus that the characteristics of the sample closely match those of the population (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). The best way to test this is to use a database with information on the population. We have chosen to use Danmarks Statistik (DST), which is the central authority for Danish statistics. In other words, DST collects, processes, and publishes all statistical information on the Danish society. In the following section, we will examine whether our respondents are representative of the Danish population. Thus, we will do that by comparing our sample with the data from Danmarks Statistik based on the following three characteristics: gender, age, and region. The rest of the demographic variables can be found in Appendix C.

	Sample	Population
Gender (% men)	53.5%	49.8%
Age	48.2	49.4
Region (% Midtjylland)	21%	22.6%

The sample can be characterized as a random sample, which seeks to represent the Danish population above the age of 18. Respondents were required to complete the entire questionnaire before submission to eliminate nonresponse bias (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). The sample consists of 200 responses, i.e., N=200. First, the respondents are in the age group 18-93 with a distribution of 53.5% men and 46.5% women. This corresponds approximately with the distribution of men and women in the population, which according to DST, in the first quarter of 2020, was 49.75% men and 50.25% women. Secondly, the average age of the respondents in the sample is 48.2, compared to an average age of 49.4 in the population in the first quarter of 2020 (Danmarks Statistik, 2020).

To summarize, on the basis of the examination of gender, age, and region, we can conclude that the sample corresponds closely to the population and is therefore highly representative.

4.5.2 Validity

First, to ensure a general construct validity throughout this study, we have, with a few exceptions, based the items in the survey on scientific scales (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). These scientific scales have either been fully adopted or slightly adapted to fit the research of interest. In that way, the validity of the questions is ensured, as they are based on scientific journals instead of the creative mind of the researchers. For the constructs, where it was not possible to find any scientific scales, we have instead formulated a handful of questions based upon an extended amount of research and journal articles (see how the specific questions have been formulated under ‘measures’).

Secondly, all items have been compared subjectively to the actual definition of what they are measuring to ensure face validity. Face validity refers to whether a variable reflects what you want to measure (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). To do that, we have taken each construct and compared it to the questions that measure it. Specifically, we have compared the definition of ‘novelty seeking’ to the three items we use to measure the construct, the definition of ‘curiosity’ to the five items we use to measure that construct, and so on.

Thirdly, to ensure nomological validity of the study, we made a visual representation of the various constructs to see how they are manifested and how they interrelate. Nomological validity can be explained as the degree to which a construct behaves as it should in a system of related constructs (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). For example, we argue that novelty seeking, and curiosity have a significant influence on wanderlust. Similarly, we argue that wanderlust has an effect on willingness to travel, which then has an effect on travel behavior. As such, we make theoretically supported predictions about relationships between constructs, which we then test to see if there is a linkage.

Lastly, the data collection process has been made subject to probability sampling in order to ensure external validity. In addition, the demographics of the respondents in the sample, more specifically gender, age, and region have been compared to those of the population. In that way, we ensure generalizability of the results, as it can be argued that the sample is representative of the population.

4.5.3 Reliability

Reliability is the degree to which the observed variable measures the ‘true’ value and is ‘error free’. It can be explained as the opposite of measurement error (Hair et al., 2014). Internal consistency reliability is one of the most common ways of assessing reliability. Internal consistency reliability requires researchers to simultaneously use multiple items to measure the same concept (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). If the items relate strongly, there is a considerable degree of internal consistency. There are different approaches to measuring internal consistency, including Cronbach's α (Cronbach's Alpha). Cronbach's Alpha calculates the average of all possible split-half coefficients resulting from different ways of splitting the sample's scale items. Thus, Cronbach's Alpha comprise calculating the average of the correlations between the items in a construct (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). The equation looks

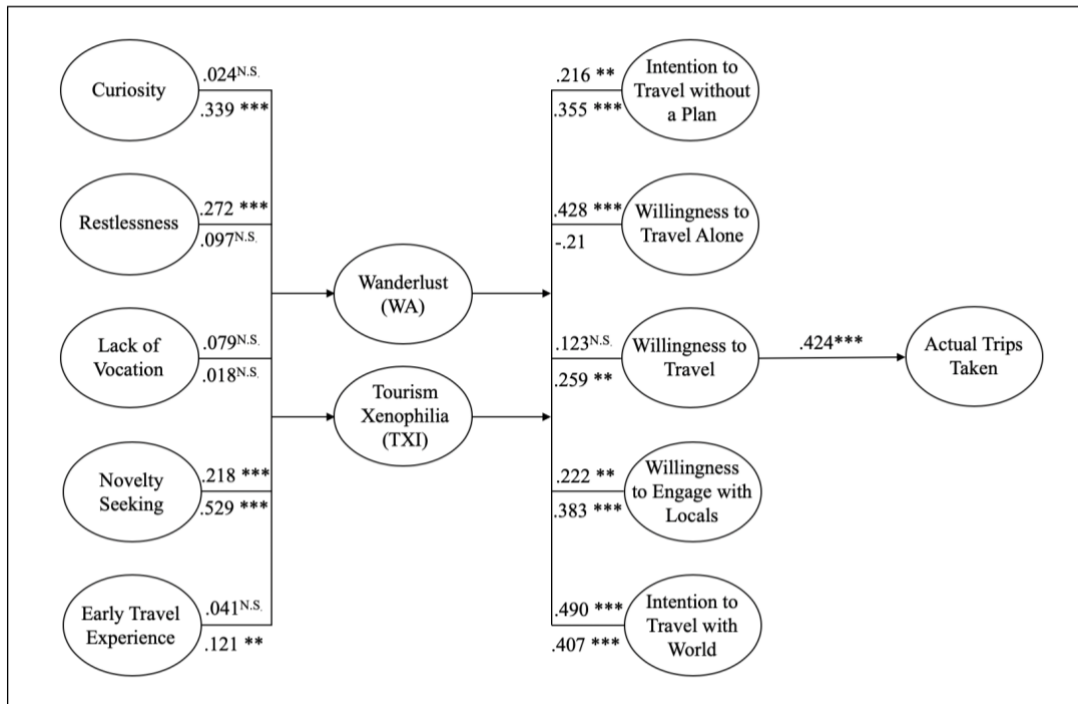
like the following; $\frac{N^2 \overline{Cov}}{\sum S_{item}^2 + \sum Cov_{item}}$ where the numerator constitutes the total number of items squared and multiplied by the total average of covariance between the items. The denominator represents the total sum of all the item variances and item covariance. The measurement of Cronbach's Alpha was carried out in SPSS.

The Cronbach's Alpha coefficient generally varies from 0 to 1, whereas a generally agreed lower limit for the coefficient is 0.70. However, in exploratory studies, a value of 0.60 is acceptable, while in the more advanced stages of research, values of 0.80 or higher are regarded as satisfactory (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). Nevertheless, Cronbach's Alpha is subject to reservation due to its tendency to increase, as the number of items in the scale increases. Consequently, researchers have to impose more stringent requirements (i.e., higher threshold values) for scales with a large number of items (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). According to Sarstedt and Mooi (2014), a large number of items is 10+, while the number of items in our scales never comprise more than 6 items per construct, which suggests that the reservation should not be seen as an issue in the current study.

5. Results

The following section will analyze the results from our primary data. Firstly, a brief introduction will be made on SPSS, normality tests, and regression analysis. This is done to provide the reader with knowledge about the chosen statistical measurement tools. Secondly, we will conduct a normality test on several variables to determine whether our data is well-modeled by a normal distribution, thereby whether sample data has been drawn from a normally distributed population. Finally, we will present the results from our conducted multiple linear regression analysis, which is done to test the relationship between the chosen variables presented in our conceptual framework (Figure 4). The latter part is divided into three sections: 1) the first part of the conceptual framework (the drivers), 2) the second part of the conceptual framework (the outcomes), and 3) the last part of our conceptual framework (actual behavior). The conceptual framework including the numerical outcome of our results is presented in Figure 4 below.

Figure 4



Please note that the analysis was run with a full set of $N = 200$ in SPSS version 25. The dataset and statistical analysis outputs can be found in Appendix D (normality tests) and Appendix E (regression analysis).

5.1 SPSS

Statistical Package of the Social Sciences, normally referred to as SPSS, is a software or computer package specializing in quantitative data analysis, and it is widely used by market researchers. In short, it is powerful and able to deal with large datasets (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019), which is further why it is a great suit for the data processing of our collected data. In this study, we use version 25 of IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, which we will simply refer to as SPSS.

5.1.1 Normality Test

There are several ways to determine whether your data is approximately normally distributed. One of them is an inspection of skewness and kurtosis. Firstly, skewness reflects the existence of extreme scores at one end of a distribution. A skewness of zero means that the distribution

is symmetrical. To check that a distribution is neither positively nor negatively significantly skewed ($\alpha = 0.05$) both ends of the normal distribution must be examined. Therefore, as long as the value of z is less than ± 1.96 there is 95% confidence that the population distribution is not positively or negatively skewed. In addition, kurtosis refers to the peakedness of the curve, that is, whether it is a flat curve or has a sharp point. As with skewness, a value between ± 1.96 suggests with at least 95% confidence that the distribution is normal. If the value obtained is positive, then it indicates that the curve is more peaked than normal, whilst if it is negative, then the curve is flatter than normal (Hall and Kozub, 2002).

Another way to test whether our data are normally distributed is by conducting the Shapiro-Wilk's test (Shapiro and Wilk, 1965) that formally tests for normality. The test compares the correlation between observed sample scores with the scores expected under a standard normal distribution. Large deviations will therefore relate to p -values less than 0.05, suggesting that the sample scores or data are *not* normally distributed. If, however, the p -value is above 0.05, it suggests that our data is approximately normally distributed (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019).

Lastly, it is further possible to check for normality by conducting a visual inspection. However, as visual checks are subjective, it should always be used in combination with more tests for normality, such as the Shapiro-Wilk's test and skewness and kurtosis measures. In our study, we have used the quantile plot (or Q-Q plots in SPSS), which is a type of probability plot that compares the quantiles of the sorted sample values with the quantiles of a standard normal distribution. Plotted data that do *not* follow the straight line reveal departures from normality. Another visual way to check for normality is through a histogram, which is a graph that shows how frequently categories made from a continuous variable occur. A histogram is useful for summarizing numerical variables and it will quickly show whether data are skewed (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019).

5.1.2 Regression Analysis

In order to test the correlation coefficient between the variables presented in the framework, we will conduct a multiple linear regression analysis, which is one of the most frequently used analysis techniques in market research. This may be due to the fact that it simply allows market researchers to analyze the relationships between dependent variables and independent variables (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). In marketing applications, the dependent variable is the outcome

we care about (for instance, WA or TXI), whereas the independent variables are used to achieve those outcomes (for instance, drivers such as ‘curiosity’, ‘lack of vocation’, or ‘early travel experience’). One of the key benefits of using regression analysis is, among other things, that it allows us to calculate if one independent variable or a set of independent variables has a significant relationship with a dependent variable ($p < 0.05$). Another key benefit of using regression analysis is that it enables us to estimate the relative strength of different independent variables’ effects on a dependent variable. This knowledge may be useful for marketers, because it may help answer questions such as: Do WA or TXI depend more on, for example, ‘curiosity’, ‘lack of vocation’, or ‘early travel experience’? (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). A third key benefit of using regression analysis is that it will enable us to make predictions about the future - and such answers can help (marketing) managers make sound decisions (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019).

As mentioned previously, we have chosen to conduct a multiple linear regression as our main method of analyzing our data. The reason for this is that it will allow us to build a framework that can contain several variables that operate independently, or cooperatively, to enable us to explain the variation in the dependent variable(s) (Sweet and Grace-Martin, 2010). In order for us to run the analysis in SPSS, we have computed the different variables into new variables. By doing so, all the corresponding items are represented by a single variable instead of multiple variables, thereby allowing us to complete the regression analysis in SPSS. The full dataset can be viewed in Appendix E. Other relevant measures, which we will examine, are hypothesis testing, significance, unstandardized beta (β), and the coefficient of determination (R^2). These will briefly be explained in the following section.

Firstly, hypothesis testing is performed to infer that a stated hypothesis is likely true in the population of interest. When drawing a sample from the population, there is always some probability that we might reach the wrong conclusion due to sampling error, which is the difference between the sample and the population characteristics (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019).

Secondly, to determine whether the claim is true, we start by setting an acceptable probability (called the significance level). The significance level can also be explained as the p-value, which is an indicator of whether we should reject the null hypothesis or not. The p-value is typically set to $p < 0.05$, whereas a statistically highly significant p-value typically is

set to $p < 0.001$. The smaller the p-value, the stronger the evidence that we should reject the null hypothesis and instead accept our own stated hypothesis (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019).

Thirdly, the unstandardized β coefficient indicates the effect that a one-unit increase in the independent variable has on the dependent variable. As in our case, where we have multiple independent variables, a variable's unstandardized coefficient is the effect of a one unit increase of the independent variable, keeping the other independent variables constant (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). Lastly, the coefficient of determination (R^2) is a statistical measure that indicates the degree to which the model, relative to the mean, explains the observed variation in the dependent variable (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). It can also be explained as an indicator of how close the data are to the fitted regression line. Generally, R^2 is always between 0 and 100%, depending on whether the model explains none or all of the variability of the response data around the mean.

5.2 Normality Test on Selected Constructs

Preliminarily, it is necessary to test the various assumptions of multiple regressions to secure that the data is a suitable fit for this type of analysis. Thus, we selected the following three constructs: WA, CUR, and ITWAP. The results of the normality test on the selected constructs is briefly outlined in table 4 below and will be elaborated on in the subsequent section.

Table 4

Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis	Shapiro-Wilk's Test	Q-Q plots	Histogram
<i>Wanderlust</i> (WA)	SE* = .172 Skewness = -.138 = -.802 This z-value is neither	SE = .342 Kurtosis = -.122 = -.357 This z-value is neither	.083 In terms of the Shapiro-Wilk's test, the data is approx. normally distributed as the	All the dots are approx. normally distributed along the line	The histogram has the shape of a normal curve

	below -1.96 nor above +1.96, which is what we want	below -1.96 nor above +1.96, which is what we want	p-value is above 0.05. We therefore accept the null- hypothesis		
<i>Curiosity</i> (<i>CUR</i>)	SE = .172 Skewness = .102 = 0.593 This z-value is neither below -1.96 nor above +1.96, which is what we want	SE = .342 Kurtosis = .139 = 0.406 This z-value is neither below -1.96 nor above +1.96, which is what we want	.005 In terms of the Shapiro-Wilk's test, this data is not normally distributed as the p-value is below 0.05. Thus, the null hypothesis is, in this case, rejected	All the dots are approx. normally distributed along the line	The histogram has the approximate shape of a normal curve (fat tail)
<i>Intention to travel without a plan</i> (<i>ITTWAP</i>)	SE = .172 Skewness = - .063 = -.366 This z-value is neither below -1.96 nor above +1.96, which is what we want	SE = .342 Kurtosis = - .051 = -.149 This z-value is neither below -1.96 nor above +1.96, which is what we want	.005 In terms of the Shapiro-Wilk's test, this data is <i>not</i> normally distributed as the p-value is below 0.05. Thus, the null hypothesis is, in this case, rejected	All the dots are approximatel y normally distributed along the line	The histogram has the approximate shape of a normal curve, however, it is slightly left- skewed

*SE = Standard error

Firstly, an examination will be made on the WA construct. The normality test showed a skewness of $-.138$ ($SE = .172$) and a kurtosis of $-.122$ ($SE = .342$) (Cramer, 1998; Cramer and Howitt, 2004; Doane and Seward, 2011). By calculating the skewness z-value (that is, dividing the skewness measure with its standard error), it gave us a z-value of $-.802$. This value, $-.802$, is neither below -1.96 nor above $+1.96$, which is the desirable outcome. Subsequently, by calculating the kurtosis z-value (that is, dividing the kurtosis measure with its standard error), it gave us a z-value of $-.357$. This value, $-.357$, is not below -1.96 nor above $+1.96$ either. Thus, in terms of skewness and kurtosis measures, it can be concluded that WA was approximately normally distributed. Next, the Shapiro-Wilk's test statistics ($p > .05$) (Shapiro and Wilk, 1965; Razali and Wah, 2011) will be used to further detect any problematic outliers that could bias the results. The test suggests that the null hypothesis for this test of normality is that data *are* normally distributed. If the p-value (also written as Sig. in SPSS) is below 0.05 , we need to reject the null hypothesis. However, if the p-value is above 0.05 , we keep the null hypothesis. As the p-value is $.083$, thereby above 0.05 , we keep the null hypothesis. In terms of the Shapiro-Wilk's test, we can, therefore, assume that our data is approximately normally distributed. A visual inspection of the histogram and Q-Q plots further supported this view. The histogram has the shape of a normal curve and the dots in the Q-Q plots are approximately normally distributed along the line (see Appendix D). Thus, based on the skewness and kurtosis measures, the outcome of the Shapiro-Wilk's test together with the visual inspection of the histogram and Q-Q plots, it can be concluded that WA was approximately normally distributed.

Secondly, an examination was made on the curiosity construct (CUR). The normality test showed a skewness of $.102$ ($SE = .172$) and a kurtosis of $.139$ ($SE = .342$) (Cramer, 1998; Cramer and Howitt, 2004; Doane and Seward, 2011). By calculating the skewness z-value, it gave us a z-value of $.0593$, which is neither below -1.96 nor above $+1.96$. Subsequently, by calculating the kurtosis z-value, it gave us a z-value of 0.406 , which is not below -1.96 or above $+1.96$ either. Thus, in terms of skewness and kurtosis measures, it can be concluded that CUR was approximately normally distributed. Next, the Shapiro-Wilk's test (Shapiro and Wilk, 1965; Razali and Wah, 2011) will be taken into account as well. In terms of CUR, the p-value was $.005$, thereby below 0.05 . Thus, we need to reject the null hypothesis for this test of normality. The Shapiro-Wilk's test, therefore, suggests that our data is not normally distributed. However, a visual inspection of the histogram and Q-Q plots showed otherwise. The histogram has the approximate shape of a normal curve and the dots in the Q-Q plots are approximately

normally distributed along the line (see Appendix D). Thus, based on the skewness and kurtosis measures together with the visual inspection of the histogram and Q-Q plots, it can be concluded that CUR was approximately normally distributed. However, it needs to be noted that the Shapiro-Wilk's test suggested the opposite, which will be elaborated on in the limitations of this study (see section 7).

Lastly, an examination was made for the ITWAP construct. The normality test showed a skewness of $-.063$ ($SE = .172$) and a kurtosis of $-.051$ ($SE = .342$) (Cramer, 1998; Cramer and Howitt, 2004; Doane and Seward, 2011). The skewness z-value is $-.366$, and the kurtosis z-value is $-.149$. Thus, neither of the z-values are below -1.96 nor above $+1.96$ and are therefore desirable outcomes. In terms of skewness and kurtosis measures, it can therefore be concluded that ITWAP was approximately normally distributed. Further, by performing the Shapiro-Wilk's test, it was discovered that the p-value for ITWAP was $.005$, thereby below $.05$. Thus, we also need to reject the null hypothesis for this test of normality. The Shapiro-Wilk's test, therefore, suggests that our data is not normally distributed. Nevertheless, a visual inspection of the histogram and Q-Q plots showed otherwise. The histogram has the approximate shape of a normal curve; however, it is slightly left-skewed. Further, the dots in the Q-Q plots are approximately normally distributed along the line (see Appendix D). Thus, based on the skewness and kurtosis measures together with the visual inspection of the histogram and Q-Q plots, it can be concluded that ITWAP was approximately normally distributed. However, as seen with the CUR construct, it needs to be noted that the Shapiro-Wilk's test suggested the opposite in relation to the ITWAP construct as well, which will further be elaborated on in the limitations of this study (see section 7).

To summarize, our selected data are a little skewed and kurtosis, however, it does not differ significantly from normality. Moreover, an inspection of the histograms and Q-Q plots further supported this view; that the data are approximately normally distributed. Lastly, the Shapiro-Wilk's test demonstrated that WA was approximately normally distributed, however, an exception was seen in relation to CUR and ITWAP where the null hypothesis needed to be rejected for both. Thus, with an exception of the Shapiro-Wilk's test, which showed varied outcomes in relation to normality, we can assume that our entire dataset is approximately normally distributed, in terms of skewness and kurtosis and a visual inspection of the histograms and Q-Q plots.

5.3 Drivers of Wanderlust and Tourism Xenophilia

First section of the conceptual framework

A multiple linear regression was conducted in order to examine whether the drivers: curiosity (CUR), restlessness (REST), lack of vocation (LOV), novelty seeking (NS), and early travel experience (ETE) predicted WA and TXI (that is, the first section of the conceptual framework, see figure 4). First, by taking WA into account, the overall fit of the data to the first section of the conceptual framework was shown to be significant, with an R^2 of .138. Thus, this value indicates that 13,8% of the variance in WA scores can be predicted from the independent variables, that is, CUR, REST, LOV, NS, and ETE. Subsequently, by taking TXI into account, the overall fit of the data to the first section of the conceptual framework was shown to be significant with an R^2 of .453. Thus, this value indicates that 45,3% of the variance in TXI scores can be predicted from the independent variables, that is, CUR, REST, LOV, NS, and ETE.

In the following section, we will go through the results concerning the conducted regression analysis on each individual driver in relation to both WA and TXI.

Curiosity

(H7:H17)

In hypothesis 7 related to WA, we stated that the independent variable has a positive relationship with the dependent variable WA. This was *not* confirmed through our regression results showing that the relationship is *not* significant ($\beta = .024$, N.S = $p > .05$). Thus, we reject H7.

In hypothesis 17 related to TXI, we stated that the independent variable has a positive relationship with TXI. This was confirmed through our regression results showing that the relationship is significant and positive ($\beta = .339$, $p < .001$). This indicates that CUR is a highly relevant predictor of TXI, which confirms the anticipated H17.

Restlessness

(H8:H18)

In hypothesis 8 related to WA, we stated that the independent variable has a positive relationship with the dependent variable WA. This was confirmed through our regression results showing that the relationship is significant and positive ($\beta = .272, p < .001$). Thus, we accept H7.

In hypothesis 18 related to TXI, we stated that the independent variable has a positive relationship with TXI. This was *not* confirmed through our regression results showing that the relationship is *not* significant ($\beta = -.097, N.S = p > .05$). This indicates that REST is *not* a relevant predictor of TXI, which rejects the anticipated H18.

Lack of vocation

(H9:H19)

In hypothesis 9 related to WA, we stated that the independent variable has a strongly positive relationship with the dependent variable WA. This was *not* confirmed through our regression results showing that the relationship is *not* significant ($\beta = .079, N.S = p > .05$). Thus, we reject H9.

In hypothesis 19 related to TXI, we stated that the independent variable has a slightly positive relationship with TXI. This was *not* confirmed through our regression results showing that the relationship is *not* significant ($\beta = .018, N.S = p > .05$). This indicates that LOV is *not* a relevant predictor of TXI, which rejects the anticipated H19.

Novelty seeking

(H10:H20)

In hypothesis 10 related to WA, we stated that the independent variable has a positive relationship with the dependent variable WA. This was confirmed through our regression results showing that the relationship is significant and positive ($\beta = .218, p < .001$). Thus, we accept H10.

In hypothesis 20 related to TXI, we stated that the independent variable has a positive relationship with TXI. This was confirmed through our regression results showing that the

relationship is significant and positive ($\beta = .529$, N.S = $p < .001$). This indicates that NS is a highly relevant predictor of TXI, which confirms the anticipated H20.

Early travel experience

(H11:H21)

In hypothesis 11 related to WA, we stated that the independent variable has a strongly positive relationship with the dependent variable WA. This was *not* confirmed through our regression results showing that the relationship is *not* significant ($\beta = .041$, N.S = $p > .05$). Thus, we reject H11.

In hypothesis 21 related to TXI, we stated that the independent variable has a slightly positive relationship with TXI. This was confirmed through our regression results showing that the relationship is significant ($\beta = .121$, $P < .05$). This indicates that ETE is a relevant predictor of TXI, which confirms the anticipated H21.

5.4 Outcomes of Wanderlust and Tourism Xenophilia

Second section of the conceptual framework

A multiple linear regression was conducted in order to examine whether the independent variables wanderlust (WA) and tourism Xenophilia (TXI) have an effect on the dependent variables: intention to travel without a plan (ITWAP), willingness to travel alone (WTTA), willingness to engage with locals (WTEWL), intention to travel the world (ITTTW), and willingness to travel (WTT) (that is, the second section of the conceptual framework, see Figure 4).

In the following section, we will go through the results concerning the conducted regression analysis on each individual outcome in relation to both WA and TXI.

Intention to Travel without a Plan

(H1:H12)

The overall fit of the data to the second section of the conceptual framework concerning the variable ITWAP was shown to be significant with an R^2 of .190. Thus, this value indicates that 19% of the variance in ITWAP scores can be predicted from the independent variables, that is, WA and TXI.

In hypothesis 1 related to WA, we stated that the independent variable, WA, has a positive relationship with the dependent variable ITWAP. This was confirmed through our regression results showing that the relationship is significant and positive ($\beta = .216, p < .05$). Thus, we accept H1.

In hypothesis 12 related to TXI, we stated that the independent variable, TXI, has a slightly positive relationship with the dependent variable ITWAP. This was confirmed through our regression results showing that the relationship is significant and positive ($\beta = .355, p < .001$). This indicates that TXI has a positive effect on ITWAP, which confirms the anticipated H12.

Willingness to Travel Alone

(H2:H13)

The overall fit of the data to the second section of the conceptual framework concerning the variable WTTA was shown to be significant with an R^2 of .118. Thus, this value indicates that 11.8% of the variance in WTTA scores can be predicted from the independent variables, that is, WA and TXI.

In hypothesis 2 related to WA, we stated that the independent variable, WA, has a positive relationship with the dependent variable ITWAP. This was confirmed through our regression results showing that the relationship is significant and positive ($\beta = .438, p < .001$). Thus, we accept H2.

In hypothesis 13 related to TXI, we stated that the independent variable, TXI, has a negative relationship with the dependent variable WTTA. This was confirmed through our regression results showing that the relationship is *not* significant nor positive ($\beta = -.021, N.S = p > .05$). This indicates that TXI does not have an effect on WTTA, which confirms the anticipated H13.

Willingness to Engage with Locals

(H3:H14)

The overall fit of the data to the second section of the conceptual framework concerning the variable WTEWL was shown to be significant with an R^2 of .189. Thus, this value indicates that 18.9% of the variance in WTTA scores can be predicted from the independent variables, that is, WA and TXI.

In hypothesis 3 related to WA, we stated that the independent variable, WA, has a slightly positive relationship with the dependent variable WTEWL. This was confirmed through our regression results showing that the relationship is significant and positive ($\beta = .222, p < .05$). Thus, we accept H3.

In hypothesis 14 related to TXI, we stated that the independent variable, TXI, has a strongly positive relationship with the dependent variable WTEWL. This was confirmed through our regression results showing that the relationship is significant and positive ($\beta = .383, p < .001$). This indicates that TXI has a positive effect on WTEWL, which confirms the anticipated H14.

Intention to Travel the World

(H4:H15)

The overall fit of the data to the second section of the conceptual framework concerning the variable ITTTW was shown to be significant with an R^2 of .234. Thus, this value indicates that 23.4% of the variance in WTTA scores can be predicted from the independent variables, that is, WA and TXI.

In hypothesis 4 related to WA, we stated that the independent variable, WA, has a positive relationship with the dependent variable ITTTW. This was confirmed through our regression results showing that the relationship is significant and positive ($\beta = .490, p < .001$). Thus, we accept H4.

In hypothesis 15 related to TXI, we stated that the independent variable, TXI, has a positive relationship with the dependent variable ITTTW. This was confirmed through our regression

results showing that the relationship is significant and positive ($\beta = .407, p < .001$). This indicates that TXI has a positive effect on ITTTW, which confirms the anticipated H15.

Willingness to Travel

(H5:H16)

The overall fit of the data to the second section of the conceptual framework concerning the variable WTT was shown to be significant with an R^2 of .071. Thus, this value indicates that 7.1% of the variance in WTT scores can be predicted from the independent variables, that is, WA and TXI.

In hypothesis 5 related to WA, we stated that the independent variable, WA, has a positive relationship with the dependent variable WTT. This was *not* confirmed through our regression results showing that the relationship is *not* significant ($\beta = .123, N.S. = p > .05$). Thus, we reject H5.

In hypothesis 16 related to TXI, we stated that the independent variable, TXI, has a positive relationship with the dependent variable WTT. This was confirmed through our regression results showing that the relationship is significant and positive ($\beta = .259, p < .05$). This indicates that TXI has a positive effect on WTT, which confirms the anticipated H16.

Actual Travel Behavior

Third section of the conceptual framework

A multiple linear regression was conducted in order to examine whether the independent driver: willingness to travel (WTT) has an effect on travel behavior measured through the construct actual trips taken (ATT) (that is, the third section of the conceptual framework, see figure 4). The overall fit of the data to the third and last section of the conceptual framework was shown to be significant with an R^2 of .110. Thus, this value indicates that 11% of the variance in ATT scores can be predicted from the independent variables, that is, WTT.

In the following section, we will go through the results concerning the conducted regression analysis on this outcome in relation to WTT.

Actual Trips Taken

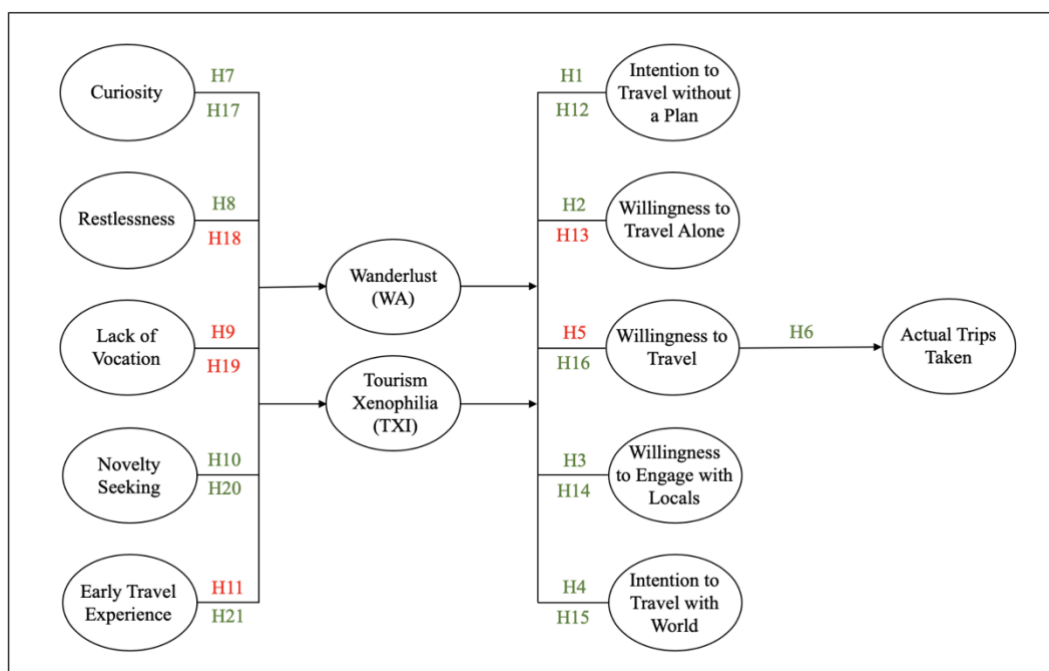
(H6)

In hypothesis 6 related to ATT, we stated that the independent variable, WTT, has a positive relationship with the dependent variable ATT. This was confirmed through our regression results showing that the relationship is significant and positive ($\beta = .424, p < .001$). This indicates that WTT has a positive effect on ATT, which confirms the anticipated H6.

5.5 Summary

By using SPSS, we have been able to conduct a normality test and, subsequently, a regression analysis of our primary data. With an exception of the Shapiro-Wilk's test, which showed varied outcomes in relation to normality, we can assume that our entire dataset is approximately normally distributed. Based on this notion, we were able to conduct a regression analysis to test our respective hypotheses (H1-H21), in which we have confirmed and rejected several hypotheses accordingly. Consequently, we have composed the figure below (Figure 5) to create a brief overview of the confirmed and rejected hypotheses (the color green illustrates the confirmed hypotheses, whereas the color red illustrates the rejected ones). The outcome of our regression analysis will be examined and discussed in the sections 'Theoretical Contributions' (6.1) and 'Practical Implications' (6.2) below.

Figure 5



6. Discussion

Based on the results, this discussion will argue that wanderlust is a relevant concept that needs to be implemented and included within the travel research and motivation literature. Moreover, it will discuss that wanderlust is, in fact, a concept that is different from the already established concept of tourism xenophilia, as the two concepts are driven by separate constructs and further have an effect on several distinct outcomes. Thus, the following sections intend to discuss the findings of the analysis, which will be substantiated by the theories presented in the hypothesis development and conceptual framework as well as the literature review. These will be presented through this study's theoretical and practical implications below.

6.1 Theoretical Contributions

This explorative and conceptual thesis should be regarded as a preliminary attempt at addressing and elucidating a potential travel motive, *wanderlust*, which has not been studied nor examined before. Thus, the outcome of this thesis will hopefully give rise to potential and significant theoretical implications. Based on the preliminary conceptualization of the phenomenon of wanderlust and the findings presented in the previous section, several theoretical implications seem relevant to discuss. These will be introduced in the following section.

Wanderlust is a viable concept for travel research. As uncovered in previous sections, the concept of wanderlust has not been widely discussed nor examined in the existing travel literature (Shields, 2011). Until now, there has been no official definition of the concept and merely one study has identified wanderlust as an actual research variable. Nevertheless, the concept has been mentioned a multitude of times across social media, TV shows, movies, poems, and fiction. All with different definitions of the very same concept. Thus, the need for a complete and definitive definition of the concept has been significant. In this favor, the present study completes this gap with a final definition of the concept: '*An individual's desire to travel for the sole purpose of traveling rather than reaching a destination*'. Moving forward, whether it is theorists, researchers, poets, filmmakers, or others using the concept, the definition based on this study can be used in future research. As the results indicated, there are a couple of vibrant drivers of the concept as well as several outcomes that wanderlust seem to have a

significant effect on. Thus, it is fair to state that wanderlust is, in fact, a tangible concept that some individuals possess, which further motivates them to travel and supports the importance of wanderlust as a concept in travel research and motivation literature as well.

As established in the literature review, travel motivation is an essential part of every decision-making process that individuals go through prior to actually traveling as well as while they are traveling. Although travel motivation is merely one out of several variables that intends to explain tourist behavior and decision-making, it is still considered as one of the most important variables (Brown, 2005). This further highlights the importance of understanding the concept of wanderlust and further considers it as a relevant travel motivator within the respective literature. As the results indicated, wanderlust is undoubtedly a concept that is affected by and further has an effect on several drivers and outcomes. What further supports this argument is that the results indicated a remarkable difference between the concept of wanderlust and the already established travel motivator and concept of tourism xenophilia. Had the outcome of the results been different, it could have been argued that wanderlust and tourism xenophilia were, in fact, similar or even identical concepts, which further could have suggested that there was no reason to differentiate between the two concepts. However, the results indicate that this preliminary conceptualization of wanderlust may be of significant importance for the travel research and motivation literature, as a new and potential travel motivator has just been introduced empirically and theoretically. This implies that the travel motivation literature has gained another travel motivator: Wanderlust. Prior to this study, the main focus was on concepts such as tourism xenophilia, which has been the opponent that wanderlust has been compared to throughout this study in order to establish wanderlust as a concept of its own. As introduced previously, tourism xenophilia has its roots in the attraction towards the foreignness of a destination (see e.g. Nørfelt et al., 2019). This focus also applies in the travel motivation literature, which tends to focus on the destination of travel as an overriding factor. However, with the introduction of wanderlust as a concept and potential travel motivator, a new foundation has been introduced, namely the desire to travel for the sole purpose of traveling rather than reaching a destination. Thereby, drawing attention away from the destination as a sole travel motivator. Another argument that supports the dissimilarity between the two concepts is the push and pull theory within travel motivation (Bello and Etzel, 1985). Drawing on this theory, which seeks to explain an individual's travel motivation, it can thus be argued that a xenophile is drawn by pull motives, as s(he) is aroused by destination

characteristics, whereas a wanderluster is more affected by push motives that are internal to the individual, such as the need for relaxation and meditation. Nevertheless, it is not just in regard to the destination that the two variables differentiate. In fact, the results from the present study also suggests that the two constructs differentiate on a number of other parameters. For instance, the two constructs vary greatly in regard to their curious mindset. Whereas xenophiles, arguably, are aware of what they are searching for when traveling, i.e., specific destinations and cultures, people with traits of wanderlust do not necessarily know and will possibly never find it. Thus, for a wanderluster, traveling does not have to comprise a certain goal, it is the journey itself, which is the greater purpose. In addition, the study revealed that people with traits of wanderlust are willing to travel alone on their journey out in the world. This is in contrast to xenophiles, who prefer traveling with others and thus share the travel experiences with someone. Hence, differences in regard to destination, curiosity, and traveling alone, are all characteristics, which prove that wanderlust and tourism xenophilia do, in fact, differentiate from each other. It has thereby been confirmed that wanderlust is a separate concept, which in its definition and meaning is distinct from tourism xenophilia.

Lastly, we developed a new scale prior to the data collection to measure the concept of wanderlust. The scale is built upon the definition of wanderlust, which was carried out previously in this thesis. We chose to develop the scale, in spite of the fact that another wanderlust scale had already been developed by Shields (2011) within the domain of travel research. The reason why we chose to develop a new scale instead of using the pre-existing alternative, was due to the fact that the pre-existing scale was built around the travel destination as a pivotal point with items such as *'I dream about going to exotic travel destinations'*. However, since the extant literature and theory on wanderlust has proven that the destination is not of importance to a wanderluster, it was seen as a necessity to develop a new scale to measure the construct. We tested the reliability on the scale, and it was as high as .848, which indicates a high reliability as well as satisfactory degree of internal consistency among the items. Thus, the present study has arranged for a reliable and practicable scale, which can be used to measure wanderlust in future studies and research.

The results of this thesis, which were examined in the previous section (see 3. Conceptual Framework and Hypothesis Development) confirm a majority of our hypotheses, however, also

rejects some. These findings will be discussed in the following section, including the possible implications they will have for the existing theory on the topic.

The Drivers of WA

It was hypothesized that restlessness has a positive effect on wanderlust (H8). The reasoning behind this hypothesis is built upon the notion that traveling oftentimes represents excitement, novelty, and exploration, and thereby acts as an antidote to restlessness (Danckert et al., 2018). By testing the hypothesis, the results confirmed that restlessness does have a positive effect on wanderlust ($\beta = .272, p < .001$). In addition, it was hypothesized that restlessness also has a positive effect on tourism xenophilia (H18). Nevertheless, this hypothesis was rejected, as no significant relationship was found between restlessness and tourism xenophilia ($\beta = -.097, N.S = p > .05$). It can be argued that this unexpected result does, in fact, make sense when diving into the literature on the area, and comparing it to the definitions of the two concepts. As it has been mentioned earlier, boredom is a disengaged state in which the individual is motivated to be engaged with their environment, but for whom all attempts to do so fail. Furthermore, restlessness is often used interchangeably with the concept of mind-wandering. (Danckert et al., 2018). As suggested by the literature, wanderlust is used to describe the mind of the 'hobo'. The hobo is always on the move but has no destination. In this sense, restlessness and the impulse to escape from the routine of ordinary life drives the hobo, who further seeks change solely for the sake of change (Park and Burgess, 1984). Thus, it can be argued that the individual who possess wanderluristic characteristics, travels in order to get away from the routine of ordinary life and get a break from the constant feeling of restlessness and mind-wandering. The wanderluster, arguably, travels as a form of meditation in order to find oneself (Botton, 2002). On the contrary, tourism xenophilia refers to an individual's attraction toward the perceived foreignness of destinations, which constitutes a central reason to travel. Here, tourism xenophilia has been linked to a number of human beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors, such as individuals' curiosity and tendency to seek contact with out-group members (Siem, Stürmer, and Pittinsky 2016) as well as genuine human interest in foreign cultures and traditions (Stürmer and Benbow 2017). Thus, it can be argued that xenophiles do not necessarily travel to escape daily routines at home, or get a break from restlessness, as for wanderlusters, but instead travel merely to explore the foreignness of various destinations across the world.

This argument fits well with the next finding concerning the driver of 'curiosity'. This

hypothesis is built upon the notion that curiosity is a driver of wanderlust, as the journey, when traveling, may represent excitement, dissimilarity, and new challenges (Kashdan et al., 2017). Thus, it was specifically hypothesized that curiosity would have a positive effect on wanderlust (H7). However, the results showed that this was not the case. In fact, there was no significant relationship between curiosity and wanderlust ($\beta = .024$, N.S = $p > .05$). In contrast, the results showed a significant relationship between curiosity and tourism xenophilia (H17) ($\beta = .339$, $p < .001$). Although these results were unexpected, it can be argued that they also relate to the notion that individuals with wanderlusting traits travel as a form of meditation, and to escape reality rather than to explore specific destinations and distinct cultures. As earlier mentioned, the construct of curiosity, among other things, involves investigating how other people think, feel, and behave (Renner, 2006), which in retro perspective is not necessarily something that the wanderluster is interested in. Instead, these are all traits, which the xenophile possesses. In its essence, tourism xenophilia is related to a fascination of foreign destinations as well as the local people who reside at the destination. Hence, it leads us to conclude that a wanderluster, among other things, travels to feel free and soothe the feeling of restlessness, whereas a xenophile travels to satisfy the feeling of curiosity through exploration.

Furthermore, it was hypothesized that there is a positive relationship between novelty seeking and wanderlust (H10). The hypothesis is built upon the belief that novelty can incite individuals to travel, for the sole purpose of traveling, in the hope of gaining novel experiences and a new environment. The results confirmed this hypothesis ($\beta = .024$, N.S = $p > .05$), which substantiates the fact that novelty seeking does have a positive effect on wanderlust. In addition, the hypothesis stating that novelty seeking has a positive effect on tourism xenophilia (H20) was also confirmed ($\beta = .339$, $p < .001$). For some individuals, the daily routine makes them bored, which ultimately makes them seek out novel pleasures, that is, doing and seeing new and different things (Bello and Etzel, 1985). In this connection, it can be argued that individuals with characteristics of wanderlust prefer novelty travel in regards to a change of environment, again to soothe their restlessness. They do not travel for the purpose of experiencing new destinations, meeting new people, or other and diverse cultures, which is the case for the xenophiles. Instead, they travel for the sole purpose of traveling, in the hope of gaining an inner calm in a new and diverse environment.

Whereas the aforementioned drivers of restlessness, curiosity, and novelty seeking all are regarded as various personality traits, which an individual can possess, the next two drivers

of ‘early travel experience’ and ‘lack of vocation’ do not fit into this box. Instead, the former is a construct that represents past travel behavior, whereas the latter refers to a more complex construct about an individual’s calling in life.

It was hypothesized that an individual’s *lack* of vocation has a strongly positive effect on wanderlust (H9). The hypothesis was built upon the notion that individuals who are uncertain of their calling in life may develop a higher degree of willingness to leave everything behind and travel out into the world to explore it. However, the results revealed the opposite: There is no significant relationship between the two variables ($\beta = .079$, N.S = $p > .05$), and the hypothesis can therefore be rejected. A possible explanation of the results can, arguably, be related to the complexity of the construct. The notion of vocation or ‘calling in life’ relates to a holistic understanding of work in the context of life, highlighting concerns such as career development, job satisfaction, well-being, and personal growth (Dit et al., 2012). Thus, in contrast to the aforementioned constructs such as curiosity and restlessness, it can be argued that the present construct is much more complex and difficult for the respondents to take a stand to. This is further supported by the fact that the respondents are distributed across a wide age group, where the youngest respondent is 18 years old. In fact, 18.5% of the respondents are 30 or below (see Appendix C). According to studies, a large proportion of young adults are anxious about the career choices they make and remain undecided about careers after they have reached a chronological point in development where they, according to society, should be able to choose (Hawkins, 1977). In addition, 25% of the respondents are retired (see Appendix C) and therefore not present on the job market. Thus, in retro perspective, it can be argued that the items that were asked to measure ‘lack of vocation’ such as ‘*I believe I have been called to my current line of work*’ and ‘*my work helps me live out my life’s purpose*’ are irrelevant to a larger part of the respondents.

Lastly, it was hypothesized that wanderlust begins with early travel experiences, which continues and inspires future travel behavior (H11). This hypothesis was built upon the only other study of the concept within travel and tourism literature, made by Shields (2011). In her study, she argued that the relationship between past travel experiences and wanderlust is strong. However, the results in this thesis showed otherwise. No significant relationship between early travel experiences and wanderlust was found ($\beta = .041$, N.S = $p > .05$). As mentioned prior to this section, the possible explanation of this finding can be explained by the fact that Shield’s study considers the definition of wanderlust in a way, which can be argued to be more similar

to the neighboring concept of tourism xenophilia. This argument is supported by the fact that Shield's definition of wanderlust is '*a predisposition and impulsive urge to travel that permeates throughout all phases of the consumer's travel experience*' (Shield, 2011). Thus, Shields suggests that all aspects of the individual's travel experience such as, e.g., people, destination, and the journey are equally important to a wanderluster. Thus, it can be argued that instead of finding a relationship between early travel experiences and wanderlust, Shield discovered a relationship between early travel experiences and tourism xenophilia. The argument is further backed by the results of our study, which revealed a significant relationship ($\beta = .121, P < .05$) between early travel experience and tourism xenophilia (H21).

The Outcomes of WA

It was hypothesized that wanderlust would have a positive effect on individuals' willingness to travel (H5). Surprisingly, the results indicated otherwise, namely that there was no significant effect to be found between the dependent and independent variable in this configuration. However, it may be relevant to look at the statistical power of the conducted study. Although our primary data reflects both strongly reliable and representative characteristics, the number of respondents (N=200) may arguably have influenced this specific outcome. If we had greater statistical power, that is, a higher number of respondents to our survey, the outcome may have been different (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). On the other hand, it may also be relevant to look at the conducted scale, which was used to measure this relationship. As indicated in the methodological framework, we were not able to find a reliable scale that could measure the desired relationship. Thus, we conducted our own scale, which was based on a single-item scale. On the basis of this choice, we were not able to measure the reliability. This could suggest that the foundation of the scale does not reflect high quality. In opposition, one could further argue that this outcome may be due to the fact that individuals with traits of wanderlust are not able to consider future travel plans. As the scale is built upon questions regarding the individual's intended future travel plans, it may have been difficult to prosper. For instance, we further hypothesized that tourism xenophilia would have a positive effect on individuals' willingness to travel (H16). This hypothesis was, in contrast to H5, confirmed, as the outcome showed a positive and significant relationship between the two constructs ($\beta = .259, p < .05$). This may be due to the fact that xenophiles have a desire to visit specific destinations and engage in specific cultures (see e.g. Perlmutter, 1954; Stürmer et al., 2013; Nørfelt et al., 2019),

in opposition to individuals with wanderlust, who travel for the sole purpose of traveling and *not* reaching a destination. Thereby suggesting that individuals with TXI may plan more ahead when it comes to traveling, as they have specific purposes and goals that they wish to fulfil when they travel (Stürmer et al., 2013). Another argument supporting this view is that the personality trait ‘restlessness’ was found to be a significant predictor of wanderlust, as indicated in the prior section. Since restless people tend to make more impulsive decisions (Weyandt et al., 2003), it substantiates the argument that it may be more difficult for individuals with wanderlust to plan ahead.

The aforementioned may be linked to the outcome of hypothesis 1 as well. We hypothesized that wanderlust had a positive effect on individuals’ intention to travel without a plan (H1). As the results presented, the hypothesis was confirmed, thereby suggesting a positive and significant effect between the respective constructs ($\beta = .216$, $p < .05$). This outcome may help shed light on the outcome of the rejected hypothesis 5 presented above. Since the results have indicated that people with wanderlust tend to favor the unpredictable, thereby prefer traveling with no pre-planned routes or activities in their mind whatsoever, it may explain why our conducted scale in relation to hypothesis 5 was either narrowly constructed or simply not a good match to individuals with wanderlust. The latter refers to the possible inability for people with wanderlust to make any future decisions, plans, and choices in relation to travel. This is further substantiated by the fact that some individuals are more likely to be satisfied when they have *less* strong expectations of a trip, which pre-planning can decrease (Babin and Kim, 2001).

It was further hypothesized that wanderlust had a strongly positive effect on individuals’ willingness to travel alone (H2). This hypothesis was confirmed, showing a highly significant and positive relationship ($\beta = .438$, $p < .001$). It was further hypothesized that TXI would have a negative effect on the same respective outcome (H13). Supplementary, the results confirmed the conducted hypothesis, thereby suggesting that wanderlust can explain an outcome that TXI is unable to, in this case, individuals’ willingness to travel alone. Taking the literature review and thereby the theory as a point of departure, the outcome of the respective hypotheses (H2:H13) makes sense. Several authors have used wanderlust in a context to describe individuals’ solo journeys (see e.g. Jordan and Gibson, 2005; Mehmetoglu et al., 2001; Opaschowski, 2006). In addition, people with wanderlust prefer traveling without a plan, as presented above, which corresponds to the fact that solo travelers prefer freedom and flexibility

(Lawson and Hyde, 2003). In opposition, xenophiles would arguably not want to embark on a journey alone or enter a destination by themselves (Stürmer et al., 2013), as opposed to individuals with wanderlust, who do not travel for the purpose of meeting people or becoming part of local communities. This discovery may help shed light on the outcomes thus far, namely that people with wanderlust prefer to travel without a plan and are further willing to travel alone, whereas xenophiles travel to experience the foreignness of people, strangers, and the destination (see e.g. Perlmutter, 1954; Nørfelt et al., 2019).

In opposition to the latter outcome, we further found it interesting and relevant to test the possible relationship between WA and TXI in relation to individuals' willingness to engage with locals. As TXI is an already established concept, we expected that the relationship between TXI and the respective outcome would be positive, as this specific relationship has been examined before in a research conducted on the focal variable (Nørfelt et al., 2019). The hypothesis (H14) was confirmed, thereby suggesting that the extant literature and theories on the concept aligns with our study. In addition, we hypothesized that WA would have a slightly positive effect on individuals' willingness to engage with locals (H3), which was confirmed through our results. Although we also hypothesized that wanderlust would have a strongly positive effect on individuals' willingness to travel alone, we argue that wanderlust do not travel for the *purpose* of engaging with locals and experiencing cultures, however, they may engage with locals if the opportunity arise but it cannot explain why they travel, as the case is seen with TXI. This may explain why there is a significant relationship between wanderlust and individuals' willingness to travel alone (H2) as well as individuals' willingness to engage with locals (H3).

Additionally, we hypothesized that wanderlust had a positive effect on individuals' intention to travel the world. This was confirmed through our results, which indicated that the relationship was significant and positive ($\beta = .490$, $p < .001$). As wanderlust has previously been used in the extant literature to describe people or characters who have traveled the world and 'lived on the edge' (see e.g. Tansella, 2017; Bollard, 2016), the results of the conducted hypothesis helped shed additional light on this established view. Hence, the currently discussed outcomes reflect and complement the observation that people with wanderlust favor the journey above the destination; and traveling the world may arguably be an optimal way to fulfil this desire. The conducted hypothesis in relation to TXI and the respective outcome was also confirmed in our results, thereby illustrating that both focal

variables have a significant and positive effect on individuals' intention to travel the world. However, it could be argued that while individuals with wanderlust would travel the world for the purpose of being on the go and maybe trying to alleviate their restlessness, xenophiles would, on the other hand, travel the world with the purpose of reaching specific destinations and become part of the local communities to explore and seek out the foreignness of both.

We further found it interesting to examine the actual behavior of the respondents. Thus, we hypothesized that there was a positive relationship between individuals' willingness to travel and the actual trips that they have taken. The outcome showed a significant effect between the dependent and independent variable, which confirms our hypothesis. The reason for including a construct like this is to, hopefully, substantiate to the overall reliability of the study. Many individuals express what they wish to do when engaging in an online survey, however, they do not always 'walk the talk' (Carrington, Neville, and Whitwell, 2010). Had the outcome been different, thereby showing that there was no significant effect to be found, it may have had a negative effect on the reliability of the respondents. Moreover, it would have been more difficult to suggest any theoretical (or practical) implications, as the second and fictional scenario would suggest that the respondents do not walk the talk, thereby creating biased results. However, the recent discovery made in the results showed otherwise, thereby suggesting a strong relationship between individuals' willingness to travel and the actual trips they have planned in the nearest future.

In summary, it may be argued that people with wanderlust use travel as a form of meditation, an escape from reality and everyday life. Their restless minds lead them to explore the novelty of being on the go. They favor traveling for the *sole* purpose of traveling. The restlessness traits arguably result in impulsive decision-making, which may explain why people with wanderlust would not mind traveling alone and further prefer traveling without making any pre-planning decisions. In addition, wanderlusters enjoy the journey above anything else, which may also explain why there is a strong and positive relationship between wanderlust and individuals' willingness to travel the world. Thus, there is no obvious purpose as for *why* they are traveling as seen with the case of TXI, where people, culture, and most importantly destinations are crucial factors for them when traveling beyond one's own borders (Stürmer et al., 2013).

6.2 Practical Implications

For decades in literature specific on the matter, wanderlust has been described with close reference to the established meaning and definition of the concept of tourism xenophilia (see e.g. Gray, 1970; Wain, 2012; Snellin, 2018). With the emergence of wanderlust as a concept within the travel motivation literature, this study has so far argued that wanderlust is, in fact, a concept of its own, which should be taken into account in both a theoretical and literary perspective. Now we will suggest that this study has several practical implications as well, which could have potential benefits for various stakeholders. Thus, the following section will elaborate on the practical implications that this study has in general as well as for specific stakeholders.

Following the notion of this study, a new and potential travel motivator has been presented, namely wanderlust. Prior to this study, the overriding focus area and concern within, specifically, the travel industry and literature has been in destination image and selection (March and Woodside; 2005; Pike, 2002). However, with the imminent rise of wanderlust, new focal points have been explored. As the results indicated, wanderlust is a concept of its own, which has an effect on *and* is affected by several drivers and outcomes. Subsequently, some of these drivers and outcomes have shown to be insignificant in their relationship with or to tourism xenophilia, suggesting that wanderlust can explain something in relation to certain drivers and outcomes, which TXI cannot. The drivers and outcomes are relevant to discuss as they substantiate the introduction of a newfangled travel motivator that is far from irrelevant for practitioners. For instance, drivers of wanderlust such as ‘novelty seeking’ and ‘restlessness’ could be important traits to look into. Moreover, the outcome in which wanderlust has a significant and positive effect on, and which TXI does not, is individuals’ willingness to travel alone. This relationship may be pertinent and will therefore, among other things, be elaborated on below.

With wanderlust as an emergent travel motivator, it may be argued that there is an entire segment and target group, which has not been considered in practice nor in theory before. Thus, the question is now how to deal with the concept of wanderlust and this promising group of individuals. In general, it could be beneficial to firstly discuss the traveling preferences of the wanderlusters. Taking the several outcomes into account, it is possible to create a few scenarios that may be applicable in relation to individuals with wanderlust. Firstly, in the

overall context, people with wanderlust do not travel for the purpose of reaching a destination. Instead, they consider the journey to be more exciting rather than the destination itself, which is in great opposition to xenophiles, who travel with the purpose of experiencing the foreignness of a destination and its people and cultures (Nørfelt et al., 2019). Thus, although individuals with wanderlust may travel to other destinations, their purpose is not to reach and explore the destination. Instead, they enjoy the journey above everything else, which is why ‘the destination’ can be completely eliminated in terms of travel preferences and market strategies. Secondly, the results have confirmed the majority of the conducted hypotheses in relation to the outcomes of wanderlust; among others, individuals’ willingness to travel the world, individuals’ willingness to travel alone, and individuals’ intention to travel without a plan, which showed a visible relationship. This again suggests that wanderlusters prefer traveling for the sole purpose of traveling rather than reaching a destination. With reference to this, they would like to travel the world; to go on long journeys, where their minds can wander, and their restless souls can become one with nature. This could potentially imply that vacation trips such as trekking could be a relevant travel type for people with wanderlust. Walking can, in fact, be more than just a way of getting exercise. It is also a way of slowing down and admiring the scenery; you are able to connect with yourself and the world in a way that you are not able to otherwise - and you do not *have* to travel with a companion (Wanderlust.co.uk, 2020). Whether it is a short stroll around a city or a heart-pumping trek through the wildest landscapes, walking and trekking could arguably be good ways of nursing the restless and novelty seeking genes that wanderlusters possess.

Based on this study, it may further be argued that wanderlust is, in fact, a niche, thereby a concept that relates and appeals to a specialized section of the population. As the tourism industry has evolved into an arena of fierce competition (Sirgy and Su, 2000), it may be beneficial for several stakeholders to start to prosper the concept of wanderlust and incorporate it into their businesses. By doing so, it may result in several advantages, as there has not been a wider focus on wanderlust before, that is, on the desire to travel for the *sole* purpose of traveling rather than reaching a destination. Moreover, the market area of traveling alone or solo traveling is among the fastest growing segments (see e.g. Jordan and Gibson, 2005; Mehmetoglu et al., 2001; Opaschowski, 2006), which is also an outcome that had a positive and significant relationship with wanderlust. Thus, if business operators and other relevant stakeholders were able to capture this niche, they would arguably be able to gain

several advantages and benefits, which would enhance their overall competitiveness. The main issue and question are therefore *how* stakeholders should entice the wanderlusters. Intuitively, there may be some stakeholders who are already aware of the fact that some people love to travel for the sole purpose of traveling rather than reaching a destination. However, this study will arguably help strengthen their comprehension of this target group and segment. Moreover, it will enable them to comprehend which factors drive wanderlusters' desire as well as which outcomes their desire has a strong relationship with, for instance, a strong willingness to travel alone, a strong willingness to travel the world, and a strong intention to travel without a plan.

As was argued in the section of theoretical implications, wanderlust is arguably what is referred to as a 'push' motivation in the travel motivation literature. Thus, it is most often *internal* factors that explain the desire to go on a vacation (Crompton, 1979). Consequently, it would be beneficial for stakeholders in general to appeal to individuals' emotions together with internal drivers such as, for instance, 'restlessness' and 'novelty seeking', which were traits that were found to have a significant relationship with the concept of wanderlust. In addition, it is important to note that the destination is unswervingly irrelevant to individuals with wanderlust. On the other hand, the destination is a crucial motivator for xenophiles, which is arguably a 'pull' motive when taking the travel motivation literature into account. Pull motives, such as TXI, are aroused by the destination and encompass climate characteristics, historical sights, and other destination characteristics (Bello and Etzel, 1985). Thus, one should arguably take clear and different approaches to individuals with wanderlust in comparison to individuals with tourism xenophilia, thereby not focusing on, for instance, the destination when they are targeting individuals with wanderlust.

By establishing the push and pull motivations, it is possible to propose strategies that stakeholders can use to influence and gain the attention of individuals with wanderlust. Thus, it could be relevant to look into the channels and potential marketing campaigns that would enable stakeholders to reach the wanderlusters. As this study has focused on the mindset rather than on demographic variables, it can be difficult to create demographic-specific campaigns on the basis of this study, for instance, marketing initiatives that are related to wanderlusters based on either age or gender. However, while perceiving wanderlust as a travel motivator, there may be other ways to catch the attention of the traveling souls rather than through demographic knowledge of the wanderlusters. As individuals with wanderlust are both restless and novelty seekers and furthermore prefer to travel without making any pre-planning

decisions, they arguably tend to make rather impulsive decisions instead. This suggests that it would be beneficial for stakeholders to target wanderlusts while they are on their journey out in the world, thereby at the local host communities, which will be elaborated on later in this section.

However, it should also be considered that individuals with wanderlust do not seek novelty in relation to moving beyond one's own borders, that is, the destination. Instead, they may arguably consider a 'change of environment' as something novel, which suggests that individuals with wanderlust may be satisfied by simply taking a long walk or traveling within their own country, thereby seeking novel experiences in terms of moving from place a to place b without thinking about or planning the final destination.

With the exploration of wanderlust, this study has opened the possibility of investigating the concept even further. By doing so it will enable marketers and researchers to grasp the opportunity and use it to their advance. The following section will therefore present the potential stakeholders, which may arguably have the greatest implications from this study.

First, as discovered throughout the literature review of this thesis, the concept of wanderlust has up until now not been thoroughly researched within travel research nor properly defined. Even online dictionaries have been disagreeing on what the concept of wanderlust actually means. Among the various definitions, wanderlust has, for instance, been defined as '*the wish to travel far away and to many different places*' (Cambridge Dictionary, n.a.) and '*a very strong desire to travel*' (Your Dictionary, n.a.). Thus, until now, it can be argued that there has not been a clear consensus in relation to the official meaning of the word. Nevertheless, the concept of wanderlust has been used frequently in a variety of travel contexts, across various types of media. These are, among others, social media, broadcast media as well as print media. In this present study, the concept has been properly defined, which arguably will have practical implications affecting these media.

For instance, on social media, everything from bloggers writing about their adventures (see e.g. The Wanderlust Blogger; World of Wanderlust) to social media influencers, whom are paid to promote travel-related content (see e.g. The Blonde Abroad; Jack Morris) to individuals sharing their travel experiences on social media, use the concept of 'wanderlust'. As mentioned in the introductory section, when searching on #wanderlust as a hashtag on Instagram, 117.288.621 posts appear of which many of the posts revolve around the travel

destination, and hereunder the culture and interesting sights at the destination. Thus, it seems like wanderlust is a very popular concept to use on social media when traveling. In comparison, even though the concept of tourism xenophilia has been examined and discussed thoroughly within the travel research literature, when searching on #xenophilia as a hashtag on Instagram, only 1.900 posts appear (Instagram, 2020). Thus, the concept has arguably been used to describe tourism xenophilia, rather than wanderlust. However, on the basis of the findings presented in this thesis, these people will be able to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the concept, and thus relate and identify better with the meaning of wanderlust.

For broadcast and print media, it was discovered throughout the literature review of this thesis that authors and writers of respectively movies, series, books, and poems, further define the concept of wanderlust in a variety of different ways. As earlier discovered, one of the discourses, which have been spread about wanderlust is that it resembles the definition of tourism xenophilia. A specific stakeholder that, arguably, has participated in spreading an understanding of ‘wanderlust’, which resembles the one of tourism xenophilia is the Wanderlust Magazine, who have 700,000 travel-interested readers each month (Wanderlust.co.uk, 2020). The magazine promotes specific travel destinations around the world and claims, among other things, that destination and planning are as interesting as the journey for a wanderluster. According to our findings, the characteristics of an individual with traits of ‘wanderlust’ is interested in the journey, not the destination. The wanderluster, furthermore, does not like to plan ahead of time. Thus, it can be argued that the findings presented throughout this thesis can be relevant and useful for the various types of media presented above, as it outlines one final and reliable definition of the concept. Consequently, enabling the media to understand the true meaning of ‘wanderlust’ and thereby use it, properly, to describe a desire to travel for the sole purpose of traveling rather than reaching a destination.

In addition, this present study has contributed to the travel motivation theory in a sense, which, moving forward, will enable individuals to identify themselves with the concept of wanderlust. Prior to this study, the wanderluristic individuals might have been unable to fully comprehend and describe the feeling of restlessness and the desire to be on the go. Nevertheless, in the wake of this study, an individual possessing wanderluristic traits will know that (s)he is motivated to travel due to an innate desire of traveling for the sole purpose of traveling rather than reaching a destination. Thus, these individuals will further be informed about what drives their motivation, i.e., restlessness and novelty seeking, and in turn what

outcomes wanderlust influence, i.e., an intention to travel the world, to travel without a plan, willingness to travel alone, and willingness to engage with locals. Based on the new findings in this thesis, wanderlusting individuals will, arguably, be able to better understand who they are, and why they feel or behave the way they do.

The stakeholder, which the concept of wanderlust, arguably, has the most implications for is the tourism industry. The tourism industry includes both travel information and facilitation, hospitality, transportation, as well as attractions and entertainment (Encyclopedia.com, 2020). As mentioned earlier, this study has opened up for a completely new motivator for traveling and thereby a new untapped niche market. The global tourism industry has become an extremely dynamic system and it operates in a volatile environment, in which both growth and development fluctuate. Nowadays, the travel information and facilitation providers not only have to compete against local competitors but also against global companies due to the emergence of online travel information and facilitation providers. As a result of the general broadening of the public's travel experiences and the large amount of information available online, travelers are becoming more sophisticated in their needs and preferences. Thus, they require customized services, which suit their needs. As a result, the rise of niche tourism has been recognized and can be characterized as multi-dimensional space that describes the characteristics of a group of tourists who share similar desires and wants (Wu et al., 2016). Thus, the overall key to success for the various stakeholders operating within the tourism industry is based upon the effectiveness and efficiency with which they can satisfy the needs of the wanderlusts relative to competitors. On this basis, it can therefore be argued that the companies operating within the tourism industry can benefit from developing a marketing strategy in which they target the wanderlust travelers. Unlike mass marketing techniques, tourism marketers within the tourism industry cannot make assumptions about specific customer groups (Dalgic et al., 1994), and therefore this very thesis can be seen as a good starting point in understanding the needs and desires of the wanderluster as well as which factors and characteristics they should focus on when targeting the wanderlusts..

First of all, travel information and facilitation includes stakeholders such as travel agencies and tour operators (see e.g. Kilroy Travel; Albatros Travel), as well as tourist information centers (see e.g. Copenhagen Visitor Service; Tours & Tickets Copenhagen). In this context, travel agencies and tour operators should, first and foremost, notice that wanderlust travelers prefer making as few pre-planning decisions as possible. Therefore, travel

agencies and tour operators should not target the wanderlusts through complete package deals. It can be argued that package deals would take away the magical element of spontaneity, which adds to the experience for the wanderluster. Instead, the travel agencies and tour operators should help the wanderlusts on the journey out in the world, thereby allowing the wanderlusts to make impulsive decisions on the journey about where they want to travel next. Thus, travel agencies should work with transportation companies that provide flexible solutions to travelers. Here, tourist information centers can successfully target the wanderlust travelers through providing help and inspiration of how and where the next step in the wanderlusts journey can be. This could for instance be done through providing maps of the particular city or country in which the tourist information center is operating with advice on how to continue the journey.

Secondly, in regards to the hospitality companies providing accommodation to travelers (including B&B, guest houses, hostels, and hotels), it should be emphasized that the wanderluster prefers to wander around, without knowing where (s)he ends up. Thus, it is difficult to anticipate the behavior of the wanderlusts and as a result in which destination they end up, which, arguably, is not important to the wanderluster. Therefore, based upon the findings in this study, the hospitality providers have to be present with vacant rooms at whichever location the wanderluster passes by. For instance, for hospitality providers to reach the wanderlusts, a suggestion could be to advertise at train stations or bus stops with display signs stating '*Hostel 200 meters down the road. Vacant rooms for tonight!*'. Another suggestion for hospitality providers could be to take advantage of the rise of technology and develop mobile apps, which can enable travelers to find nearby accommodation when they are on the go. In that way, the hospitality providers will appeal to the impulsivity trait of the wanderluster. This filter is already adapted by, for instance, TripAdvisor (TripAdvisor, 2020).

Third, the stakeholders within attractions and entertainment should not target the wanderlusts through cultural activities and sightseeing. As mentioned prior to this section, the wanderluster does not travel for the sake of participating in cultural activities, which suggests that stakeholders within attraction and entertainment that offer cultural activities, such as sightseeing should not focus their attention towards this group. Instead, the cultural activities should be targeted against the individuals high on TXI. Unlike wanderlusts, they *do* have an actual interest in participating in cultural activities on the destination. Nevertheless, an opportunity for the stakeholders operating in attractions and entertainment to target the

wanderlusts should be by appealing to the traits of ‘novelty seeking’ and ‘restlessness’. This could for instance be through providing activities that allow for a wanderluster to be on the go and enjoy the meditating feeling of the journey. Thus, activities such as trekking could be relevant for the wanderlusts. These options should further be provided at the local destinations, as wanderlusts do not prefer to plan ahead.

Finally, the transportation companies can potentially also benefit from the findings in this thesis. A traveler will, in most cases, prior to traveling or during the vacation, purchase a transportation ticket or rent a means of transport. Thus, in this context, it can be argued that transportation companies such as flight companies, train operating companies, transportation rental companies, and bus operating companies could benefit from knowing that there is a niche market of wanderlusts, who, among other things, enjoy impulsive journeys and traveling alone. Furthermore, the wanderlusts, arguably, prefer flexibility in relation to their transport, thereby keeping as many doors open as possible. Therefore, suitable transportation-offers for a wanderluster could, for instance, be one-way tickets, changeable tickets or passes to trains, where they can jump on and off. A suggestion could be to create vouchers, or so-called ‘ten-journey tickets’ for, for example, air travels. In that way, wanderlusts could pay for flight tickets in advance without having to plan the destination nor the date. This will give them the freedom and flexibility to travel impulsively in the future. Another suggestion is for the rental companies that provide rental of various transportation means, such as cars, minivans, motorcycles etc. to appeal to the wanderlustic individuals through offering solo transportation means, such as motorcycles or bicycles, which can be dropped off in any, relatively unplanned, location. This will give the wanderlusts the opportunity to enjoy the freedom of being on the road alone.

In summary, it is seen as a cruciality that the abovementioned stakeholders are present both physically and online to let wanderlusts know they exist. In general, it is considered an important factor in marketing that marketers identify, anticipate, and satisfy the distinct needs and wants of consumers, even before the consumers identify that they even have a need (Dalgic and Leeuw, 1994). On the basis of this study, it has been discovered that the wanderlusts are already ‘out there’. This means that stakeholders need to make relevant marketing initiatives, campaigns, and segments, which targets the ‘restless’ and ‘novelty seeking’ wanderlusts, and which further appeals to this niche who loves to travel alone, who dreams about traveling the world one day - without having to necessarily plan everything in advance. Thus, for the

wanderlusting consumers to feel that their needs and wants are identified and met, it would be beneficial for stakeholders to take the first step in engaging with the wanderlusts.

7. Limitations

This section aims at presenting the reader with several potential limitations, which should be considered.

First, it is important to note that the nature of this research paper is exploratory and empirical. An exploratory study refers to the process of investigating a problem that has not been studied or thoroughly investigated in past literature (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). In addition, an empirical study is based on observed and measured phenomena and further derives knowledge from actual experience rather than from theory (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). As wanderlust is a concept that has not received a lot of attention in the extant literature nor has been researched in depth before, we have used an exploratory type of research. Hence, we have no prior knowledge nor experience in relation to what may be the correct or the wrong approach. Additionally, our empirical study has been based on a limited amount of theory and literature.

Second, citing and referencing prior research studies generally make up the theoretical foundations for the research topic that is being investigated. However, since there is a restricted amount of theory and literature on the topic of wanderlust, the theoretical foundation, i.e., the literature review, has been very limited. As a result, we, as researchers, grope in the dark, as we are investigating in an entirely new research area, thereby trying to fill out a current research gap. Thus, our hypotheses are developed and based on a limited amount of literature and theory. Therefore, the exploratory and empirical research that has been made in this study cannot be considered a fully comprehensive study. Instead, it can be considered as an important steppingstone to further discover and research new gaps.

Likewise, the timeframe and scope of this paper has meant that it has not been possible to collect qualitative data, for instance, by conducting focus group interviews. If time and the current circumstances in society (i.e., COVID-19) had not been an issue, it would have been beneficial to collect qualitative data as well. This could have provided the analysis with more in-depth answers, which could have enhanced the analysis and discussion in general, as qualitative data usually gives rise to the inclusion of subjective experiences of participants and further enables an 'insider'-perspective on different social words (Langdrige and Hagger-

Johnson, 2009). Thus, qualitative interviews with participants could have helped shed light on wanderlust in another perspective, for instance, it would have been possible to gain a greater understanding as for *why* and *when* the participants show signs of wanderlust.

One should further bear in mind that, when collecting quantitative data by, for instance, conducting an online survey, there are a few disadvantages. Although many individuals express what they intend or wish to do, they do not always 'walk the talk' (Carrington, Neville, and Whitwell, 2010). For instance, it might be true that the respondents have an intention to travel around the world and engage with locals. But we cannot be entirely sure if their intentions reflect their actual behavior. Due to the scope of this paper, we have merely been able to test the respondents' actual travel behavior based on their willingness to travel. Furthermore, according to social desirability bias, respondents may provide socially desirable answers, or take a position that they believe society favors (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). This can for example be by reporting a higher or lower income than are actually true, or stating that they intend to do something, which they in reality would not do.

In addition, it is important to mention that the Shapiro-Wilk's test, in two out of three tests, suggested that our data was not normally distributed. However, in these two cases, the skewness and kurtosis together with a visual inspection of the histogram and Q-Q plots, showed otherwise. This led us to conclude that, despite the results of the Shapiro-Wilk's test, our data was still normally distributed. Furthermore, in regard to the reliability test, which we conducted on all multi-item constructs to see if there was internal consistency between the items, one scale showed an unacceptable low Cronbach's Alpha. As mentioned in the 'measures' section, the construct with the low reliability was 'curiosity' with a reliability of .497. As this is approximately one decimal point below the acceptable limit, it should be seen as a limitation. These limitations should also be taken into consideration when interpreting the data.

Lastly, the current situation in our society and around the world may have had an influence on our primary data collection. The current situation (that is, COVID-19) has, among other things, had an influence on individuals' traveling patterns as it has not been possible for individuals to travel across borders in the same way as it was before COVID-19. Thus, since we are conducting research on WA and TXI and navigating in the field of travel and tourism research and literature, the results of our primary data may be biased. This notion is based on the fact that the majority of our online survey has its roots in questions that intend to explore individuals' traveling behavior. For instance, the respondents are asked to consider their future

traveling plans, however, the current situation in society may complicate the respondents' ability to answer this question without being affected by the contemporary stagnation. Although we ask them to disregard it, we need to be aware that it may still have had an effect on the respondents' answers.

8. Further research

By taking this study as a point of departure, it is possible to investigate and examine other elements in relation to the concept of Wanderlust (WA).

First, the present study relies on survey-based self-reports. This approach is meaningful for our study, because WA is a latent construct, which is neither observable nor objectively measurable. As a result, it is best captured by the reliable measurement instrument we have developed in this thesis. Nevertheless, we encourage future studies to use the WA scale in a methodological structure, which allows for directly measuring behavior. For instance, having access to reliable data around tourists' travel behavior from a flight company or similar, would allow researchers to discover the actual travel behavior of travelers.

Second, in-depth interviews or focus group interviews would help gain a greater understanding of the individuals that show signs of WA, according to the WA scale. Thus, applying a qualitative research method to future studies would allow researchers to gain an 'insider' perspective on WA, and thereby delve into the complexity and detail of the concept. This might also help establish other relevant drivers or outcomes for future research on WA.

Third, we specifically call for future research to create another measurement scale for the outcome 'willingness to travel', as WA did not show any significant effect on this specific construct, which might have been due to the statistical power of the survey. In this connection, researchers might have another idea on how to measure this specific construct and try to test WA on this measurement scale.

Fourth, as this study has focused on the mindset of the wanderlusters rather than on demographic variables, we call for future research to examine WA with demographic items. Here, it could, for instance, be interesting to examine whether there is a connection between WA and age, gender, income, civil status, or region. By doing so, it would add to the practical implications as stakeholders would gain a more detailed description of *who* the wanderlusters are. The present study furthermore relies on a sample of residents in Denmark, as the online

survey merely was sent out to people living in Denmark. Thus, future research is encouraged to expand this perspective and to, for instance, test for cultural differences in WA.

Moreover, the current study takes its point of departure in the travel motivation literature. However, we also urge researchers to investigate the differences between WA and TXI from a personality perspective. Personality relates to the distinctive and enduring patterns of thoughts, emotions, and behaviors, which characterize an individual's adaptation to the situations of his or her life. Personality traits are complex, and research suggests that they are shaped both by inheritance and environmental factors (Jani, 2014). Thus, in future studies, it could be interesting to examine the concepts of TXI and WA on the basis of 'inheritance and environmental' factors. On the basis of this thesis, TXI might, arguably, be something that individuals are taught to have from their childhood, i.e., to have and show an interest in other people and cultures, as well as being curious towards differences in the world. On the contrary, it might, arguably, be assumed that WA is not something that individuals can learn to have, but instead a gene that some individuals are born with (BBC Ideas, 2020).

Finally, since WA, conceivably, is a motive that drives individuals to travel, it would be interesting to examine if and how individuals who are *low* on WA can be motivated to travel. In conclusion, this explorative research on WA opens up for several fruitful roads for future study.

9. Conclusion

Based on the identified research gap, this thesis has examined the following research question: *What is Wanderlust and what does it drive and is driven by?* On this basis, the purpose of the study was to examine what drives and is driven by wanderlust, as well as what differences exist between wanderlust and the neighboring concept of tourism xenophilia.

As there is no prior research on wanderlust within the travel motivation literature, this study has acted as the first exploratory investigation of the role of wanderlust in this area. On this basis, the present thesis has, first and foremost, conceptualized and defined the construct of wanderlust based on the foundation of the travel motivation literature and on the limited amount of pre-existing literature on the term. The concept of wanderlust was identified and defined as: *'An individual's desire to travel for the sole purpose of traveling rather than reaching a destination'*.

In order to test the concept of wanderlust, a set of 21 hypotheses were formulated on the basis of relevant drivers and travel-related outcomes. In relation to this, a new scientific scale was developed to measure the concept of wanderlust in this thesis. This scale revolves around the journey as the pivotal point rather than the destination and can further be used by researchers in future studies. Subsequently, the hypotheses were tested through the data from an online survey. Some of the drivers and outcomes have shown to be insignificant in their relationship with or to tourism xenophilia, suggesting that wanderlust can explain something in relation to certain drivers and outcomes, which TXI cannot. Among the major findings, it was discovered that the feeling of restlessness drives the concept of wanderlust but does not have an effect on tourism xenophilia. Furthermore, the findings confirmed a positive relationship between wanderlust and an individual's willingness to travel alone, which was not the case for tourism xenophilia. To our surprise, several of the hypotheses proposing a positive relationship between specific drivers and wanderlust had to be rejected as no significant relationships were discovered. These include the driver of 'curiosity', 'lack of vocation', and 'early travel experience'. This suggested that neither curiosity, lack of vocation, nor early travel experiences can explain the concept of wanderlust. In addition, several of the chosen outcomes indicated a positive and significant relationship with both WA and TXI, which suggested that the two focal variables could, in fact, explain different things in the variance of the drivers.

Finally, the analysis and discussion of the findings again pointed to the conclusion that wanderlust should be regarded as a viable theoretical contribution within the travel research and motivation literature, answering the question as for 'why people travel'. Whereas the main focus throughout the travel motivation literature has been on the destination of travel as an overriding factor, the concept of wanderlust and the desire to travel for the sole purpose of traveling rather than reaching a destination has added a new perspective to this. It was discovered that individuals with wanderlusting traits, in contrast to xenophiles, travel as a form of meditation to escape reality rather than to explore specific destinations and distinct cultures. These findings can further be said to have several practical implications, which, arguably, are beneficial for a wide set of stakeholders, particularly within the tourism industry. The reason is that this study has opened up a new niche market of travelers, which possibly can be targeted through a range of marketing initiatives. The key findings suggest that practitioners should target the wanderlusters through appealing to traits such as restlessness and novelty seeking. Moreover, individuals with wanderlust have a high preference for traveling without making

any pre-planning decisions, which may suggest that people with wanderlust are more impulsive. In addition, it was shown that people with wanderlust have a higher willingness to travel alone; a market, which is becoming increasingly popular. For instance, it was suggested that the transportation companies can successfully ‘catch’ the wanderlusts by offering one-way tickets, flexible tickets or passes to trains, where the wanderluster can jump on and off; a suggestion that also suits well with the finding showing that wanderlust also has a positive and significant relationship with individuals’ willingness to travel the world. Furthermore, it was suggested that companies that provide hospitality to travelers should try to reach the wanderlusts ‘on the go’ due to their preference for making no pre-planning decisions.

In summary, this thesis can be regarded as the first thorough examination of the concept of ‘wanderlust’ within the domain of travel research and motivation literature, including what wanderlust drives and is driven by. It has further been discovered that the phenomenon of wanderlust does, in fact, differentiate from the concept of tourism xenophilia based on the results from our primary data. Thereby, this study has fulfilled the research gap that has existed so far, suggesting that wanderlust can provide motivation for the initial decision and desire to travel. Thus, it can finally be concluded that wanderlust is a relevant concept and travel motivator, which has several beneficial theoretical and practical implications that should be considered in future studies and practices.

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