University of Otago

Japanese Motivations to Study ESL Abroad in New Zealand

Their Similarities and Differences to Motivations Found Within Pleasure Travel

Scott Macshane

A thesis submitted for the degree of Master of Commerce
in Marketing Management, at the University of Otago,
Dunedin, New Zealand

2012

Abstract

The export education industry is a multi-billion dollar industry worldwide (Payne 2009) that sees millions of people travelling abroad every year (Weaver 2003). In New Zealand export education is the fifth largest export, employing some 32,000 people, and contributing an estimated NZ$2.3 billion dollars to the New Zealand economy (New Zealand Herald 2009; ENZ 2009; Payne 2009). It is important for destinations to have some understanding of the motivations that influence travel decisions so that they can successfully market themselves (Gnoth 1997). Such knowledge is arguably very important for New Zealand, a small global player in the competitive export education industry, which has had a decline in international student numbers in recent years.

This research explores push factor motivations amongst Japanese adults undertaking short-term English study at ELS institutions in New Zealand. This area is being investigated because language learning is one of the world's most important segments of education based tourism, Japan is one of New Zealand's key education markets, most Japanese participating in export education in New Zealand are enrolled in English language schools, and poignantly because the number of Japanese involved in export education in New Zealand has been on the decline for a number of years (MOE 2006; MOE 2010; Statistics New Zealand 2010). In the face of such a decline it is important to develop knowledge of what motivates individuals. This knowledge has the potential to help the export education industry in New Zealand stem or reverse the decline in the Japanese export education market.

This study compares push motivations of Japanese ESL students in New Zealand to push factor motivations from the general tourism literature. This approach was taken because evidence indicates that ESL students have other key reasons other than education to go abroad, including tourism related reasons (Batchelor 1988), there are indications that Japanese ELS students are motivated by a wide variety of factors not just those relating to the benefits of education (Kobayashi 2007; Watkins 2006; Watkins 2010), and because while the

United Nation's World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) classifies international education experiences as a type of tourism (Weaver 2003) their motivations are rarely identified as pleasure travel motivations (Wiers-Jenssen 2003; Kitsantas 2004; Kobayashi 2007; Watkins 2006; Watkins 2010; Jarvis and Peel 2008; Nyaupane et. al. 2011).

For this research a qualitative case study was made of a small sample of twenty-four Japanese adults undertaking short term English study within New Zealand. With this approach face-to-face interviews were conducted; these were then analysed in relation to pleasure travel motivations in the literature. Specific questions addressed by this research were:

(a) What motivates adults from Japan to leave their home country and go abroad?

(b) What motivates Japanese adults to undertake study English while abroad?

(c) How alike and different are the push factor motivations of Japanese adults enrolled in English language study in New Zealand to push factor motivations within pleasure travel

Findings indicated that participants were motivated to travel and study English abroad by bundles of education and non-education related motivations. While key motivational differences were found between the two groups in the areas of instrumental motivation, extrinsic motivation, and now-or-never motivation it was evident that participants shared many underlying socio-psychological motivations associated with pleasure travel influenced participants to go abroad such as knowledge and learning; anomie and escape; catharsis; novelty, variety, and change; personal growth, self-discovery, and change; affiliation, relatedness, and social interaction; and deep-seated motivation. These findings serve to support earlier suggestions that ESL students have key reasons other than education to go abroad; including tourism related ones (Batchelor 1988) and helps to reinforce the UNWTO's classification of international education experiences as a form of tourism (Weaver 2003).

This knowledge is valuable as it can be used to better market ESL education experiences to the Japanese market and better tailor programmes and experiences to fulfil the different bundles of needs.

Dedication

This is dedicated in loving memory to my Nanna, Joan Ivy Edith Olley, whose passing in 2012 filled us with great sadness. Know that we love you and miss you. Rest in peace, Nanna.

Love

Scott

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Terms:

- *Catharsis*: This term defines the need to purge the individual of emotional tensions and anxiety. This is done by escaping one's home environment and daily life to recharge the self through catharsis (Iso-Ahola 1980).

- *Deep-seated Motivation:* describes motivation that forms a significant period of time prior to departure. This motivation may remain latent and unfulfilled for years or even decades before being satisfied, if it is fulfilled at all.

- *Export education:* This is a technical term, which is defined by the Ministry of Education (2001) as 'a transaction across borders involving the provision of education services in exchange for financial consideration'. This term encompasses individuals who pay a foreign institution to receive an education abroad and those who pay to receive education in their home nation through foreign institutions such as with distance learning or at a supplier's offshore campus (MOE 2001). As this research is concerned with individuals who travel across borders to receive education services, export education will be used much like the term study abroad, describing education that takes place outside the geographical borders of the participant's home nation (Kitsantas 2004). In the context of this research the operational definition of export education and study abroad will be synonymous and interchangeable, and used as such.

- *Image Formation Agents:* Are factors such as books, movies, television, pictures and photographs that influence an individual's motivations for travel (Laing and Crouch 2006).

- *Japanese:* In the context of this study Japanese refers to a participant whose nationality is either Japanese or whose long-term residence is Japan. This definition has been used to encompass individuals who are Japanese by ethnicity as well as minorities living in Japan who are permanent residents of the nation and embedded in Japanese society, but not Japanese citizens or passport holders, such as Japan's ethnic Korean minority.

- *Motivation:* A motivation is an internal force which 'arouses, regulates and sustains' an in individual's behaviour (Vernon 1969, p. 1). Motivation turns into a motive when an individual is aroused, activated and influenced to act on a motivation (Mannell and Kleiber 1997). In the context of this study, for convenience, the term motivation will be used to describe both phases.

- *Now-or-never Motivation:* Now-or-never motivation describes a motivation in an individual that gives them impetus to act on an opportunity while there is the freedom and opportunity to do so. Now-or-never motivation is given impetus by a belief in the individual that if they do not act an opportunity like this will either not arise again for a considerable period or may never happen again.

- *Pull-factor motivation:* Pull factors are external factors or destination attributes, which influence the choice of destination after the initial travel decision is made (Yuan and McDonald 1990). Their value resides in the object of travel (Riley and Van Doren 1992), and includes destination attributes such as beaches and sunshine (Yuan and McDonald 1990) and cultural, social, and activity attractions (Riley and Van Doren 1992).

- *Push-factor motivation:* Push-factor motivations are socio-psychological motivations that influence individuals to travel (Yuan and McDonald 1990). These motivations are internal (Gnoth 1997; Dann 1981) and occur when there are unsatisfied needs within the individual.

- *Short-term English course:* in the context of this study a short-term English course is defined as a course of English study lasting up to one year in length.

- *Study abroad:* a term used to describe education that takes place outside the geographical borders of the participant's home nation, which will be used synonymously and interchangeably with the industry term export education in this study (Kitsantas 2004).

Acronyms and Abbreviations:

AFP: Agence France-Presse (French Press Agency)

DMO: Destination Marketing Organisation

ELS: English Language School

ENZ: Education New Zealand

ESL: English as a Second Language

INZ: Immigration New Zealand

IPA: Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis

JATA: Japan Association of Travel Agents

JTA: Japan Tourism Agency

JTM: Japan Tourism Marketing

MESDC: Major English Speaking Destination Country

MEXT: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (Japan)

MILT: Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism (Japan)

MOE: Ministry of Education (New Zealand)

MOT: Ministry of Tourism (New Zealand)

NTO: National Tourism Organisations

NZ: New Zealand

NZIER: New Zealand Institute of Economic Research

NZQA: New Zealand Qualifications Authority

OECD: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

SARS: Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome

TOEFL: Test of English as a Foreign Language

TOEIC: Test of English for International Communication

TNZ: Tourism New Zealand

TRC: Tourism Resource Consultants

UK: The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland

UNWTO: United Nation's World Trade Organisation

USC: University of Southern California

US: The United States of America

VFR: Visiting Friends and Relatives

'One of the most widespread myths concerning language learning is that the only way to really learn the language of a foreign country is to go and live there. It is a myth shared alike by teachers and students of foreign languages' (Coleman, 1997, p. 2).

Chapter 1: Introduction

This is an account of an explorative study into motivations of 24 adults from Japan travelling abroad and studying English. A qualitative study was undertaken with a convenience sample of Japanese who were enrolled or had recently been enrolled in English in New Zealand. While there is research into pleasure travel motivations (Lundberg 1971; Dann 1977; Crompton 1979; Iso-ahola 1982; Mouthino 1987), Japanese pleasure travel motivations (Cha, McClearly, and Uysal 1995;Yamamoto and Gill 1999; Watkins 2006; Watkins and Gnoth 2010), and the motivations of individuals to study abroad (Mazzarol and Soutar 2002; Weirs-Jenssen 2003; Kistantas 2004; Sanchez, Fornerino, and Zhang 2006; Jarvis and Peel 2008; Nyaupane, Paris, and Teye 2011) there are few studies on the motivations of Japanese to study abroad (Kajiwara 1997; Habu 2000; Ono and Piper 2004; Kobayashi 2007) and a lack of studies exploring the similarities and differences of study abroad motivations of Japanese in relation to pleasure travel motivation, despite international education experiences being classified as a form of tourism.

1.1 Background to the Research

The United Nation's World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) classifies international education experiences as a type of tourism (Weaver 2003). Within this language learning is purported to be one of the world's most important segments of education based tourism. This is a phenomenon that is stimulated by a commonly held belief amongst teachers and learners that *'the only way really learn the language of a foreign country is to go and live there' (Coleman, 1997, p. 2).*

English is the 'world's language', 20 percent of the world's population speak it, and 70 nation's have it is an official language (Batchelor 1988, p. 121). While once English an economic advantage as a second language, English is now 'increasingly a basic skill' for a nation's workforce (English First 2011B, p. 6). Private English instruction has an estimated value of US 50 billion dollars worldwide and it is expected that within the next ten years up to two billion people will be undertaking English study 'at any given time' (English First 2011B, p. 3; Graddol 2006). Included in this are individuals who travel abroad to learn English as a second language (ESL).While the UK is the biggest player in the market attracting around 50 percent of the ESL study abroad market because it is perceived to be a unique destination for language learning (Ritchie, Carr, and Cooper 2003), New Zealand is also a key player alongside Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Ireland, and the U.S.A. as major English-speaking destination countries (MESDC) (Ritchie et. al. 2003).

Individuals who travel abroad to study English do so as one of the millions travelling abroad each year for educational purposes (Weaver 2003) in a multi-billion dollar global industry termed export education (Payne 2009). New Zealand is an active participant in the global phenomenon of export education providing a wide variety of education opportunities to students from many different nations (Butcher 2004). The nation is touted as a strong global export education competitor 'punching above its weight' (ENZ 2009); with 3.54 international school students per 1000 population it outperforms Australia in the school sector (ENZ 2009), and ranks behind Australia amongst MESDC's as the world's 'second most successful recruiter… of international university students' with 4.93 international students per 1000 population (ENZ 2009).

While many different nationalities study in New Zealand, Asia is New Zealand's primary market for export education (Butcher 2004). China, South Korea and Japan the top three markets for New Zealand's export education sector (MOE 2010). In 2002 the export education industry in New Zealand peaked at a total of 126,000 international students, some 71,503 of whom were enrolled in English language schools (Parker 2009; Collins 2006; Codd 2004; ENZ 2009; MOE 2010; MOE 2006). Since then a gradual year-on-year decline in the total number of international students within New Zealand, the ELS sector, and these three Asian markets has occurred (ENZ 2009; MOE 2010; Statistics New Zealand 2010). Despite

this, these nations retain their status as the top markets in New Zealand's export education sector with China in first place at 22.2 per cent (or 20,780 students), South Korea in second with 17 per cent (15,905 students), and Japan ranked third with 10.4 per cent (9,697 students) (MOE 2010). Currently there are approximately 89,000 international students in New Zealand, a figure almost 30 per cent less than the peak number of students recorded in 2002 (Collins 2006; Codd 2004; ENZ 2009; MOE 2010). Within the ELS sector the situation is much the same; figures indicate that some 41,798 international student were enrolled for year the ending March 2010 - this figure is just over 40 per cent less than the peak number of students recorded in 2002 (Statistics New Zealand 2010).

In recent years the Japanese visitor market to New Zealand has also been in a state of flux (MOT 2009). The number of Japanese visitors to New Zealand peaked in 2002 at 173,500, declining by more than 40 per cent since then (MOT 2009). This decline has be in part attributed to the variety of outside factors that have negatively affected the outbound Japanese market including 9/11, rising oil prices, SARS, bird flu, the Lehman shock, and most recently devastating natural disasters in both Christchurch (earthquakes), and Eastern Japan (earthquake and tsunami) (TNZ 2010; JTM 2006; MILT 2009; OECD 2002; MOT 2009). Despite this the Japanese market is important for New Zealand, ranking as the nation's fifth largest inbound market with 87,735 visitors in 2010, and the largest Asian market in expenditure terms (TNZ 2009; TNZ 2011).

Most Japanese who participate in export education in New Zealand do so as ELS students; in 2005 71 per cent of all Japanese international students in New Zealand were enrolled in English language schools (MOE 2006), while in 2010 almost 70 percent (6,780 of 9,697) of the Japanese receiving education in New Zealand did so at an English language school (MOE 2010; Statistics New Zealand 2010). While the number of Japanese students New Zealand received (9,697) may be relatively small in comparison to the 87,735 Japanese visitors to New Zealand in 2010 (TNZ 2010; MOE 2010) evidence suggests that international students make disproportionately large contributions to total tourism revenues (Leiper and Hunt 1998; Batchelor 1998) and stay much longer in New Zealand than Japanese pleasure travellers —

staying an average 87.2 days compared to an average of 10.8 days for Japanese visiting for holidays (MOT 2009)[1].

1.2   Research Problem, Issues, and Implications

It is important for New Zealand and its export education industry to have some understanding of the motivations that influence travel decisions in order to successful market the nation (Gnoth 1997). This is arguably even more important because New Zealand is a small world player in the competitive export education industry which has experienced a decline in international student numbers in recent years (ENZ 2009; MOE 2010; Statistics New Zealand 2010).

While there is research into pleasure travel motivations (Lundberg 1971; Dann 1977; Crompton 1979; Iso-ahola 1980; Mouthino 1987), Japanese pleasure travel motivations (Cha, McClearly, and Uysal 1995; Yamamoto and Gill 1999; Watkins 2006; Watkins 2010), and the motivations of individuals to study abroad (Mazzarol and Soutar 2002; Weirs-Jenssen 2003; Kistantas 2004; Sanchez, Fornerino, and Zhang 2006; Jarvis and Peel 2008; Nyaupane, Paris, and Teye 2011) there are few studies on the motivations of Japanese to study abroad (Kajiwara 1997; Habu 2000; Ono and Piper 2004; Kobayashi 2007).

Despite international education experiences being classified as a form of tourism (Weaver 2003), and evidence suggesting that international students and students within the ELS export education market share some common motivations to those found within individuals involved in pleasure travel, study abroad motivations are not generally identified as pleasure travel motivations in the literature (Wiers-Jenssen 2003; Kitsantas 2004; Kobayashi 2007; Watkins 2006; Watkins and Gnoth 2010; Jarvis and Peel 2008; Nyaupane et. al. 2011). This study

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[1] If an analysis of the median stay is made, as it is typically more representative of the amount of time spent in New Zealand, results reveal that in the case of the Japanese market the length of stay is shorter. With the median, rather than the average, results show that Japanese visitors to New Zealand for education spent some 42 days in New Zealand in 2008 while their compatriots who came here to holiday spent a mere 6.3 days (MOT 2009).

aims to address this by researching push factor motivations in export education in relation to pleasure travel motivations, with the aim of addressing:

How alike/different are the push factor motivations of Japanese adults enrolled in English language study in New Zealand to push factor motivations found within pleasure travel?

To establish what motivates this market segment in this context the following questions will be addressed:

Research Issue 1: What motivates individuals in this market segment to leave their home country?

Research Issue 2: What motivates this segment to study English while abroad?

Based on the findings to those questions this research will then be in a position to examine and compare the motivations of Japanese adults undertaking ESL study in New Zealand to those found in pleasure travel. Researching market segments in export education, one of New Zealand's biggest industries (Campbell 2004; ENZ 2009), should help to improve insight and understanding of the subject. This information is also useful for helping the industry to create marketing of education offerings, better programs and experiences to satisfy needs, and marketing strategies to increase student numbers.

1.3 Justification for the Research

This study aims to identify how alike and different the push factor motivations of Japanese adults enrolled in English language study in New Zealand are to motivations within pleasure travel. There are six main justifications for undertaking this research in this context.

Firstly, international education experiences are classified as a type of tourism (Weaver 2003). There is compelling evidence to support this view, including evidence suggesting that many who participate in export education also participate in tourism-related activities (Weaver 2003; Michael, Armstrong, and King 2003; Cloesen 2006; Sung and Hsu 1996; Macshane 2010), findings that English language students have other 'prime reasons' other than study to visit, including tourism related reasons, such as holidays and visiting friends and relatives (Batchelor 1998, p. 129), and indications that international student segments are disproportionately lucrative tourism markets for national economies (Leiper and Hunt, 1998; Batchelor 1998).

Secondly, it has been noted that cross-cultural research in the context of international tourist behaviour and marketing is lacking (You, O'Leary, Morrison, and Hong 2000). Academics and marketers have scant knowledge on national culture's influence on travel preferences (Reisinger 2005) despite culture's importance as one of the greatest influences on tourists' motives, choices, intentions, and purposes on a global scale' (Reisinger 2005). Within the context of the Japanese outbound market it is also acknowledged that — despite its importance as an outbound tourism market — knowledge on the subject is lacking too (Chon, Inagaki, and Ohashi 2000; Watkins 2006).

Thirdly, language learning is one of the world's most important segments of education based tourism and in New Zealand the majority of Japanese who are involved in export education do so at an English language school (ESL) (MOE 2006; MOE 2010; Statistics New Zealand 2010).

Fourthly, there are indications that Japanese ELS students are motivated by a wide variety of factors not just those relating to the benefits of education (Kobayashi 2007; Watkins 2006; Watkins 2010). Having knowledge and of these motivations is important because in order to successfully market destinations some understanding of motivations that influence travel decisions is needed (Gnoth 1997).

Fifthly, the Japanese export education market has been on the decline globally since 2005, while New Zealand's total export education market and New Zealand's Japanese market for export education in New Zealand have been on the decline since 2003 (MOE 2010). In light of this it is important to develop knowledge of what motivates the Japanese market, New Zealand's third biggest export education market, to study (MOE 2010). Developing an understanding of what motivations influence Japanese adults to study ESL abroad may help industry in their endeavours to stem or reverse the decline in the Japanese export education market in New Zealand.

Finally, globally export education is a multi-billion dollar industry (Payne 2009), which sees millions travel abroad each year for educational purposes (Weaver 2003). In New Zealand export education is also an important sector (Campbell 2004; ENZ 2009), ranking as the fifth largest export, employing 32,000 people, and contributing close to 7 per cent of export earnings — an estimated NZ\$2.3 billion dollars — to the New Zealand economy (New Zealand Herald 2009; ENZ 2009; Payne 2009)[2]. Having knowledge of motivations that influence the market is important for industry to continue being a valuable sector, export earnings earner, and employer for the New Zealand economy

1.4 Methodology

This research adopted a qualitative approach to its inquiry. This was done because such an approach does not strip data of its context, is useful for establishing rich insight into human behaviour, allows for the uncovering of emic views, enables discoveries to be made during inquiry, and additionally because generalisations cannot be applied to individuals (Guba and Lincoln 1994).

Critical realism was chosen as the approach for this research (Sayer 2000). Critical realism was chosen as this research's paradigm because it has rigour of internal validity, external validity, and reliability; is compatible with a variety of research methods; and is suitable for

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[2] This section contains some facts from this researcher's dissertation.

someone wishing to work in industry for informing decision and policy makers in policy matters (Guba and Lincoln 1994; Sayer 2000). According to critical realists reality exists and occurs independently of whether the researcher has knowledge of it or not (Tsouakas 1989; Sayer 2000). This reality is something which can only be imperfectly grasped due to the phenomena's complexity as well as faults in our intellectual ability to understand it (Guba and Lincoln 1994). In the realist paradigm the 'real, actual, and empirical domains of reality' in the world are perceived as being differentiable; it can also be 'stratified' (Tsoukas 1989, p. 553; Sayer 2000).

This research uses thematic analysis for identifying, analysing, and reporting themes within the data (Braun and Clarke 2006). Thematic analysis was considered a valid method for this research because it is compatible with a realist approach (Braun and Clarke 2006); it was also justified on the grounds that it does not require a detailed knowledge of approach, such as with grounded theory, and is therefore a more accessible form of analysis for an inexperienced qualitative researcher (Braun and Clarke 2006).

Participants in this study were all Japanese nationals or long-term residents of Japan, of 18 years of age or older, who were enrolled, or had been enrolled, in a short-term English language course of one year or less at an English language school in New Zealand. Data collection was made in three New Zealand population centres during in November and December 2011 using a convenience sample and some cases of snowballing. Through these methods students twenty-four participants from six ELS's and four New Zealand population centres participated in the study. With this approach a variety of individuals were sought to create contrast within the study in areas such as age, gender, occupation, and level of travel independence (McCracken 1988). To gather the data for the corpus face-to-face interviews were conducted; these lasted around 30 minutes to an hour in length and were conducted mainly in English. Interviews occurred in a one-on-one environment away from other students and school staff to give the participant relative anonymity and create an opportunity for honesty (McCracken 1988).

1.5 Scope and Limitations of the Research

Originally this study had the aim of exploring what motivated adult Japanese to go abroad and study English, and what motivated them to choose New Zealand for this; however, due to longitudinal limitations and a strong focus within export education literature on push factor motivations this was abandoned and the focus shifted primarily to push factor motivations. It must be acknowledged that while push and pull motivations are linked and a reflection of one another, pull factors are merely overviewed and only focused on in the analysis and findings when they are present and connected to push factor findings.

Because individuals are pushed to travel by needs and pulled to a destination by the benefits that the destination attributes offer (Goossens 2000) the push-factor motivations to go overseas and study English have already been reflected in the individual's decision to come to New Zealand. As a consequence of this the pull of New Zealand has already been reflected in the push of what makes the individual want to go abroad and study English and vice versa. The dropping of the focus of pull factor motivations from this study has resulted in predominantly one side of the motivation equation being presented — primarily what motivates individuals to travel abroad and study English. Subsequently this research has no real insight for industry and marketers into what motivates Japanese to choose New Zealand over other nations for their study destination.

Field work occurred in a limited geographical and temporal space within New Zealand during November and December 2011 with a sample of 24 Japanese adults studying English short term, predominantly in the 19 to 29 age bracket; as a consequence this study represents a temporal snapshot of part of the Japanese ESL market in New Zealand and the findings may differ to other times of year, other locales, or other age groups, or samples of Japanese studying English. Consequently, the findings here should be considered as representing this case study only. It would be unwise to assume that the findings here may have applicability outside of this context, such as with a different market for English study in New Zealand, or elsewhere, or a different sphere of education, such as with individuals attending high school overseas.

It needs to be recognised that a number of interviews had time pressures which constrained them, such as interviews which occurred during students' short lunch breaks, reflecting the notion that even willing participants have limited time to give a researcher (McCracken 1988). As a result of such time pressures the depth and breadth of questioning was impacted, with some areas being neglected; consequently, some interviews were less valuable for analysis than others in specific areas.

While this researcher is proficient in communicating Japanese orally, he lacked sufficient reading skills to interpret Japanese language research related to this study; consequently, this research relies on English language resources. Also this study relied on self-reported data, which can be a potential source of bias due to selective memory, telescoping, attribution, and exaggeration (USC 2012). Furthermore, participants in this study had differing levels of English proficiency and as a consequence some provided richer answers and material for in-depth quotes than others. In addition to this, there were some instances when students' answers in English were influenced by Japanese syntax, such as when subjects were omitted from sentences. Sometimes this created ambiguity in answers and inferences needed to be made, much like when communicating in Japanese, in other cases it was evident that the omitted subject was referring to what had been previously asked by the interviewer, in such event there was no real ambiguity. In this study data was coded and analysed by one researcher only; this unconventional method was employed because their were longitudinal and financial constraints and a researcher with cross-cultural experience familiar with the Japanese language and syntax was unavailable to the researcher when needed.

1.6 Organisation of the Research

This research is divided into six chapters. It begins with Chapter 2, which provides an introduction to relevant literature, providing a background on motivation; this encompasses motivation for pleasure travel and motivation for export education experiences, including these within a Japanese cultural context. This is followed by Chapter 3, which gives a brief introduction to the Japanese outbound travel market, Japan's relationship with the English language, and Japan and export education. Moving on from this, chapter 4 introduces the methodology for this research, outlining the research paradigm, the approach, and the

methods used in this study. Chapter 5 presents the findings and analysis for the two research issues in this study. This is followed by the final chapter of this research, Chapter 6, which uses the findings from Chapter 5 to answer the overarching research questions and present the conclusions for this research. Chapter 6 ends with implications for industry and recommendations for future research..

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter established the overarching research question for this study and the two underlying research issues to answer this question. The focus of Chapter 2 is to explore pertinent information on the Japanese outbound market, the influence of culture, and motivation from within relevant literature to develop a relevant theoretical base for developing this research. The review begins with motivation, defining the term before introducing various aspects and types of motivation relevant to this study from within psychology, leisure, tourism, and education. This is followed by a brief on the influence of culture and individualism-collectivism on individuals and an introduction to the various aspects of culture and collectivism which have some influence on the Japanese. This ends with a discussion of changing culture in Japan and caveats to assumptions on Japan and Japanese culture. After this is an introduction to the travel motivations of the Japanese. This is followed by a brief on push motivations within export education, including export education motivations in a Japanese context. The chapter finishes with a conclusion on the literature review.

'Students' reasons for learning a language do evolve'. (Oxford and Shearin 1994, p. 14)

2.2 Motivation

Motivation can be defined as an internal force that 'arouses, regulates and sustains' many kinds of behaviour in individuals (Vernon 1969, p. 1). It is assumed that motivations are 'intentional and voluntary behaviour that is purposeful or goal-directed' (Jung 1978, p. 5). Overall motivational processes are regarded as being dynamic and very complex (Mannell and Kleiber 1997). There is the possibility that they may also conflict with one another due to their dynamism (Mannell and Klieber 1997), and individuals may be influenced by more than one motivation simultaneously, either consciously or subconsciously (Swarbrooke and Horner 2007). A number of factors influence motivations including one's previous positive or negative travel experiences, one's perceptions of one's own strengths and weaknesses (whether it be related to wealth or skills), the perception that one desires others to have of one, one's lifestyle, national or cultural influences on one, and one's personality and levels of gregariousness, adventurousness, and confidence (Swarbrooke and Horner 2007; You, O'Leary, Morrison, and Hong 2000; Woodside and Jacobs 1985).

Most behaviour is regarded as being influenced to differing degrees by either biological, learnt or cognitively based motives (Mannell and Kleiber, 1997). Motivation becomes a motive when an individual is aroused or activated and impelled to act on a motivation (Mannell and Kleiber 1997); at this juncture motives push the individual to engage in certain kinds of behaviour that are viewed as most likely to leading to satisfaction (Moutinho 1987). The objective of this behaviour is to attain homeostasis, and motivation theories suggest that individuals are constantly trying to attain this state of stability (Goossens 2000). With motivated behaviour individuals have expectations that certain behaviour will lead to attainment of the end goal, this is based on expectations that have probably been formed as a consequence of previous experience; being able to sustain behaviour over time in order to overcome obstacles and setbacks to achieve this end goal is an important aspect of motivated behaviour (Jung 1978).

Within tourism the motivation to travel is a 'set of needs which predispose a person to participate in a touristic activity' (Pizam, Neumann and Reichel 1979 in Yuan and McDonald 1990, p. 42). People travel to satisfy different motivations and as a consequence they are attracted to destinations that have suitable attributes to be the medium to satisfy these goals and needs (Crompton 1979). Because motivations can be satisfied through a multitude of ways, Howard and Sheth (1968) make a distinction between specific and non-specific motivation. In cases where motivation is specific only tourism can satisfy the individual; however, in cases where motivation is non-specific alternate activities can satisfy. Because of this individuals can satisfy the same need sets or bundles through engagement in different activities instead of taking a holiday, such as redecorating the house or redoing the garden, as such actions allow the individual to symbolically repair and renovate themselves through other objects (Crompton 1979).

Travel motivations are dynamic and change over time as changes in individual's 'personal circumstances' influence the process (Swarbrooke and Horner 2007 p. 55). It is suggested that individuals are usually motivated to travel by multiple motives (Moutinho 1987; Crompton 1979), and seek a multitude of satisfactions that each contributes in their own manner towards a rich travel experience (Moutinho 1987). Research shows that there is a link between benefits people seek through travel and the activities that they choose to do (Moscardo et. al. 1996). All of the touristic needs of an individual are generally not satisfied on a single trip (Schmidhauser 1989) and leisure motivations and needs before and after a leisure experience differ markedly (Iso-Ahola and Allen 1982 in Mannell and Iso-Ahola 1987); these factors contribute to making it quite difficult to observe and measure motivations (Mannell and Kleiber 1997). Another barrier to observing and measuring motivation is that in some instances individuals may not wish to share their motivations with the researcher because by sharing them the individual will threaten their own ego, create trauma, a barrier to etiquette, or a prestige loss for oneself (Dann 1981); as well as this travel motivations can be difficult for respondents to articulate (Crompton 1979, Dann 1981). Crompton (1979) states that it is rare to overtly identify a respondent's socio-psychological motivations for travel during the early stages of discussion on their travel experiences, thus it requires the researcher to probe further to get to the real underlying motivations.

2.3   Overt and Hidden Motivations

A number of researchers posit that sometimes the real motivations for behaviour are unknown to the individual because they are hidden or unconscious (Iso-Ahola 1980, Mannell and Keliber 1997); it is suggested that this also holds true for tourism, with tourists being motivated to travel for many reasons, some of which they may not be aware of (Moutinho 1987), understand, or be willing to articulate (Lundberg 1972). Dann (1981) rejects this notion believing that while motivations may not be easily formed or articulated they are not hidden or unconscious. To Dann (1981) the notion that motivation can be unconscious 'makes little sense' (p. 202), instead he adopts the view that people are aware of their plans even when their motivations seem absurd or illogical to an observer, stating that while motivations may not always be rational they will be reasonable to the individual (Dann 1981).

2.4   Travel Motivation and Links to Inspirational Image Formations Agents and Seminal Experiences from Childhood

In some cases motivations can be linked to seminal experiences in the past, such as those in childhood (Laing and Crouch 2006). One study identified image formation agents (such as books, movies, television, pictures and photographs) as factors that influenced some individuals' motivations within frontier travel, i.e. travel that occurs on the physical or experiential fringes or extremes of the world, suggesting that books can be considerably influential in inspiring children to travel in the future (Laing and Crouch 2006). In cases when motivations are implanted during childhood and travel occurs as an adult the time between desire formation and travel is substantial; this research has termed this deep-seated motivation, defining it as a motivation to travel, that forms a considerable period of time before fulfilment, sometimes during childhood, which remains latent and unfulfilled for years or decades before being satisfied.

2.5 Intrinsic and Extrinsic motivation

When rewards external to the activity are the primary motives for engaging in the activity the motivation for individuals is said to be extrinsic (Neulinger 1974 in Mannell and Kleiber 1997); it has also been defined as occurring when the behaviour of an individual is motivated by something extrinsic to the individual (Sansone and Harackiewicz 2000). Extrinsic motivations include such things as money, awards, grades and recognition; recent evolution of the concept has added a variety of new factors to situations that are primarily motivated by extrinsic rewards including 'threats of punishment, evaluation, deadlines and obligations' (Mannell and Kleiber 1997; p. 128).

Conversely, activities that are intrinsically motivated have been defined as ones that have 'no apparent reward except the activity itself; they are 'ends in themselves rather than means to an end' (Deci 1975, p. 23), and 'based in the human need to be competent and self-determining in relation to the environment' (Deci 1975, p. 65). It occurs when the rewards or benefits of participation are perceived to come from engaging in the activity itself (Neulinger 1974), and when an individual engages in an activity for the satisfaction that is inherent to this behaviour (Ryan and Deci 2000)[3]. Because many activities contain elements of both extrinsic and intrinsic motivations, and are subjectively defined, it can be difficult to make inferences about whether an individual's behaviour is intrinsically or extrinsically motivated (Iso-Ahola 1980).

Within the tourism literature there is a lack of discussion on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation; this is surprising given that the concepts contribute to understanding at a fundamental level what motivates individuals to travel. While the commonness of both types of motivations in pleasure travel is an unknown factor to this researcher, extrinsic motivation within pleasure travel is conceivable; such as the example of children who are obliged to go on family holidays by parents who have decided for them (Fodness 1992).

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[3] Through the engagement in activities that interest an individual they are able to learn and develop (Ryan and Deci 2000).

2.6   Motivation and the Instrumental-Expressive Dichotomy

Motivation also revolves around the expressive-instrumental value dichotomy (Sugiyama-Lebra 1976). In this dichotomy when an individual views the outcome as an end in itself their behaviour is expressive and when they are motivated to undertake an activity because it is a means to an end their behaviour is viewed as being instrumental (Sugiyama-Lebra 1976). In the realm of education Hiemstra (1976) defines expressive as referring to experiences that bring pleasure to life, help expand horizons, give gratification without much delay, or enable self-expression. Under these parameters, and in the context of travel and learning, when an individual travels to learn skills, such as scuba-diving, skiing, cooking Italian food, or even English primarily for the satisfaction and enjoyment of the activity and what this brings to the self then their motivation can be viewed as expressive. Conversely, when an individual travels abroad to learn a skill, such as studying English, primarily with aims beyond the activity and outside of the self, such as improving their TOEFL test score in order to secure a place at a foreign tertiary institution or get a job, then their motivation is considered to be instrumental.

2.7   General Travel Motivations in the Literature

Tourist activities are regarded by some researchers as 'distinct, important, and exceptional, in their function as they can be a means to develop personally or have a religious-like experience (Cohen 1979; MacCannell 1976 in Mannell and Iso-Ahola 1987), a better way to escape from the stresses of everyday life (Iso-Ahola 1982 in Mannell and Iso-Ahola 1987), and an environment which is excellent for the reestablishment of interpersonal relationships (Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987). A review of literature on tourism motivation reveals differing terminology for motivations and emphasis on different factors; however, an appraisal of the commonalities reveals that there appears to be a relatively limited number of basic travel motivations, much like in general leisure motivation (Tinsley 1984). Empirical evidence shows that although individuals differ in the manner in which they satisfy themselves through their inclination for different destinations with different characteristics (Mannell and Kleiber 1997) people undertake pleasure travel to fulfil similar needs (Yuan and McDonald 1990).

Numerous researchers have developed categories for travel motivations including Lundberg (1972), Dann (1977), Crompton (1979), Iso-Ahola (1982) and Moutinho (1987). Iso-Ahola's (1982) theoretical framework to explain both travel and leisure motivation is one which is commonly cited; this framework is based on a motivation dichotomy of seeking and escaping that influences behaviour, and proposes that behaviour can be a combination of both types of motivations (Mannell and Iso-Ahola 1987). In this theory the motivation known as escape is the desire of an individual to leave their everyday environment, while the motivation known as seeking is the desire for intrinsic rewards that can be obtained through travel to a different environment (Iso-Ahola 1982). According to this framework individuals seek to escape from the personal and/or interpersonal world (Iso-Ahola's 1982); the personal world encompasses escape from 'personal problems, troubles, difficulties and failures', while the interpersonal world refers to escape from people in the individual's life (such as co-workers, family friends and other people) (Mannell and Keliber 1997)[4]. Iso-Ahola (1982) views escape as a strong motivator, a view which is also shared by Dann (1977) and Crompton (1979). As well as the motivation of escape individuals are also motivated to seek psychological satisfactions (Iso-Ahola 1982). The psychological satisfactions that individuals seek in this framework can be subdivided into two categories of personal and interpersonal satisfactions (Mannell and Keliber 1997). Interpersonal satisfactions arise out of social contact and feelings of connectedness with others while satisfactions of a personal nature generally come from self-determination, competency, challenge, learning, relaxation, and exploration (Mannell and Kleiber 1997).

Iso-Ahola's (1982) seeking and escaping theory can be viewed as a general theory encapsulating travel motivation into two very broad categories. It is a basic explanation of the motives for tourism, which barely scratches the surface of tourism motivation, and is not in depth enough for application for practical application for industry marketing stakeholders such as DMO's or NTO's. To get a better understanding of tourist motivations it is necessary to go beyond the broad and basic categorisation of Iso-Ahola's seeking and escaping tourism motivation theory and utilise the motivation theories of others in the fields of tourism, leisure, and psychology.

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[4] The need for escape is linked to an individual's need for optimal arousal which is explained in the section on novelty, variety and change.

One pioneering paper on why people travel was written by Lundberg (1972), who reviewed a number of studies and developed a list of 18 motivations he believed influenced individuals to engage in travel. Categorising these motivations into 4 groups of educational and cultural motivations, relaxation and pleasure motivations, ethnic motivations, and other sundry motivations, Lundberg (1972) suggested that the desire for humans to travel is, at a base level, one that is instinctual and present within all of us; layered upon this basic need are culturally learnt activators that differ between cultures, and within society (Lundberg 1972). Later research by Crompton (1979) identified nine motivations that influenced individuals to travel, including seven socio-psychological push factor motivations (escape, relaxation, exploration and evaluation of self, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship relationships and the facilitation of social interaction). Other researchers have also added their input to the understanding of travel motivation, including Moutinho (1987) - who categorised general travel motivators into educational and cultural, relaxation, adventure and pleasure, health and recreation, ethnic and family, and social and competitive - and McIntosh and Goeldner (1984) - who classified general travel motivations into physical motivations, cultural motivations, interpersonal motivations, and status and prestige motivations.

2.8   Push and Pull Factors

Push and pull factors are often discussed in the context of tourist motivation within literature; Cha (et. al. 1995, p. 34) writes that there are indications that the literature on tourist motivation has 'generally accepted' (Dann 1977) that motivations for travel are based on push and pull factors. Push factors are said to be socio-psychological motivations that lead individuals to travel (Yuan and McDonald 1990); they are internal (Gnoth 1997; Dann 1981), and occur when there are unsatisfied needs within the individual (Bello and Etzel 1985). Push motivations represent a reflection of 'person's basic motivational force', that is 'the need for optimal arousal as regulated by intrinsic motivation' (Goossens 2000, p. 303); these include motivations such as a need for novelty, self-exploration, escape, enhancement of kinship relations, and relaxation (need for catharsis) (Yuan and McDonald 1990; Dann 1981; Crompton 1979). Pull factors are external factors (destination attributes) that influence the choice of the destination following the initial decision to travel (Yuan and McDonald 1990). Their 'value is seen to reside in the object of travel' (Riley and Van Doren 1992, p 270), and includes such destination attributes as beaches, sunshine, and mountains (Yuan and

McDonald 1990) as well as attractions of a cultural, social, or activity nature (Riley and Van Doren 1992). In this process individuals are pushed to travel by (emotional) needs and pulled to a destination by the (emotional) benefits that the destination attributes offer and are 'motivated to attain positive affective states and avoid negative affective ones' (Goossens 2000, p. 311).

2.9 Affiliation, Relatedness, and Social Interaction

Pearce and Lee (2005) identified relationship needs as one of the four key motivations that cause individuals to travel, while early work by Lundberg identified the need for people 'to be where one is accepted and comfortable socially' (1972, p. 69) as a key motivation for travel. Humans have a tendency to affiliate with others, indeed affiliation is an inherent trait in us all that is reinforced by our early development that 'teaches us that affiliation with other humans is a positive situation' (Jung 1978, p. 190). As part of affiliation people like others to like them, accept them, and want their presence; people also prefer to form long-term affiliations with people they like and/or respect (Jung 1978). Individuals differ widely with the degree to which they like to affiliate with others, but generally speaking 'most people enjoy and seek the company of friends and acquaintances' (Jung 1978, p. 193).

Research has shown social interaction and interpersonal competency (such as strengthening friendships, cooperating with others, meeting new people) to be important aspects of leisure (London, Crandall, and Fitzgibbons 1977; Ritchie 1975; Kelly 1976; Neulinger and Raps 1972). Social interaction has been found to be an important travel motivation for some people (Crompton 1979; Dunn, Ross, and Iso-Ahola 1991). For some travel affords the opportunity to meet new people outside of the normal realms of their reference groups and build transient and permanent friendships, while for others pleasure travel serves as a medium to enhance and enrich already established relationships and kinships (Crompton 1979). In some cases the recognition of social interaction as a motivation is not made until after the trip is complete (Crompton 1979). Relatedness is another important psychological need and drive for intrinsically motivated behaviour such as leisure (and consequently tourism); this term is defined as the need for people to feel that one is loved and has a connection with others, that

these others understand them, and that they are involved in a meaningful way with the larger social world in which they are a part (Deci and Ryan 1991).

2.10 Anomie and Escape

Dann (1977) posits that in modern societies people are alienated and isolated; borrowing the term anomie and adapting it to associate it with tourism, Dann (1977) uses the term to describe a situation where individuals feel they are affected by a meaningless society in which they are isolated in their everyday life and need to escape[5]. In his research Dann (1977) found that in many instances work was monotonous, lonely, and lacked genuine social interaction for individuals; it also left them with unfulfilled affection and communication needs. Dann (1977) stated that individuals need to have love and affection and have a desire to communicate with other people. In order to fulfil this desire for social interaction individuals have to escape the anomic society of their home environment; thus a situation of anomie can be thought of as a factor that serves to predispose individuals to travel. Travel can be seen as an outlet for the individual to escape the monotony of daily life in an anomic society that serves them with the opportunity to fulfil their need for affection and communication (Dann 1977).

While Dann (1977) classifies the need for some to travel to escape from work or home life as part of his notion of anomie other researchers classify it as a motivation on its own (Krippendorf 1987; Maoz 2007). A break from routine (i.e. the dumping of mundane aspects of daily life in favour of desired aspects) is regarded by Crompton (1979) as being necessary to restoring homeostasis in the individual. Gnoth (1997) notes that if an individual satisfies a drive they will likely remember all or part of the behaviour that they utilised to successfully satisfy that drive and re-employ such strategies in the future; this helps the individual to form habits (Gnoth 1997). If disequilibrium is a long-term state rather than a short-term condition a single trip is not usually sufficient enough to restore a state of equilibrium in the individual;

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[5] Dann (1977) also states that as well as occurring in urban areas because of a lack of interaction anomie also arises in rural areas due to the over-interaction and lack of privacy such environments give individuals.

in this case individuals can satisfy their long-term disequilibrium with numerous trips over time (Crompton 1979).

2.11 Catharsis

The need for relaxation has been identified by a number of researchers as being an important travel motivation (Crompton 1979, Hills 1965; Iso-Ahola 1980). Catharsis can be defined as the need to eliminate emotional tensions and anxiety; with this individuals escape the home environment and their daily lives to recharge themselves through catharsis (Iso-Ahola 1980). Moutinho (1987) suggests that while travellers are motivated by multiple motives vacation travel always seems to involve a seeking of 'a mental state of renewal' (p. 17). As plans for travel can be made long before actual travel there may be differences in the individual's physical, mental, and emotional states between the time the individual becomes motivated to travel and the actual departure date. Consequently, there may be a difference in the individual's need for catharsis and relaxation between the two points in time (Moutinho 1987).

2.12 Novelty, Variety and Change

An individual's innate needs for novelty, variety, and change are based on their need for optimal arousal (Mannell and Kleiber 1997). While there are differences in the degree to which individuals seek novelty, the desire to escape boredom and routine through new stimulation is a basic drive in humans (Berlyne 1950) that consistently emerges as a key travel motivation in studies (Lee and Crompton 1992); this suggests that novelty seeking is a key motivation for travel. Novelty seeking is dynamic; on some occasions we are content with comfort and refuge in situations that are familiar and predictable while on other occasions we seek satisfaction in anything new, novel, and different (Jung 1978; Moutinho 1987). While individuals seek the familiar at times, it can be said that people try to avoid and escape feelings of boredom and monotony; it is also suggested that in the long run variety is the goal for individuals (Jung 1978). This desire for novelty also extends into tourism where it is seen as a key motivation (Dann 1977, 1981; Crompton 1979; Leiper 1984).

People have a tendency to seek a temporary change of environment, even from seemingly great home environments, simply because they sometimes become boring and routine to the individual who resides there (Crompton 1979). Boredom is seen to be a part of life especially in the organised routine of the modern industrialised society (Lee and Crompton 1992); travel offers the individual a way to alleviate boredom and satisfy the need for novelty because it allows the individual the opportunity to escape a mundane environment or routine and experience a physically and socially different environment to the one in which they live (Crompton 1979; Lee and Crompton 1992).

Tourists can be thought of as consumers who actively search for variety and new stimulating opportunities (Moutinho 1987; Lee and Crompton 1992); however, when novel stimuli are too novel for the individual they experience too much incongruity and seek to reduce the state (Jung 1978; Lee and Crompton 1992). Thus people are said to be the most interested in stimuli they are partially familiar with rather than by those which are either totally familiar or novel to them (Lee and Crompton 1992). Those who have a higher degree of novelty seeking prefer more novel experiences and destinations that are perceived as being different, unusual or exciting while those who have a high degree of novelty avoidance have a stronger preference for the familiar (Wahlers and Etzel 1985 in Lee and Crompton 1992).

2.13 Personal Growth, Self-discovery, and Change

Travel is a many-faceted experience that offers a way for the individual to experience challenges and change (Lundberg 1972), it also affords the individual with the opportunity to explore and evaluate oneself (Dann 1981). The idea of change of the self through travel is not lost on tourism marketers who use language to evoke that the traveller will return a different person (Bruner 1991). Such motivation represents higher level needs and more specifically self-actualisation, which is at the pinnacle of Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs. Exploration and evaluation of the self has been identified by Crompton (1979) as being another key travel motivation.

Through travel the individual is exposed to the new and to the different and from their experiences there is the opportunity for them to form new perspectives and possibly new belief systems (Lundberg 1972); travel also gives the tourist the opportunity to try on roles and change from day to day if so desired (Gnoth 1997). As a result the individual has the opportunity to form a different self; one where they 'define themselves according to their personal experiences of the world' (Maoz 2007, p. 126). Crompton (1979) suggests that being away from home in a physically and socially different environment is essential to the process of exploration and evaluation because it gives exposure to new situations that help the process of self-discovery to emerge.

While personal growth and development is a motivation that influences all kinds of travellers there are some indications that personal development is of greater importance and emphasised more by individuals with a lower level of travel experience than those who have high levels of travel experience (Pearce and Lee 2005) [6]. In the unorganised youth traveller segment of backpackers (Loker-Murphy and Pearce 1995) the opportunity for personal growth is one of the main motivations (Ateljevic and Doorne 2000); central to this is the hope of constructing a self that is more courageous, mature and independent (Maoz 2007). This is done through the distancing of the self from 'all forms of permanent adult control' (Loker-Murphy and Pearce 1995, p. 828) that were hitherto part of everyday life of the youths, in combination with the freedom of 'independent mobility beyond the boundary of known familial places and social situations' (Loker-Murphy and Pearce 1995, p. 828).

2.14 Knowledge and Learning

Learning and increasing knowledge have historically been important travel motivations in tourism (Pearce and Foster 2007). The link between education and tourism is an one that has endured (Pearce and Foster 2007); in recent decades a number of tourism studies have identified learning and increasing knowledge as key motivations for individuals or segments

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[6] These indications are contradictory to Pearce's (1988) original Travel Career Ladder theory.

within tourism (Guinn 1980; Pearce and Foster 2007; Park and Yoon 2009)[7] and also within export education experiences (Weirs-Jenssen 2003; Kitsantas 2004; Jarvis and Peel 2008; Nyaupane, Paris, and Taye 2011; Mazzarol and Soutar 2002; Asaoka and Yano 2009). Within Japanese society a great importance is placed on education and training (Reisinger and Turner 1999). Increasing one's knowledge has been identified as an important motivation amongst Japanese package tourists (Yamamoto and Gill 1999), and Japanese overseas travellers who have been identified as being 'very keen' (p. 36) to gain new knowledge through overseas travel (Cha, Mccleary, and Uysal 1995). There is a view amongst Japanese that education remains an intrinsic aspect of the travel experience (Kajiwara 1997); in this respect education can act as a cover for, or a justification of the recreational aspects of travel (Watkins 2006)

2.15 The Influence of Culture and Individualism-Collectivism

While travel motivation differ between individuals, over time, and between destinations there are indications that differences occur at a cultural level as well (You, O'leary, Morrison, and Hong 2000; Woodside and Jacobs 1985; Swarbrooke and Horner 2007). Central to this is culture, which has been suggested to be the 'single most important existential factor' that influences consumer behaviour (Markin 1969 p. 219), and is the 'unstated assumptions' (Triandis 1999, p. 136) influencing cognition, emotion, motivation, and personality (Markus and Kitayama 1991 in Triandis 1999; Triandis 2001) as well as attitudes, opinions, and dispositions towards general and specific kinds of behaviour (Markin 1969 p. 219; Iyengar and Lepper 1999). With this individualism and collectivism has been suggested as 'the most significant cultural difference among cultures' (Triandis 2001, p907) and 'an important predictor of many social as well as individual factors' (Ishii-Kuntz 1989, p. 174).

An estimated 70 per cent of the world is collectivist; in collectivist cultures there is a tendency for individuals to view themselves in a different manner to the Western view that assumes that individuals are autonomous separate entities (Triandis 1999; Triandis 2001);

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[7] Learning and increasing knowledge were found to important motivations within Korean rural tourism (Park 2009), senior recreational vehicle tourists in the United States (Guinn 1980), and backpackers in Australia (Pearce and Foster 2007)

group membership is at the core of the notion of identity, and people are greatly influenced by collectivist attributes such as the interdependent self (Triandis 1993; Triandis 1999; Oyserman, Coon, and Kemmelmeier 2002). These cultures are communally focused (Triandis 1999; Trinadis 2001; Oyserman, et. al. 2002) with orientation being towards in-groups, such as family, clan, work group, religious group, nation, and away from out-groups (Triandis 1993; Triandis 2001; Oyserman, et. al. 2002).

At the heart of collectivism is the notion that individuals are dependent on each other and bound together by groups and mutual obligation (Triandis 1999; Oyserman, et. al. 2002). Within such societies 'the supreme value is the welfare of the collective', morality is contextual, and personality malleable to the environment (Triandis 2001, p. 916; Sugiyama-Lebra 1976); people are greatly concerned with relationships (Triandis 2001; Weber and Hsee 2000) and satisfaction in life is achieved through 'successfully carrying out social roles and obligations' while subsequently avoiding 'failures in these domains' (Oyserman, et. al. 2002, p. 5). Personal characteristics that mirror collectivist goals, such as sacrificing for the greater good and maintaining group harmony, are much valued in collectivist societies and there is an emphasis on achieving goals with some collective benefit over self enhancement like in individualist cultures (Triandis 2001; Chen, Warden, and Chang 2005; Choi, Choi, and Norenzayan 2004; Oyserman, et. al 2002).

With individualism, individualist cultures are based on people being autonomous, independent from in-groups, and 'achieving personal goals' as a part of 'self-realization' (Chen, et. al. 2005, p. 612; Triandis 2001). In individualist societies people have 'a worldview that centralises the personal — personal goals, personal uniqueness, and personal control'— while simultaneously pushing the social to the periphery (Oyserman, et. al. 2002, p.5; Triandis 2001). At the heart of this concept is the 'assumption that individuals are independent of one another' (Oyserman, et. al. 2002, p.4; Tirandis 2001) and it is assumed that 'relationships and group memberships are impermanent and non-intensive' (Oyserman, et. al. 2002, p.5). In individualist societies there is also the view that the personality is constant and the social environment malleable, thus they try to bend this to suit their personalities (Triandis 2001).

Individualism and collectivism are a reflection of contrasting worldviews (Oyserman, et. al. 2002) and there is a tendency for researchers to view individualism and collectivism as opposites, especially in the context of European American and East Asian cultures (Oyserman, et. al. 2002); however, as most cultures feature mixtures of both rudiments in them[8], and they are each emphasised to greater or lesser degrees within different cultures, it is 'probably more accurate to conceptualise individualism and collectivism as worldviews that differ in the issues that make them (Triandis 1993; Oyserman, et. al. 2002, p.5), such as the favouring of analytic thinking in the West versus holistic thinking in the East (Choi et. al. 2004).

Within individuals there are both tendencies for individualism and collectivism, the key difference is that in depending on the culture of the individual the likelihood of them sampling from the individualistic side versus the collectivist side will be greater or lesser (Triandis 1993). In industrialised Western cultures individualism is assumed to be more prevalent (Oyserman, Coon, and Kemmelmeier 2002) whereas in Asian cultures, including that of Japan, the more prevalent cultural focus is assumed to be collectivism; that said, individuals within either culture may have personalities that are allocentric or idiocentric in nature (Triandis 1999). Individuals who are allocentric think and behave like people from collectivist cultures, while people who are idiocentric think and behave like individuals from individualist cultures (Triandis 1999).

In collectivist cultures there are more allocentric people than idiocentrics and in individualist cultures there are more idiocentrics than allocentrics (Triandis 2001). In Japan allocentrics display 'greater tendencies toward affiliation, higher sensitivity to social rejection, and a lower need for uniqueness than idiocentrics' (Triandis 2001, p. 916). Triandis (2001) emphasises that one should not assume that everyone living within either a collectivist or an individualist culture displays all of the characteristics associated of the said culture. It is suggested that these are 'ideal types' and that people 'sample from both the individualist and collectivist cognitive structures, depending on the situation' (Triandis 2001, p909), such as in

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[8] For example in Sweden people are purported to be highly independent and self-reliant yet retain the collectivist attribute of modesty through their desire not to stand out (Triandis 1993).

Germany, where society is more individualist, yet Germans choose 'collectivist cognitions 35 per cent of the time', and in Hong Kong, where society is more collectivist, but people 'select individualist cognitions 45 per cent of the time' (Triandis 1999, p. 130).

2.16 Collectivism and Japanese Culture

In Japan the individual Japanese is part of a culture that emphasises conformity, belongingness, empathy, and dependence, all of which are facets of collectivism (Ishii-Kuntz 1989); even the compound noun for self (*jibun*) reflects the notion of collectivism and implies through the character *bun*, which means part, fraction, or portion that one is part of the organic whole of society, and that one's self-identity is a part of this whole (Sugiyama-Lebra 1976). Evidence suggests that the self is based on a 'familial view' with an 'emphasis on empathy and receptivity to others' (Weber and Hsee 2000, p. 47). The Japanese are purported to be 'extremely sensitive to and concerned about social interaction and relationships (Sugiyama-Lebra 1976, p. 2) with in-groups, such as family, being of 'prime consideration' (Ahmed and Krohn 1992, p. 78). Important to the group dynamic in Japan is the collectivist concept of *amae* or dependency; this strengthens and perpetuates cohesion within groups (Dace 1995; Ishii-Kuntz 1989) and can be thought of as an 'invisible force' that links individuals together in the group. *Amae* is linked to *giri-ninjo*, or obligation, another important aspect of Japanese group dynamics (Dace 1995, p. 284), which in Japan is given in return for being dependent on others (Dace 1995). Harmony is also important to Japanese culture; when harmony is with one's surroundings, it is referred to as *wa*, when it occurs within the confines of a group it is known as *enryo* (self-restraint) (Dace 1995; Sugiyama-Lebra 1976). As a consequence of the collectivist emphasis on 'being one with a group' individuals readily defer their preferences in order to maintain group harmony (Ahmed and Krohn 1992, p. 79); Japanese act as they 'should' as opposed to how they 'would like to act' signifying a gap between behaviour and attitudes and the ability to subsume one's needs to those of the group is regarded as a sign of maturity (Triandis 1999, p. 132).

2.17 Changing Culture and Caveats to Assumptions about Japan

Modern Japan is less tight and collectivist than the Japan of the past, since the 1980s individualism has gained importance in Japanese society (Hofstede 1980; Yamamoto and Gill 1999, p.135; Matsumoto and Takeuchi 1996; Triandis 1999; Ishii-Kuntz 1989; Reischauer 1977). This increased independence and shift in cultural values towards more individualism appears to be present in younger age groups, indicating heterogeneity of culture (Dace 1995; Matsumoto and Takeuchi 1996). That said, a lot of stereotyping and generalisation surrounds Japan. It has been purported that Japan is the most socio-culturally homogenous nation on earth with basically all Japanese speaking the same language[9], practicing the same religion, and sharing identical socio-cultural values (Ahmed and Krohn 1992; Reischauer and Jansen 1995; Iino 2002). Possibly contributing to this notion and helping many prescribe to such stereotypical views is the oft assumed view that culture is 'constant and consistent across individuals within that culture' (Matusmoto et. al. 1996, p. 80).

Neustupny (1987) asserts that it is unrealistic to regard Japan as 'a single and indivisible entity' (p. 27). Research into patterns of I-C (individualism and collectivism) demonstrates that Japanese culture is not consistent across individuals in Japanese society; within Japan 'individuals harbour cultural values, beliefs, and practices to different degrees; furthermore 'there is always a dynamic tension between culture that is shared by a group of individuals and each of the individuals separately' , this results in a 'fluidity' of cultural heterogeneity within the cultural group and the individual (Matsumoto et. al. 1996, p. 81). Consequently, while it has been suggested that Japan is a homogenous collectivist nation, not every Japanese is a collectivist or a collectivist to the same degree and the degree to which society is collectivist is also fluid (Triandis 1999); subsequently one should not assume homogeneity of individuals within a culture, but rather heterogeneity (Matusmoto et. al. 1996).

Since Hofstede's (1980) research on the I-C continuum which proclaimed Japan as collectivist a number of studies have presented different findings (Voronov and Singer 2002). A review of I-C research undertaken by Takano and Osaka (1999) found that in 15 empirical

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[9] It must be recognised that there are different regional and social varieties of Japanese; furthermore, the minority Okinawan and Ainu indigenous peoples have their own languages and there are moves to re-establish Japan's multilingualism (Iino 2002).

studies comparing the I-C of Japan and the United States 14 had results that did not support the commonly held view. Nine studies revealed no difference was between the two nations, five indicated that the Japanese were more individualistic than the Americans, such as research which indicated results contrary to the common expectation that in 'the absence of external sanctions for failure to cooperate with the in-group' Japanese acted more individualistically than Americans (Voronov and Singer 2002, p. 463). Interestingly, Takano and Osaka (1999) found that the only findings that supported the commonly held view were those of Hofstede (1980). The implications of the aforementioned is that the previously discussed points on the collectivist nature of Japanese culture and its influence must be taken with a grain of salt; subsequently, it would be wise to presume the current or future extent of influence of these on individuals in Japan or Japanese society as a whole as neither consistent nor constant.

2.18 Japanese Travel Motivations

Cross-cultural studies have found differences in the motivations or push factors that lead different nations' tourists to travel as well as the importance that nations' tourists place on the pull factors or attributes of destinations (Woodside and Jacobs 1985; Yuan and McDonald 1990; You, O'Leary, and Morrison 2000). In the literature some research outlines Japanese travel motivations, but it is not extensive. Yamamoto and Gill (1999) identify 'learning/enlightenment', 'relaxation/resting', and 'mental/physical excitement' (p. 140-141) as three major categories of benefits that Japanese package tourists seek from overseas travel, while Cha, Mccleary, and Uysal (1995) found relaxation, knowledge, adventure, travel bragging, family, and sports to be motivations for Japanese travellers.

Japanese society places great importance on education and training (Reisinger and Turner 1999) and within tourism there is a view amongst Japanese that education remains an intrinsic aspect of the travel experience (Kajiwara 1997). In this respect education acts as a cover for, or a justification of the recreational aspects of travel (Watkins 2006). Increasing one's knowledge was identified by Yamamoto and Gill (1999) as an important motivation amongst Japanese package tourists, while Cha, Mccleary, and Uysal (1995) identified that

that their sample of Japanese overseas travellers were 'very keen' (p. 36) to gain new knowledge through overseas travel.

Kajiwara (1997) suggests that young Japanese office workers, especially women, participate in export education abroad after a few years of employment for reasons of further study, while for high school graduates this is done with the goal of gaining entrance to foreign universities. Kajiwara's work suggests that this phenomenon might 'reflect a mixture of content and discontent' found in some Japanese (Kajiwara 1997, p. 175). Similarly Ono and Piper (2004) have suggested a feeling of discontent among some Japanese by suggesting that some women enter into study overseas after a time working at a company because of their frustration with prevalent 'male-dominated views' in their work life and the 'ambiguous division of labour between men and women' in the workplace (p 111).

2.19 Push Motivations in the Export Education Sector

It has been acknowledged that there is a lack of research into motivations to study abroad in general (Nyaupane et. al. 2011). A survey of the literature reveals little research into the motivations of Japanese undertaking education or language study abroad; consequently this review includes literature on individuals from East Asian collectivist cultures and non-Asian specific cultural settings. In this section eight articles on motivation within export education have been reviewed; the first four focus on general non-Asian specific cultural settings, while the remaining four discuss motivation within Asian cultural contexts, including Japan.

2.20 Push motivations in Export Education in a non-Asian Specific Cultural Setting

Wiers-Jenssen (2003), Kitsantas (2004), Nyaupane (et. al.2011), and Jarvis and Peel (2008) all identified motivation within non-Asian specific cultural settings of export education. The studies highlight a variety of motivations which can be interpreted and classified as pleasure travel motivations. These include deep-seated motivation, affiliation, knowledge/learning, novelty, variety seeking and change, and anomie and escape, as well as non-touristic

instrumental academic and career focused motivations. Furthermore, a comparison of this research reveals that there are many commonly occurring motivational themes in the study abroad market, such as change, escape and anomie, and knowledge and learning motivations.

Table 1 Author	Motivations identified that can be classified as touristic	Other motivations identified
Jarvis and Peel (2008)	'A desire to broaden awareness of the world' **(knowledge, personal growth)** (p. 164). 'A long desire to travel/study in another country' **(deep-seated motivation)** (p. 164). A 'desire to meet people' **(affiliation)** (p. 164). A 'desire to experience another culture' **(knowledge and learning, change, novelty seeking)** (p. 164). A desire for 'a change/break from everyday life at home' **(change, escape and anomie)** (p. 164).	Studying abroad to improve one's career prospects **(instrumental career related motivations)**.
Weirs-Jenssen (2003)	A 'love of adventure' (r**elaxation, adventure, and pleasure)** (p. 396). A 'desire to experience a different culture' **(knowledge and learning, change, novelty seeking** (p. 396). A 'desire to get a break from usual surrounding' **(change/escape and anomie)** (p. 396). 'Wanting to get a different a different perspective on Norway', 'interested in a particular country' **(knowledge and learning)** (p. 396). A 'desire to learn a language/improve language skills' **(knowledge and learning)**	'Improve prospects for an international career' **(instrumental career related motivations)** (p. 396). A 'desire to learn a language/improve language skills' **(instrumental academic related motivations)** (p. 396). 'Interesting to study in a foreign environment' (p. 396). Numerus clausus (or a shortage of supply in educational opportunities). An absence of domestic study opportunities.
Nyaupane (et. al. 2011)	'Get away from [a] stressful situation', escape social boundaries', 'escape day-to-day life', and 'escape legal boundaries' **(escape and anomie)** (p. 212). 'Socially/culturally learn more about host country', 'learn about host country', and 'get a broader understanding of the world' **(knowledge and learning)** (p. 212). 'Travel with friends', 'interact with people in host country', 'meet people from different countries', and 'develop close relations with locals' **(social interaction, cultural, and affiliation motivations)** (p. 212).	'Earn six academic credits', 'earn academic credit while travelling' **(instrumental academic related motivations)** (p. 212). 'Explore career opportunities' **(instrumental career related motivations)** (p. 212).
Kitsantas (2004)	A 'desire to use/improve a foreign language' **(knowledge and learning, personal growth)** (p. 449-450). A 'desire to be with other friends that were participating in the study abroad program' **(social interaction/affiliation)** (p. 449-450). A 'desire to live in and make acquaintances from the host country' **(affiliation/deep seated motivation?)** (p. 449-450). A 'desire to enhance my understanding of the host country', 'desire to interact with local people and learn more about the customs and traditions of the host country' **(social interaction/affiliation, knowledge and learning)** (p. 449-450). A 'desire to gain insight into the culture of the host country', 'desire to develop my own perspective of the host country' **(knowledge and learning)** (p. 449-450).	A 'desire to improve career prospects' **(instrumental/personal growth)** (p. 450).

2.21 Push motivations in Export Education in an Asian Cultural Setting

Within an Asian cultural setting, Mazzarol and Soutar (2002) identify two important push factors influencing Taiwanese, Indian, Chinese, and Indonesian students to study abroad. The first important motivation identified is that most students from China, Indonesia, Taiwan, and India view courses abroad as being superior to what was offered locally. These researchers also found that students from these countries were motivated to study abroad by the notion that their overseas experience could give them a better 'understanding of Western culture' (Mazzarol and Soutar (2002, p. 84); within the framework of tourism/leisure motivation these could be regarded as knowledge/learning, educational and cultural motivations.

Figure 2 Key Motivations Identified by Mazzarol and Soutar (2002).

Mazzarol and Soutar (2002)	Gain a better 'understanding of Western culture' **(knowledge/learning, educational and cultural motivations)** (p. 84)	Courses abroad are superior to local offerings (China, Indonesia, Taiwan, and India)

In their study on Japanese university students and the contribution of study abroad programs to internationalisation Asaoka and Yano (2009) reported on student expectations from future study abroad experiences. While these student expectations are not explicitly identified as motivations, escape, desire for change, pleasure, intercultural experience, knowledge, and self-discovery that students hoped for can be inferred as motivations (Gnoth 1997). More importantly these specific expectations are commonly found push factors in pleasure travel, suggesting that while Japanese university students expected various instrumental, intrinsic and extrinsic outcomes from study abroad, such as obtaining a qualification or degree, preparing to move abroad, or improving their language ability; they were also motivated by factors identified in the tourism and leisure literature.

Study abroad expectations of Japanese university students identified by Asaoka and Yano (2009)	Corresponding motivations identified by researchers in the leisure and tourism fields.
Pleasure	**Pleasure** – Lundberg (1971), **Relaxation, Adventure, and Pleasure** - Moutinho (1987)
Escape from Japan	**Escape/anomie** – Dann (1977), Crompton (1979), Iso-Ahola (1982)
Desire for a Change	**Change** - Dann (1977, 1981), Crompton (1979), Lee and Crompton (1992)
Self-discovery	**Self-discovery** – Crompton (1979)
Intercultural Experience	**Social Interaction** - Crompton (1979), **Cultural** – Moutinho (1987)
Language improvement/Further study/Research	**Learning** - Mannell and Kleiber (1997), **Educational and Cultural Motivations** - Moutinho (1987) – **Knowledge** – Yamamoto and Gill (1999) - **Challenge, Competency, and Mastery**- Csikszentmihalyi (1990), Iso-Ahola (1982), Crompton (1979)

Another useful study on understanding of motivations for Japanese to leave Japan and undertake study abroad was Habu's (2000) study on Japanese women studying at British universities. Habu (2000) highlighted that a combination of push and pull factors motivated Japanese women to undertake study at British universities. These factors fell into two broad categories of 'pursuing academic goals and new career opportunities' and 'disengaging from the constraints and difficulties of life in Japanese society', (Habu 2000, p. 55). In this research, young women, i.e. those in their late teens to early twenties, had a tendency to be more motivated by pull factors, while older Japanese women were more influenced by push factors. Habu (2000) concluded that many Japanese women travel abroad to participate in export education motivated by a desire to gain self-fulfilment rather than economic benefit; this was attributed to constraints on autonomy for women in the personal and working spheres, which led them to seek independence outside the constraints of Japan.

The third study of interest was Kobayashi's (2007) research into young Japanese women who quit their jobs to undertake English language study in Canada. Kobayashi's (2007) study shared a number of similarities with this research; firstly, in a broad sense Kobayashi's (2007) sample context is similar to that of this study, albeit a narrower sample group; secondly, one of the aims of Kobayashi's research (2007) was to investigate what motivated

individuals to quit their jobs and pursue English study in Canada[10], which is similar to some of the aims of this i.e. identifying what motivates Japanese to leave their country, and what motivates them to study English abroad.

Kobayashi (2007) identifies that 'there are factors other than the learning of English that probably underlie [students'] decision[s] to quit their jobs and study at Canadian English language institutes' (Kobayashi, 2007, p. 66); however, she does not investigate the motivational themes in her participants' quotes, such as novelty, variety, and change, deeply enough (see Figure 4). Instead Kobayashi (2007) attributes the non-educational and career motivations as not arising from 'conventional instrumental motivation or a desire for 'investment', but age as impetus and a rather broad category, termed 'personal reasons' (pp. 69-70).

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[10] Kobayashi's (2007) study does differ from this research undertaking in that it is focused on multiple aims, including those outside the motivational sphere, while this research solely focused on motivation,

Statements from Kobayashi's study	Motivations as identified by Kobayashi	Corresponding motivations in the leisure and tourism fields
'I've got to do it now.' I am now 31. And... I've got to do it now. When I picture myself in three years, I would regret not doing it because it would be really late'. 'It was almost like forcing myself to leave. The idea back in my mind was, "If I miss this time, I am really going to lose an opportunity to live overseas, for good, for sure."' (p. 66-67).	Age as impetus	**Now or Never Motivation.**
I always wanted to live in a foreign country... I just wanted to live abroad and that's that' (p. 66)	Personal reasons	**Deep-Seated Motivation**
'As office ladies, we go to the same company, leave the office at 5, have supper, go to bed, or eat out with friends. The same routine, again and again. We then pretty much get tired of it. And we get to feel like knowing what kinds of actions we would take, what kinds of feelings we would experience if we went overseas and positioned ourselves in unfamiliar environments with unfamiliar languages. We want to know that, I suppose'. (p. 67)	Personal reasons	*Anomie and Escape; Novelty, Variety, and Change*
'I wanted to change my personality or personal values' and 'I thought life in Japan lacked opportunities for me to grow as an independent individual'. (p. 67)	Personal reasons	*Personal growth, Self-discovery, and Change*

Considering that one of the aims of Kobayashi's (2007) study was to determine what motivates Japanese women to quit their jobs her limited effort to identify and classify motivation is surprising, especially in light of evidence in the article suggesting other motivations (see Figure 4). As a consequence Kobayashi's (2007) contribution to the understanding of motivation in this market segment is limited, and much less than it could have been; however, as the paper contains a limited number of rich quotes indicating various motivations outside of what Kobayashi clearly identifies, it is valuable, but only to those who are well-versed in motivation, in particular travel motivation.

The final study of particular importance to this research provides further insight into the various push factors that motivate students to study abroad, including those of Chinese

students. Sanchez, Fornerino, and Zhang's (2006)[11] cross-cultural study researched US, French, and Chinese business school students, revealing some interesting motivational similarities and differences between students of the three nations as well as the motivations and intents of Chinese students to study abroad, suggesting that like within tourism there are national motivational differences within export education (You et al. 2000; Woodside and Jacobs 1985; Yuan and McDonlad 1990; Kozak 2002).

Sanchez, Fornerino, and Zhang (2006) also list common motivations for Chinese students, categorising them into 'search for a new experience', 'search for liberty/pleasure', 'search for travel', and 'improve a social situation' (Sanchez, Fornerino, and Zhang, 2006, pp. 36-37). These common motivations are intrinsic, extrinsic, and instrumental in nature and can, for the most part, be classified into motivation categories already utilised within the field of tourism. With adaptation Sanchez, Fornerino, and Zhang's (2006) paper becomes more useful for those versed in tourism motivations revealing common themes including novelty, change, and variety seeking, personal growth, deep-seated motivation, and prestige and ego-enhancement need, as well as one category that cannot be readily reclassified using pleasure travel motivation within the tourism literature. This category is classified as 'improve a social situation' (Sanchez, Fornerino, and Zhang 2006, p. 37) concerns the desire of Chinese students to earn more, become wealthy, and provide for their family (Chen, Warden and Chang 2005); it is instrumental in nature.

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[11] The work of Fornerino (et.al. 2006) contains both a definition of motivation and a review of the literature on the subject (including a review of literature on values, motivation, and national culture) thus presenting a greater understanding of motivation in comparison with the paper by Kobayashi's (2007).

Personal Growth	Novelty, Change, and Variety Seeking, Cultural	Deep-seated Motivation
'For personal enhancement' **(intrinsic)** 'To find greater freedom' **(intrinsic)** 'To have international experience' **(intrinsic)**	'To see the world' **(intrinsic)** 'To see new things' **(intrinsic)** 'To experience a lifestyle other than my own' **(intrinsic)** 'To experience Western life' **(intrinsic)**	'To achieve my dream of having a foreign experience' **(intrinsic)**
Prestige and Ego-enhancement Needs 'To achieve a higher social status' **(extrinsic)**	(Instrumental) Improve a Social Situation 'To earn a better living' **(extrinsic)** 'To be richer' **(extrinsic)** 'To provide a good living to my family' **(extrinsic)**	

2.22 Conclusion

This research drew on relevant literature on tourism, education, leisure, psychology, culture, Japan, and study abroad experiences to develop an understanding of Japan and the motivations for travel and study abroad. With this process, the findings on motivations to study abroad in the literature were classified from a tourism motivation perspective to give a better understanding of motivations in this area in the context of tourism motivation. This understanding was used as a basis for developing the research questions in this study as well as guiding the overall research to answer the research issues and the overarching research question. The next chapter is a brief on Japan.

Chapter 3: Brief on Japan

3.1 Introduction

The aim Chapter 3 is to provide background information on the Japanese, which has not previously been covered, but is relevant to understanding Japan and the Japanese for the context of this research. The chapter begins with a brief on the Japanese outbound market, covering its development and issues related to this. This is followed by an introduction to the Japanese relationship with the English language, which highlights the importance of English in Japan in both the education the business worlds. Chapter 3 ends with an overview of Japan and export education. This section introduces Japan's involvement in export education, including its development, as well as issues which are affecting demand in the Japanese market for study abroad experiences.

3.2 The Japanese Outbound Market

While Japan distinguishes itself from other nations with a long tradition of domestic tourism dating back many centuries (Kajiwara 1997; Graburn 2009; Guichard-Anguis 2009) it only developed as a significant outbound market in the 1980s (Ahmed and Krohn 1992; Polunin 1989). By the end of that decade Japan had developed into the leading market in Asia for outbound tourism flows (Ahmed and Krohn 1992), helped in part by the signing in 1985 of the Plaza Accord, which resulted in the value of the yen rising, particularly against the US dollar (Polunin 1989; OECD 2002).

While economic factors contributed to increasing outbound Japanese it was a combination of other factors that contributed to the outbound travel boom (Polunin 1989). Arguably the most important of these was that the Japanese government played an important role in increasing Japanese participation in overseas travel through policy initiatives (Polunin 1989; OECD 2002). In September 1987, the administration created the '10 million Programme' (Polunin 1989) with the aim of effectively doubling the number of outbound Japanese to 10 million within a timeframe of 5 years (Polunin 1989; Mak, et. al. 2004). As well as this the Japanese

government signalled, and possibly more importantly, to the bureaucratically receptive Japanese public that travel was both desirable and expected of them (Polunin 1989). Suggestions were made to the Japanese public that after all they had sacrificed for the nation's economy during the years Japan played catch up it was now okay to 'relax a bit and enjoy some of the fruits of their labour' (Polunin 1989, p. 6; Mak, Carlile, and Dai 2004).

Through such efforts the government worked towards changing the attitudes of hard-working Japanese towards leisure (Polunin 1989). As a consequence of these factors, and the new affordability of travel, growth continued throughout the 1980s (Polunin 1989); by 1990 the number of outbound Japanese surpassed 10 million (OECD 2002), by 1995 it exceeded 15 million (OECD 2002). By the end of the 1990's Japan had become the 10th largest nation in terms of outbound travel (OECD 2002); this rapid growth in outbound travel, combined with the significant spending power of the Japanese saw Japan become an important global player in tourism, and by 2009 it had become the 7th largest spending outbound market in the world (Mak, et. al. 2004; Nozawa 1992; TRC 2009; Chon et. al. 2000; UNWTO 2010).

While Japan has increased its outbound market 'hard work…. long hours' and a strong sense of loyalty to one's co-workers and company are deeply rooted into Japanese culture, (Cha, McCleary, and Uysal 1995, p. 37; Nozawa 1992; Matsumoto et. al. 1996; Sugiyama-Lebra 1976). In addition to this a 'A feeling of guilt in seeking mere pleasure dies hard within a culture of hard work' (Kajiwara 1997, p. 169) and in Japan using one's full entitlement of leave to take a long absence from work is viewed unfavourably (Arlt 2006). Taking time off work for leisure needs is perceived as letting one's co-workers down (Graburn 1983); consequently, Japanese have been traditionally reluctant to travel and use their entire holiday day entitlement (Polunin 1989; Mak, et. al. 2004; Nozawa 1992), using just under half (8.9) of the 18 days of paid holiday leave available to them (OECD 2002). As a consequence of these factors there is the view that it is somewhat difficult for Japanese to undertake overseas travel (Cha, Mccleary, and Uysal 1995, p. 37); in spite of these difficulties many Japanese

view overseas travel as an important component of a 'desirable lifestyle' (Polunin, 1989, p. 6; Nozawa 1992)[12].

The government has been active in shifting attitudes towards leisure helping to erode some of the guilt associated with taking time off (Polunin 1989); however, in spite of initiatives Japan, in comparison with many rich European countries, only sends a small proportion of its population overseas (Graburn 2009). This figure of 13 trips per 100 people is also significantly lower than New Zealand's figure of 46 trips per 100 people (MOT 2009). The Japanese government is actively involved, and interested in, changing Japanese leisure attitudes, and influencing behaviour to address this. As part of its initiative to increase the number of outbound Japanese the Japanese government is currently endeavouring to increase Japanese interest in travel abroad (JTA 2010), establishing a work environment that enables individuals to take time off for vacations easily, and working on regulatory reforms that will encourage Japanese to travel (JATA 2008)[13].

3.3   The Japanese & the English Language

In Japan the English language has been often linked to the notion of internationalisation/modernisation of the nation and 'trendiness' (Iino 2002; Aspinell 2006; English First 2011A, para. 7). This association arguably has its roots in Commodore Perry's visit of 1858, an encounter which demonstrated the technological power of the industrialised Western nations to Japan and made the nation realise how important English was for the

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[12] This view is likely to continue as younger Japanese have become more experienced travellers and have a greater likelihood of travel than Japanese in older cohorts, such as their parents or grandparents, when they reach a similar age (Mak, et. al. 2004).

[13] The Japanese government created a policy in a similar vein to the ambitious '10 million Programme of the 1980s (MILT 2008)., which had the ambitious goal of increasing the outbound number of Japanese to 20 million by 2010 (MILT 2007) to address the impacts, especially on long haul travel, that occurrences over the last decade, such as September 11th, SARS, and rising fuel surcharges have had on overall demand (JATA 2008; OECD 2002; MOT 2009); however, due to the impacts of the recent global recession and after effects brought on by the 'Lehman Shock' in 2008 (MILT 2009, p. 7), growth stalled and the programme only reached a total of 16.6 million outbound Japanese in 2010 (Japan Tourism Marketing 2011) — a figure below the pre-September 11 figure of 17.8 million outbound Japanese recorded in 2000 (OECD 2002) and the approximately 17.3 million outbound in 2007 (MILT 2007).

nation to catch up with the West (Fujimoto-Adamson 2006). From the Meiji era onwards it has been suggested that the purpose of English language education in Japan has mainly been to 'access information necessary to catch up with Western civilization and scientific technology' (Noriguchi 2007, para. 7; Fujimoto-Adamson 2006), as a consequence of this there has traditionally been a strong focus on grammar and translation in the English language education of Japan (Noriguchi 2007). There has been a policy shift and Ministry officials have been placing greater and greater emphasis on stressing communicative ability in English; support for developing English abilities is found in both the words and actions of the Japanese authorities, such as in this 2002 white paper from MEXT, which states:

> 'It is essential that our children acquire communication skills in English….This has become an extremely important issue both in terms of the future of our children and the further development of Japan as a nation' (MEXT 2002, Section 6, para. 9).

English 'plays an important role in the screening process of education' in Japan (Iino 2002, p. 81). At the university level there is the belief that students have to read books in English and that a student's 'English score is highly correlated with [their] analytical and logical thinking skills' (Iino 2002, p. 89). As a consequence English is very important for students wishing to gain entrance to universities in Japan and English scores tend to be given the most weight in university entrance examinations (Iino 2002). Industry research indicates that career and job are two of the top five purposes for learners studying English (Iino 2002)[14]. English is important for job hunting and company promotions; half of all Japanese companies considering an applicant's English proficiency when choosing employees (Iino 2002), English is the corporate language of some of the nation's leading automotive and retail

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[14] A well-established supply of private English language institutions helps Japanese to improve their English through the provision of English language classes outside the public education system (Iino 2002). These classes cater to the wide variety of English education goals of children and adults, such as preparation for school or college entrance examinations, improving TOEFL scores, or building speaking and listening skills (Iino 2002). It is reported that Japanese spend approximately 3 trillion yen annually on services offered by the private English conversation industry in Japan (Aspinell 2006).

companies such as Nissan, Uniqlo, and Rakuten, and is commonly employed by Japanese companies in international trade dealings (English First 2011A; Graddol 1997).

3.4 Japan and Export Education

Japan began its involvement in export education in 1871 when the Meiji government began to send select Japanese to Western countries to get educated with the aim for Japan to develop its levels of technology, politics, and education to a standard similar to those of the West (Fujimoto-Adamson 2006). Japan's modern growth export education has its origins in the 1980s when the government adopted a policy of 'internationalisation to help it understand the differences between Japanese and other cultures (Habu 2000). With this initiative the Japanese government had national interests at heart and the policy was useful in so far as it allowed Japan a better means to pursue its economic and foreign policy goals abroad (Habu 2000). Under the auspices of this policy studying abroad became popular and was encouraged (Kajiwara 1997; Habu 2000). Helped by the appreciation of the yen (Habu 2000) this led to 190,000 Japanese students — just over 1 per cent of the Japanese outbound market — travelling overseas for export education by the beginning of the twenty-first century (MOE 2001)[15]. Nowadays study abroad opportunities for English are widely available for ESL learners through 'formal schools and private institutions' (Iino 2002, p. 83).

In 2004 the number of Japanese officially reported by MEXT as studying abroad at schools, colleges, and universities peaked at 82,945[16]; since then it has declined, and by 2008 the number had fallen to 66,833 (AFP 2010). It has been suggested that this decline is due to a number of factors; one of these is that Japan has a declining and rapidly aging population and a student population that is on the decline (Associated Press 2011; Walsh 2005). Other factors which have been purported to influencing this decline include the nation's poorly-performing economy, a decline in Japanese organisations sending employees abroad for study purposes, negative discrimination in the job market and on the corporate career ladder for

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[15] In 2007 1.3% of Japan's total outbound market was for studying abroad/school trips (JATA 2009).

[16] This number is smaller than the 190,000 that was reported by the MOE (2001). This discrepancy may be due to the problem in accounting for the total number of Japanese studying abroad due to difficulty in determining their status by such things as taking time off from university to study abroad, or utilising tourist visas to undertake short-term study abroad (Aoki2005).

Japanese who gain qualifications from studying abroad at foreign institutions, an 'inward-looking perspective' and decreased interest in studying abroad amongst Japanese youth compared with those of 20 to 30 years ago, the perception amongst Japanese youth that current technology for accessing information makes study abroad less necessary, an increasing number of foreign students on Japanese campuses giving students the chance to experience internationalization without leaving home, job hunting beginning earlier and conflicting with the best time for undergraduates to study abroad, concern that study abroad reduces the amount of time that university students can be spent on securing permanent post-graduation employment (leaving one behind one's peers in the employment-seeking process and disadvantaging one), and a perception that study abroad system makes it difficult to study overseas and still complete undergraduate studies within the normal four year period[17] (Hayes 1997; Asaoka and Yano 2009; AFP 2010, para. 1; Fukushima 2010; Associates in Cultural Exchange 2010; Harden 2010; British Council 2011).

3.5 Conclusion

This chapter has given the reader a brief introduction to the Japanese outbound pleasure travel market, Japan's relationship with English, and Japan and export education. The aim of this background information was to help develop a better understanding of the Japanese outbound market, Japan's relationship and demand for English, and factors in Japan influencing the export education market. In Chapter 4, this research discusses the methodology used for this study.

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[17] This is in part because Japan has many full-year courses at universities, some course credits from foreign universities are not transferable or recognised, and due to academic year start and finish dates for overseas universities often differing to those in Japan (Asaoka and Yano 2009).

Chapter 4: Methodology

4.1   Introduction

This chapter begins with an outline of the research question. It is followed by an explanation of this research's paradigm and approach. After this the process for data collection is introduced; this section includes an explanation of the sample, the procedure, and organisation and analysis of raw data. Finally an outlook to the analysis section is outlined.

4.2   The Research Question

All research projects are directed by research questions (Braun and Clarke 2006). In this project there was an overarching research question and two research issues which were addressed to provide the necessary insight for answering the overarching research question. In this study the overarching research question which was being asked was: how alike/different are the push factor motivations of Japanese adults enrolled in English language study in New Zealand to push factor motivations found within pleasure travel? To establish the insight for this question to be answered this study explored the motivations of participants to leave Japan and go abroad and the motivations for individuals to study English while abroad.

4.3   The Paradigm and Justification for Critical Realism

A paradigm is the researcher's worldview or fundamental belief system which defines the nature of the world and guides the individual in their choices of method and also ontologically and epistemologically (Guba and Lincoln 1994). It is suggested that both qualitative and quantitative methods can be used with any research paradigm as 'questions of method are secondary to questions of paradigm' (Guba and Lincoln 1994, p. 105). This study has taken a qualitative approach to research. Within science the there has been a strong emphasis on quantification historically (Guba and Lincoln 1994), in recent times counter

arguments against quantification have developed (Guba and Lincoln 1994). A qualitative approach has been adopted because it presents contextual data, whereas quantification strips data of other variables and therefore context (Guba and Lincoln 1994). A second argument for using a qualitative approach is that human behaviour needs to refer to the 'meanings and purposes' given to activities by people in order to be understood, and qualitative data is useful for this because it allows for rich insight into human behaviour (Guba and Lincoln 1994). This approach was also of use because it allows for emic views to be uncovered, especially with lives of 'others' outside the mainstream, and is suitable for providing 'local context' (Guba and Lincoln 1994, p. 106). A qualitative approach was also beneficial because generalisations, while statistically meaningful, are not applicable to individual cases and because it allows for a discovery element during inquiry rather than emphasising the confirmation of set a priori hypotheses (Guba and Lincoln 1994).

It is important for the researcher to clarify their theoretical positions and values with regard to qualitative research (Braun and Clarke 2006). This research uses critical realism, a postpositivist approach where knowledge is made from non-falsified hypotheses which can be considered as 'probable' truths or laws (Guba and Lincoln 1994, p. 113). This approach was chosen on the grounds that it is a suitable for a researcher planning to work in industry to use for inform decision makers and policy makers in areas of policy for a researcher planning to work in industry as it has rigour of internal validity, external validity, and reliability, which make it valid, and because it is compatible with a variety of research methods (Guba and Lincoln 1994; Sayer 2000).

With (critical) realism, the world consists of 'real, complex, intransitive objects', which occur independently of whether researchers have knowledge of them or not (Tsouakas 1989, p. 552; Sayer 2000). In this, reality is believed to exist, but is imperfectly graspable due to flaws in our intellectual ability to understand it, and also because of the complexity of the phenomena (Guba and Lincoln 1994). With the realist paradigm it is asserted that the world is differentiated between 'real, actual, and empirical domains of reality' and that it is also 'stratified' (Tsoukas 1989, p. 553; Sayer 2000). With this, emergence embodies the world, wherein the sum of two or more aspects can lead to new phenomena with properties 'irreducible' to its parts (Sayer 2000, p. 12) The real is whatever that is there, whether it be

natural or social (Sayer 2000). Researchers seek truth in realism in an imperfect manner, working towards an understanding of reality that is shared by people operating as independent entities (Guba and Lincoln 1994; Tsoukas 1989). Realists search to identify both 'necessity' and 'potential' in the world (Sayer 2000). With critical realism an intensive approach, which begins with individuals, can be made to map out the main contributory and discursive relationships of participants and study their qualitative nature as well as their number (Sayer 2000); the aim of such inquiry is explanation, with the goal of ultimately being able to predict the phenomenon (Guba and Lincoln 1994).

4.4   The Approach: Thematic Analysis

For this study thematic analysis was utilised to identify, analyse, and report themes within data (Braun and Clarke 2006). This is a method that is suitable for use in conjunction with a realist approach (Braun and Clarke 2006). Thematic analysis was also a valid choice as this study's research method because it does not need a detailed knowledge of approach like grounded theory, and is a more accessible form of analysis for a qualitative researcher with little experience (Braun and Clarke 2006).

Thematic analysis entails searching across data sets, which in the case of this research was interviews and literature, to find patterns of meaning that are repeated (Braun and Clarke 2006). Thematic analysis is different from other methods which describe patterns in qualitative data, such as grounded theory and interpretive phenomenological analysis (IPA). IPA is bound to phenomenological epistemology and giving experience primacy to understand people's detailed experience of reality in order to gain an understanding of the phenomenon being questioned, while grounded theory has the aim of developing a useful and credible theory of the phenomena which is grounded in the data (Braun and Clarke 2006).

This approach differs to IPA and grounded theory in so far as it is not bound to a pre-existing theoretical framework; subsequently, it can be used with different theoretical frameworks, but not all, and different things can be done within them (Braun and Clarke 2006). With thematic

analysis writing is an essential part of analysis; this begins during the first stage of the research, when ideas and possible coding schemes are written down, and continues throughout the coding and analysis phases (Braun and Clarke 2006).

4.5   Data Collection

The following section illustrates the interviewing process, including how the sample was selected and interviews conducted, as well as how the raw data was organised and analysed.

4.5.1   The Sample

Participants in this study were all Japanese nationals or long-term residents of Japan. This sample encompassed individuals who were Japanese by ethnicity as well as minorities in Japan who were permanent residents of the nation and embedded in Japanese society, but not Japanese citizens or passport holders. The inclusion of Japan's minorities better represents modern Japan - one which is more multi-cultural and less homogenous than in the past. It also gives a voice to people in Japan who are immersed and surrounded by Japanese culture, speak Japanese, are integrated into Japanese society, and but not be perceived to be Japanese in a society where ethnicity has been regarded as tantamount to citizenship (Stanford University 2010).

One such group, which is represented in this study, is Japan's Korean minority. Koreans are Japan's largest permanent resident minority group; they has been present in Japan for many generations, are well-integrated and embedded in Japanese society, surrounded by Japanese culture, and indistinguishable from ethnic Japanese in many regards, such as language (Hays 2009; The Economist 2010; Stanford University 2010). This is also a group which has experienced much discrimination and exclusion in Japan in areas such as employment, housing, citizenship, rights, education, marriage, and voting rights, and which was barred from holding any positions in the public sector (Debito 2005; Hays 2009; The Economist 2010; Stanford University 2010).

Recent decades have seen erosion of systematic discrimination against Japanese-Koreans; however, while it has become easier for Japan's Korean minority to become Japanese citizens it is still difficult (Hays 2009; Debito 2005), most remain permanent residents and discrimination still remains (Debito 2005; McBride 2008; Hays 2009)[18]. Japan's Korean minority is a part of Japan and this researcher does not want to contribute to their discrimination solely based on the notions of Japanese ethnicity and citizenship; instead Japan's Korean minority is included because it is part of Japan, which is integrated, indistinguishable in many ways to other Japanese, and deserving of recognition and a voice (Hays 2009; The Economist 2010; Stanford University 2010). Consequently, throughout the study the term 'Japanese' will be used to refer to both participants whose nationality is Japanese and Korean participants who are not Japanese citizens, but are long-term or permanent residents of Japan.

All participants were adults of 18 years of age or older who were enrolled, or had been enrolled, in a short-term English language course of one year or less at an English language school in New Zealand. A variety of respondents were chosen for the sample to create contrast in areas such as age, gender, occupation, and level of travel independence, i.e. establishing whether the participant was here independently, independently, but on a voluntary study abroad programme, or part of a mandatory study abroad programme (McCracken 1988).

In total the sample consisted of twenty-four participants. The relatively small sample size of this research reflects the notion that the main purpose of qualitative research is to find out about cultural categories and assumptions and not to generalise in a larger population or discover the number or types of people who share particular characteristics (McCracken 1988). While less is considered more in qualitative research, and eight participants regarded to be sufficient for most qualitative studies (McCracken 1988), this study used a slightly larger sample size with the goal of establish a broader understanding of the various motivations influencing Japanese adults to study ESL abroad.

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[18] It must be noted that racial discrimination is not illegal in Japan (Debito 2005).

4.5.2　The Procedure

Data was collected during November and December 2011 by the main researcher across three population centres in New Zealand. The sample was a convenience one; introductions and access to students was predominantly made via institutions, but there were also instances of snowballing. Access to these English schools in New Zealand, and ultimately their students, was initially made through an Educational umbrella organisation, which represented the institutions. This method created trust and legitimacy at the top level, which stimulated support for the project, as well as access and promotion of the research goals amongst member schools; this resulted in smooth access to clients of the schools from which the sample was ultimately made. The use of institutions as a gateway to students was found to be an effective method to gain access to students. It was also beneficial as it helped to establish trust with interviewees, which is important for discussing personal information which may be kept private in Japanese culture (Habu 2000).

Interviewing began with pilot interviews at one school. Through this the approach and questioning refined. The sample was also expanded at this stage to include university students who were studying abroad on mandatory study abroad programmes, but free to choose their study destination. This was done based on the original premise that pull-factor motivations were being investigated and that it would be beneficial to learn what attracts students on mandatory study abroad programmes to New Zealand. This approach soon revealed that university students on mandatory study abroad programmes were motivated not just by extrinsic motivations, increasing the importance of studying this group.

In total students from five schools and three population centres participated. These centres represented a cross section of the New Zealand ELS environments including: schools in towns and cities, as tourism/recreation/resort centres, major urban centres, and academic hubs. In addition to this, one interview was conducted outside this frame; in this case the participant was a Japanese, who was at the same backpacker's accommodation as the researcher was staying, and had recently complete ESL study at a sixth school in a fourth

New Zealand population centre. It was hoped that the convenience sample would encompass a diverse age range of Japanese adults; however, as the five participating schools did not have any Japanese between thirty years and retirement age enrolled this was not to be the case. Subsequently, this sample consists of Japanese predominantly between the ages of 19 and 29 years of age and one retiree aged 58 years. The two participating ELS's that were associated with New Zealand universities and polytechnics, from which participants were drawn, only had university students from Japanese universities enrolled (possibly due to their links to Japanese universities with study abroad programmes). Consequently, efforts were made to actively recruit older participants at ELS's not associated with New Zealand universities and polytechnic; this was done with the view that such an endeavour would contribute to presenting a broader and better picture of motivation in the Japanese export education market (McCracken 1988). Because of this all of the participants who were graduates and workers were students enrolled at ELS's not associated with New Zealand universities or polytechnics.

For this research face-to-face interviews lasting approximately 30 minutes to an hour in length were conducted. To establish relative anonymity and the opportunity for honesty (McCracken 1988) these occurred in a one-one environment away from other students and school staff either on school premises or in cafes, on or close to campus. With this process interviews were recorded on two digital audio recorders for safe preservation of the raw data in its entirety for later analysis (O'Leary 2004), in addition field notes were also taken. These notes were used for probing, triangulation, keeping track of tangents for further exploration during the interview process, and making some initial observations and judgements. These field notes were also beneficial in the latter stage of analysis for the verification of conclusions (Miles and Huberman 1994).

For the interviews a semi-structured approach was utilised as it afforded flexibility to explore, greater freedom to probe and investigate themes effectively with open ended questioning when they arose, as well as the ability to triangulate and confirm answers and meaning (McCracken 1988). This style of informal interview has been suggested as beneficial because it can help add to the knowledge in a relatively under researched area whereas a more formal approach relying on a priori hypotheses would prevent inductive insights from being made (Mann 1971 in Habu 2000; Habu 2000).

Questioning was guided by a previous study into the motivations of international tourists visiting New Zealand conducted at the University of Otago; this was a study that this researcher was also involved in, but remains to be published. Questions from this previous study were used as a template to develop broad starter questions for inquiry in this study. This approach was used because such strategic questions had proven fruitful in the previous study for helping conversations and rich responses develop (O'Leary 2004) and the development of lines of inquiry that could be explored through probing (examples of these questions can be found in Appendix B). With this process some demographic and general questions were used to help relax the respondent and ease them into the interview (O'Leary 2004). In general though, the line of inquiry was to establish the various factors that played a role in influencing participants to study English abroad, including internal socio-psychological motivations and extrinsic influences.

Interviewing was primarily conducted in English, while not the native language of the participants, English was chosen for a number of reasons including that it removes ambiguous language, vagueness in communication, and the need for the interviewer to tacitly understand the interviewee, which are inherent parts of Japanese culture and entwined in language. English was also chosen in the belief that the culture of the language would encourage participants to think and answer differently, and that the influence of hierarchy/politeness, indirect communication methods, and the outer/inner barrier associated with Japanese culture and reinforced by Japanese language, would be reduced and participants would subsequently be more open and frank in comparison to communicating in Japanese.

Unlike in Japanese, English encourages speakers to make frequent use of the personal pronoun 'I' when talking about the self; there was an assumption that using English and subsequently the personal pronoun 'I' would contribute to priming individuals to think about the 'self' more and share details about themselves and motivations which were focused more on benefits to the individual, such as catharsis or personal growth. It was also hoped that the use of the English pronoun 'I' would distance the participant from the Japanese concept of self (*jibun*), which has the connotations that one is part of society's whole with (Sugiyama-Lebra 1976).

4.5.3 Organisation and Analysis of Raw Data

For this research the data corpus consisted of the participant interviews, field notes, and secondary research from the literature (Braun and Clarke 2006; Miles and Huberman 1994). Interviews were transcribed to contribute to this corpus (McCracken 1988). Transcribing was a slow and tedious process, which provided an excellent opportunity to become familiar with the data (Braun and Clarke 2006). As the data was collected solely by this researcher the analysis phase was begun with already established knowledge of the data and some initial thoughts (Braun and Clarke 2006). During this initial phase the researcher familiarised himself with the data through active, repeated reading of it in search of patterns and meanings (Braun and Clarke 2006). During this phase some notes and ideas for coding were made.

With the next phase a framework matrix was constructed in Excel, which served as an index for themes and sub-themes (Bryman 2012). This descriptive matrix was used to order, synthesise, and code data, reflecting the approach that there were specific theory-driven questions that the researcher wished to code around (Braun and Clarke 2006; Bryman 2012; Miles and Huberman 1994) and that different strategies can be used for solving problems during the qualitative research process (McCracken 1988). With this process electronic copies of transcripts, field notes, and memos on the interviews were used to link data into patterns (Bryman 2012).

With this language of the participant was kept as much as possible (Bryman 2012) with cell entries including direct quotes as well as paraphrasing, summaries, researcher explanations, and some judgements (Miles and Huberman 1994). Such an approach produced thick data in the cells (Miles and Huberman 1994). This matrix was then used to organise data into themes; a theme constituted something in the data important and relevant to the research questions which had some degree of 'patterned response or meaning' within data sets (Braun and Clarke 2006, p. 10); with this data was revised as needed (Miles and Huberman 1994).

A theoretical thematic analysis was conducted to create an in-depth analysis of certain aspects of the data; this involved a semantic approach to establish explicit meaning from participants' interview statements (Braun and Clarke 2006). As this was a theoretical thematic analysis, literature was utilised at the beginning of the process to allow the researcher to become more attune to subtleties in the data and consequently develop the analysis further (Braun and Clarke 2006). Literature reviews are integral components of qualitative research that allow for the definition of problems, aid in the establishment of the construction of interview questions, guide avenues for exploration during the interviewing process, and the assessment of data (McCracken 1988)

Qualitative data was analysed based on the concepts that were shared by participants (O'Leary 2004). Analysis software was not used for this based on the premise that 'the insight, acumen, and common sense' of the researcher cannot be substituted (O'Leary 2004, p. 184). The process began with the researcher noticing and looking for patterns and points of interest within the data (Braun and Clarke 2006). The focus of this was to report content as well as the meanings of patterns found in the data (Braun and Clarke 2006). It was necessary at this stage to consider what constituted a theme; this required flexibility (Braun and Clarke 2006). Repetition was investigated at this stage because it is arguably the most common criteria for establishing themes, in addition to this relevancy or 'keyness' was also investigated (Bryman 2012; Braun and Clarke 2006, p. 10) At this point 'keyness' and prevalence were considered in relation to what should be considered a theme (Braun and Clarke 2006, p. 10). Keyness measured how important the theme was in relation to the research questions and was not necessarily linked to quantifiable measurements (Braun and Clarke 2006); during this phase convergent and divergent themes were also considered.

The result of this was the creation of a detailed account of the prevalent and important themes from within the data sets, in relation to the research questions (Braun and Clarke 2006). The drawing of conclusions began with 'a quick scan' to find themes that were instantly attention grabbing and was followed by a deeper review with the aim of verifying, revising, and disconfirming themes (Miles and Huberman 1994, p. 242). This was done through reading of the data and a continuous process of comparison (O'Leary 2004). This involved noting patterns, themes, contrasts, comparisons and counts (Miles and Huberman 1994). This was a

recursive process, which involved constantly going between the total data set, the coded extracts that were being analysed, and the analysis of this data that was being created, and one that developed over time (Braun and Clarke 2006).

With this counting was used as frequency helped to verify hunches, keep the research 'analytically honest', and protect against bias (Miles and Huberman 1994, p. 253). Clustering was also employed to help understand phenomenon more through categorising them and then 'conceptualising objects that have similar patterns or characteristics' (Miles and Huberman 1994, p. 249). Some themes were made redundant and consequently eliminated, while others were subsumed into other categories (McCracken 1988). Summary tables were used at this time to help clear up understanding and contrasts and comparisons were employed as they are a 'time honoured way to test a conclusion' (Miles and Huberman 1994, p. 263). At the end of this process of analysis the themes from each of the participant's interviews were brought together to establish the cohesive general properties of 'thought and action' from within the group (McCracken 1988) and text began to be written to explain conclusions (Miles and Huberman 1994).

With this it became evident that convergent or divergent themes in the data could sometimes be linked to certain demographic groups. Consequently participants were classified by gender, role, and life stage, with themes sometimes being discussed in relation to these. In this study participants were classified into the groups twenty-something workers, recent retirees[19], students in the university cohort, university sophomores, fourth year students, sophomores on mandatory study abroad programme, sophomores on voluntary study abroad programmes, and men and women.

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[19] This participant was also included in the full-time worker group on occasion as he had only recently retired, had underlying motivations and a desire to go abroad during his time working, and was also studying English with the intent to return to employment.

Figure 6 Participants Classified By Demographic Group

Group	Participant Code
Men	J1, J6, J8, J9, J10, J11, J17, J23, J24
Women	J2, J3, J4, J5, J7, J12, J13, J14, J15, J16, J18, J19, J20, J21, J22
Full-time workers	J3,J4, J5, J8, J11, J18, J22
Recent Retirees	J6
University Cohort	J1, J2, J7, J9, J10, J12, J13, J14, J15, J17, J19, J20, J21, J24
University Sophomores	J7, J9, J12, J13, J14, J15, J17, J19, J20, J21
Fourth Year Students	J2, J10, J24
Sophomores on Mandatory Study Abroad Programmes	J14, J15, J17, J19, J20
Sophomores on Voluntary Study Abroad Programmes	J9, J12, J21

The major demographic groups in this study, which were associated with themes, were the full-time worker group and the university cohort. Both of these groups encompassed sub-groups; the full-time worker group included a sub-group of full-time workers in their twenties (classified as the twenty-something worker group), while the university cohort consisted of students enrolled in universities, and included the sub-groups of sophomores, fourth year students, sophomores on mandatory study abroad programme, and sophomores on voluntary study abroad programmes. In the study the most frequently referenced of these demographic groups were full-time workers and its sub-group the twenty-something worker groups, as well as the university cohort and its sub-group of sophomores.

4.6   Conclusion

With the methodology now having been outlined and explained attention now turns to introducing and discussing the findings of this study. For this section the findings will be presented with some supporting discussion and links to the findings of other researchers (Burnhard 2004).

All research projects are directed by research questions; in this project there was an overarching research question and two research issues, which provide insight for answering an overarching research question (Braun and Clarke 2006). This research will answer these two research issues first, since addressing these is necessary for creating the information needed to answer the overarching question of how alike and different the motivations of Japanese studying abroad are to motivations found within pleasure travel. Chapter 5 begins with research issue one, what motivates Japanese to travel abroad, before continuing on to address what motivates Japanese to study English abroad (research issue 2); following this Chapter 6 will answer the overarching research question, presenting findings in relation to this research question as well as conclusions, implications for industry, and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 5: Data Analysis and Findings

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter described the methodology used for gathering the data for this study. The aim of this chapter is to introduce the findings and analysis of data in relation to the two questions concerning push motivations for travelling abroad and studying English abroad; this will provide the basis for answering the overarching question — how alike/different the push factor motivations of Japanese adults enrolled in English language study in New Zealand are to push factor motivations found within pleasure travel — in the conclusion.

5.2 Analysis and Discussion of Research Issues 1 and 2

This chapter concerns the findings and discussion on push factors found in the Japanese adult market for short-term ESL study abroad experiences, which motivate individuals to go abroad and undertake ESL study while there (research issues 1 and 2 respectively). This chapter begins with the motivations that influenced this sample to leave Japan, answering research issue 1, and ends with the motivations that influenced participants to study ESL while abroad, answering research issue 2.

In the process of reporting analysis themes conventional rhetorical descriptors to describe prevalence, such as the majority of participants, many participants, and a number of participants, have been used (Braun and Clarke 2006); in addition this a small number of participants has also been used as well to show divergence of findings or findings that were key, but only involved a few participants. In some cases numerical quantifiers have been utilised as well (Braun and Clarke 2006).

Before moving on to address these issues it is important to highlight that while the two research issues are presented separately to answer what motivates Japanese adults to go

abroad and then what motivates Japanese adults to study English while abroad, this research does not imply that the motivation to go abroad and study English is sequential because while individuals may be primarily motivated to go abroad because of motivations to study English abroad, individuals may also be motivated by to go abroad simultaneously by motivations to study English abroad and a desire to fulfil other needs, or they may be motivated to go abroad to fulfil other needs, after which they subsequently choose to study English while abroad.

5.3   Research Issue 1

Research Issue 1: What motivates individuals in this market segment to leave their home country?

The following introduces the extrinsic and socio-psychological motivations within this sample. Discussed here is the extrinsic motivation of obligation (Mannell and Kleiber 1997), as well as the socio-psychological motivations that influence the individual to leave Japan. These are knowledge and learning[20]; catharsis; novelty, variety, and change; anomie and escape; personal growth; self-discovery and change; affiliation, relatedness, and social interaction; now or never motivation; and deep-seated motivation. These findings are introduced in a rough order of how common and relevant they are.

5.4   Knowledge, Learning, Educational and Cultural Motivations [21]

Knowledge and learning were influential underlying needs in this study, motivating nineteen participants, or just under four-fifths of the sample, to travel abroad. The prevalence of this motivation echoes findings indicating that learning and enlightenment (Yamamoto and Gill 1999) and knowledge (Cha et. al. 1995) are important travel motivations for Japanese outbound pleasure travellers.

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[20] This motivation encompasses the individual's desire to learn English while abroad and their desire to travel abroad to learn English.

[21] Knowledge/learning/Educational and Cultural Motivations will be referred to as knowledge and learning in this section.

5.4.1   English Language and Higher Education Focus

Sixteen participants were influenced by English language focused[22] and higher education focused learning and knowledge motivations, making this motivation more prevalent than a desire to develop knowledge and understanding of people, culture, and the world. Of these thirteen participants were motivated to travel abroad by a desire for English language learning, indicating that this was the most common knowledge and learning motivation variants.

'My main purpose is studying English. I wanted to be an English teacher. [I'm] not quite sure [now]. I'd like to apply for a big company too. I want to get a job that uses English like a teacher or translator' (J10, M23)

'I want to get a job using English. I didn't have opportunity to study English in my university. I wanted to study English, but my major is politics, so I can't; so I wanted to study [English] abroad' (J7, F20)

'I want to be a flight attendant. I need to speak English. It's not enough for me to speak English in Japan. No opportunity to speak English. I don't have enough time to study English in Japan, only 1 hour in a day' (J12, F19)

'In my case I work at a trading company, so I have to use English, but I cannot speak and I cannot listen; so I thought I have to study English in Australia, in New Zealand' (J4, F29)

'I will work next year. My company is a manufacturer — [a] car parts maker. My company wants global people. I need to study English; I need English, but I wasn't good at speaking and listening to English. And I wanted to study English, but in Japan I didn't have motivation — I don't like studying English. I didn't think that my company would want global [people] when I was a first, second, third year. It [English] wasn't important' (J24)

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[22] Other findings related to the motivations for studying English abroad are found in the section on Research Issue 2.

Just over half of this sample was influenced to leave Japan by a desire or *'need'* to study and improve their English, echoing findings in the literature that a desire to learn or improve one's foreign language ability motivates students to study abroad (Kisantas 2004; Weirs-Jenssen 2003) and is a study abroad expectation of Japanese university students (Asaoka and Yano 2009). This motivation was found to be commonly based on a desire or need for English study for work and improving one's career prospects[23], echoing Jarvis and Peel's (2008) findings that study abroad is a means to improve one's career prospects and reflecting the notion that English is increasingly becoming a basic skill for a nation's workers (English First 2011B).

A further five participants were motivated to travel abroad by higher education goals; these required a command of English in order to be achievable.

'I have to pass IELTS before entering university [in New Zealand], so English is the first place' (J23, M25)

'My goal is to get a flight licence, commercial licence [in New Zealand]. Every pilot in Japan needs English. All pilots need to speak English very well, because all radio communications are in English — even in Japan' (J8, M27)

'I want to be a master's student. My purpose is to study about my major in English. Somebody who can't speak English can't be a master's student [in Japan]' (J13, F20)

'I have an aim and I want to be a nurse; I want to be a nurse in New Zealand. [I need] 7 point in IELTS [across] all bands. Now I'm interested in the New Zealand [terminal care] system, so after that I want to go to university, if possible, and study more terminal care' (J18, F27).

It was evident that for these participants English was the first step towards greater goals in education. For most of this group this higher education goal was to be achieved abroad. Once

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[23] This will be discussed in more detail later in the context of instrumental and extrinsic motivation for studying English.

again this motivation suggested improvement to career prospects, echoing findings that study abroad is a means for improving one's career prospects (Jarvis and Peel 2008) and the notion that English is becoming a basic skill for a workers around the world (English First 2011B).

5.4.2   People, Culture, and World Focus

Seven participants were motivated to develop knowledge and understanding of people, culture, and the world. Participants desired to develop knowledge and understanding of people, culture, and the world abroad because they perceived firsthand experiences abroad to provide better insight.

'I want to meet people from different countries. I want to know different countries' (J7, F20)

'I want to talk to foreign people. I want to learn about people, not from TV, directly' (J3, F28)

'Actually yeah, I'm interested in New Zealand culture or nature or something but my main purpose is studying English' (J10, M23)

'I think I wouldn't like to change my personality, my identity, because I have my ideas, but I can absorb their other different ideas. I can understand other countries thinking and ideas. I can expand my horizons. If I was a teacher in the future I can tell other countries thinking to my students because I think everyone, every country has stereotypes. Of course Japanese have a same tribe, I don't know how to say, same group also, so I think [Japanese] tend to think similar ideas than Europeans or other Asians, or Kiwis, or Australians. Of course [they] have completely different thinking or ideas, so they help me to expand' (J10, M23)

'After I became a nurse [in Japan] I took care of patients who are terminal and actually I'm really interested in terminal care, so I searched about terminal care and I thought Japanese thinking is a little bit older than other countries because [of] totally different culture, I know. But their thinking is little bit old style and I wanted to know new style' (J18, F27)

Build understanding and knowledge of other people, culture, and the world abroad was important to some participants, including J7 who wanted *'to meet people from different*

countries' and *'know different countries'*, J10 who was *'interested in New Zealand culture'* and wanted to *'understand other countries thinking and ideas'* and *'absorb.... different ideas'* to *'expand'* his *'horizons',* J3 who wanted *'to learn about people'* and *'know the real world'*, and J18 who wanted to learn *'new style'* and *'thinking'* for terminal care from other countries. The finding that participants wanted to travel abroad to develop their understanding of others, culture, and the world echoes findings from in Western (Kistantas 2004; Jarvis and Peel; and Nyaupane et. al. 2011) and Asian export education contexts (Mazzarol and Soutar 2002), suggesting that this motivation is a cross-cultural influence within export education.

In addition, participants suggested that it was better to go abroad to build understanding and knowledge of other people, culture than to do so in Japan.

'[I] wanted to go abroad, to know [the] real world [because] on TV and the internet is not real' (J3, F28)

'Well, I know that I can study English in Japan, but I think it is not enough because you cannot feel the cultures, different cultures so you have to be overseas and you have to feel it, otherwise you don't understand the differences' (J2, F22)

It was suggested that there were barriers to developing knowledge of other people, culture, and the world in Japan. J2 believed that *'you cannot feel the cultures'* in Japan, suggesting that *'you have to be overseas'* and *'feel it'* to *'understand the differences'*, while J3 suggested that it was better to go abroad and know the *'real world'* and learn about others *'directly'* because what was *'on TV and the internet is not real'*. The lack of insight on other people, culture, and the world that could be gained in Japan pushed participants with this desire to go abroad while the insight that these participants perceived they could gain from being abroad simultaneously attracted these participants, pulling them overseas.

5.5 Catharsis

Catharsis is a need to eliminate emotional tensions and anxieties, which is fulfilled by escaping daily life and the home environment and recharging oneself (Iso-ahola 1980). In this study catharsis motivated ten participants to leave Japan.

5.5.1 The Affected and Negative Work and Academic Situations

Participants who were influenced by catharsis were predominantly full-time workers. In total seven out of eight full-time workers were motivated by this, compared to three out of fourteen university cohort participants. This indicated that catharsis was an important motivation for the former group rather than the latter.

Figure 7 Participants Influenced by an Underlying Need for Catharsis

	University Cohort	*Full-time Workers*	*Twenty-something Worker Group*
Participants motivated by an underlying need for catharsis	J7, J12, J13	J4, J5, J6, J8, J11, J18, J22	J4, J5, J8, J11, J18, J22

This need for catharsis was found to stem from the negative impacts of work and academic situations on participants' lives, ones which created emotional tensions and anxieties and eventually led to participants escaping their home environment and daily lives to recharge themselves.

'Go to school and come back home, part-time job and go to bed. Every day I get up at half past five and take train for two hours and come home at 10 o'clock. It's so hard!' (J12, F19, Sophomore)

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'I wanna feel relaxed because I was so busy; because it is very busy. But every day, every weekday from 9a.m. till 9p.m. are my working hours. A little bit I was tired actually' (J4, F29, Full-time Worker)

'My job was very stressful; because I worked as a customer engineer I was always complained to, so I was told complaints a lot, every day, every day....to me!' (J8, M27, Full-time Worker)

'I worked in Television Company. It was very busy and I thought I need to take a rest. I couldn't refresh' (J11, M26, Full-time Worker)

'Everyone has of course a lot of work and it's so busy, and sometimes I have to give up my day off and go to hospital' (J18, F27, Full-time Worker)

'I didn't enjoy my life at that time because nurse is hard job, yeah, and for me it was too much pressure. Everyone has, of course, a lot of work and so it's busy; and sometimes I have to give up my day off and go to hospital. It was like; am I a robot? Sometimes I thought that. Yeah, what can I say? I felt a little bit strange. [The] same things all the time — like just from home to hospital and go and return. Yeah, just repeated. I think if I didn't give up I might suffer from some mental diseases or mental illnesses' (J18, F27, Full-time Worker)

Emotional tensions and anxieties stemmed from Japanese culture and work life; this is an environment where groups are of prime importance, dependency and obligation very important, and hard work, long hours, deep loyalty to co-workers and company deeply embedded (Dace 1995; Ishii-Kuntz 1989; Ahmed and Krohn 1992; Cha et. al. 1995; Nozawa 1992; Matusmoto et. al. 1996; Sugiyama-Lebra 1976). These *'busy', 'hard',* and *'stressful'* negative work and academic situations impacted participants negatively, making affected individuals feel '*a bit tired', 'confused', 'not fine'* , *'not relaxed'* , unable to *'refresh'* or *enjoy life'*, and feeling that it is *'so hard'* and may lead to *'mental diseases or mental illnesses'* if the situation continued. Such feelings led affected participants to recognise travel as a means to escape interpersonal world stresses (Mannell and Kleiber 1997) and recharge themselves (Iso-Ahola 1980).

'busy' (J11, J13)	*'so busy'* (J4, J22)	*'very busy'* (J4, J6, J11)	*'too busy'* (J4)
'hard' (J13)	*'so hard'* (J12)	*'stressful'*(J7, J22)	*'very stressful'* (J8)
too much pressure' (J18)	*'tough'* (J18)	*'strict'* (J5)	*'tired'* (J5, J12)
'confused' (J5)	*stress'* (J8)	*'not fine'* (J4)	*'not relaxed'* (J13)
'I couldn't refresh' (J11)	*'I couldn't escape'* (J6)	*'I didn't enjoy my life'* (J18)	*'disliked'* their busy life (J6)
'I had stress' (J6)	*'Am I a robot?'* (J18)	*'I need to take a rest'* (J11)	*'rest my life'* (J4)
'I wanna feel relaxed' (J4)	*'I just felt that I wanted to go somewhere to work and to live'* (J5)		

5.6 Novelty, Variety, and Change

Novelty is a key motivation within tourism (Dann 1977, 1981; Crompton 1979; Leiper 1984). People tend to seek a temporary change of environment because they become boring and routine to the individual residing there (Crompton 1979). In this research novelty, variety, and change was recognised as a key motivation influencing a total of seven participants.

5.6.1 Boredom and Monotony

Boredom and monotony were two important factors which influenced a number of participants to leave Japan, reflecting the notion in tourism that travel gives individuals the chance to escape a mundane environment or routine (Crompton 1979; Lee and Crompton 1992).

'Sometimes the job is interesting...ah, usually boring.... I didn't need to thinking, just ah, constant, same, same, same, boring' (J3, F28, Full-time worker)

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'Go to school and come back home, part-time job and go to bed....Boring' (J12, F19 Sophomore)

'Class is sometimes very boring because teacher is always talking.... Boring. Part time job is very boring, but I need to work.... I think I always spend [time] with the same friends. Always' (J21, F19, Sophomore)

'It's very boring. Every day I take the same class and every day I meet the same people and then I play something, playing darts, playing pool game. When I entered university it was very good, very bright for me, but I spent one year; it's a cyclic year; cycling week. It's same days, same weeks, and same things; I do the same things whole week. I think I wanna change something. Just change is go to New Zealand' (J17, M19, Sophomore)

In the full-time worker group such feelings were associated with the feeling that work was *'constant'*, the *'same'*, and *'boring'* and did not challenge one mentally, echoing evidence from Kobayashi's (2007) study suggesting that monotony influenced Japanese women studying English abroad in Canada. In the university cohort feelings of boredom and monotony were associated with university life in general; routines were *'cyclic'* and the *'same'*, students encountered the *'same'* people, and class, part-time work, and life was generally-speaking felt as being *'boring'*.

For two sophomores feelings of boredom were also attributed to a failure to get into specific course in which they were interested and their subsequent enrolment in a course of study which they now viewed unfavourably.

'After I entered the university every day I feel bored. My major is politics and actually I wanted to study culture or something, but I failed.... My major, politics, is so boring' (J7, F20, Sophomore)

'Go to university, go to part-time job; everything same' (J7, F20, Sophomore)

'I'm not interested in Economics....' I go to school and come back home, part-time job and go to bed. Every day I get up at half past five and take train for two hours and come home at 10 o'clock. It's so hard!' (J12, F19, Sophomore)

Because J7 was not originally interested in politics and found the subject to be *'boring'* she felt *'bored'* every day. This situation was compounded by a life outside university which was *'not exciting'* and monotonous *'because I always do the same thing everyday'*. J12 also felt something similar; studying economics, something which she was *'not interested'* in, and stuck in a routine revolving around *'school'*, *'home'*, *'part-time job'*, and *'bed'* with the feeling every day was *'the same'*.

In this sample two fourth year university students were present; for these participants going abroad was seen as a way to fill time and relieve boredom at the end of university before graduating and entering the workforce.

'Well I already had all the credits, so I don't have to go to classes; so that is why' (J2, F22, Fourth Year)

'I just gotta time and I don't know what to do so that's why' (J2, F22, Fourth Year)

'In Japan I had nothing to do. I just worked; I had nothing to do' (J24, M22, Fourth Year)

In July, August, September, I had nothing to do; it's boring, boring' (J24, M22, Fourth Year)

It is evident that both participants used travel abroad in part to kill time. For these participants having free time and nothing to do after the completion of classes and course requirements led to feelings of boredom. Travel was a means to fill this boring time, which offered stimulation, a change, and a break before graduation and full-time employment. This was something that participant J24, whose *'hobby'* was *'travel abroad'*, and J2 who *'wanted to*

see' her *'host family'* embraced and was given impetus by participants' belief that it was *'the only chance'* (J24) or *'last chance'* (J2) to do this before entering the working world[24].

5.6.2   The University Cohort and Novelty, Variety, and Change

With six participants from the university cohort influenced by novelty, variety, and change versus one full-time worker, it was evident that novelty, variety, and change motivation was a great influence in the university cohort. The finding that university students wanted to escape their lives for something different abroad reflects earlier findings in export education from Jarvis and Peel (2008) and Weirs-Jenssen (2003), and in a Japanese study abroad context, Asaoka and Yano's (2009) findings that a change was one of the expectations that Japanese university students had about studying abroad. In the full-time worker groups the lack of influence of novelty, variety, and change appears to be due to the prevalence of other motivational influences, particularly a need for catharsis arising from the stressful and busy work lives of twenty-something workers.

Figure 9 Participants Influenced by an Underlying Need for Novelty, Variety, and Change

	University Cohort	Full-Time Worker Group
Participants influenced by Novelty, Variety, and Change	J2, J7, J12, J15, J17, J24	J3

It can be suggested that because the twenty something workers in this sample were predominantly busy and stressed from working that they did not have feelings of boredom and monotony as much as students in the university cohort. While the literature suggests that individuals can be motivated to travel by bundles of motivations participants can be motivated by multiple motivations (Moutinho 1987; Crompton 1979) it appeared that participants were either bored and in search of novelty, variety, and change or overworked and stressed and searching for catharsis.

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[24] See now-or-never motivation.

5.7   Anomie and Escape

Anomie in tourism to describes the situation in which individuals find they are affected by a meaningless society; this in one in which monotony, loneliness, isolation, and unfulfilled affection and communication needs give them the need to escape Dann (1977). In this study a number of participants were influenced by anomie and escape needs, which led them to escape their work and home life and travel abroad, sometimes habitually, to alleviate these tensions and restore homeostasis (Dann 1977; Crompton 1979).

5.7.1   Anomie from Japanese Culture

With this motivation a small number of participants did not like certain aspects of Japanese society and culture. This situation led to anomie in the individuals, stimulating a desire to escape Japan. It was evident that a number of these aspects were collectivist in nature. This suggested that these participants were more idiocentic Japanese.

'[In Japan] I feel I need to be polite all the time. Well, sometimes okay, but sometimes it is really stressful.... Japanese is kind of polite and about being gentle and polite and that sort of things and sometimes it is stressful' (J2, F22)

'Well, when I speak English I think I'm more open-minded. We are free to say what you feel, but in Japan, well, it is not good. Sometimes it is easier for me to speak English.... I always think that I wanna speak English in Japan; yeah, I really wanna speak English (J2, F22)

'Well, I think it's a good culture [Japanese culture]; sometimes it's very good, but sometimes not. For example when you are in Japan then one of your friends is being grumpy you can't ask her, ask why are you are being so grumpy or not, because I have to know' (J2, F22)

'I didn't feel much, not comfortable. At first after graduate school I was working in Guam and then when I went back to Japan I started working in Tokyo; it was a completely different style. I felt very confused and tired. You know Japan is very strict, so I wanted to go; I wanted to go somewhere to work and to live' (J5, F27)

It was identified that indirect communication, empathy and receptivity (Weber and Hsee 2000), the suppression of one' feelings and views through self restraint (Dace 1995; Sugiyama-Lebra 1976), narrow mindedness/intolerance, polite culture, a strict Japanese culture/society, and the Japanese work life/environment were not favoured by these participants. This made their lives *'stressful', 'strict',* and *'sometimes'* hard, tiring and confusing, and not comfortable, which contributed to feelings of anomie and stimulating a desire to escape. As a number of these unappealing aspects were reflections collectivist culture of Japan, such as self restraint and empathy (Weber and Hsee 2000; Sugiyama-Lebra 1976) and a strict working environment (Cha et. al. 1995), it suggested that the affected individuals were more idiocentric Japanese with a lower tendency for affiliation and a higher need for uniqueness than allocentric individuals (Triandis 2001); this reflected the notion that Japanese culture is heterogeneous and not consistent and constant across individuals (Matusmoto et. al. 1996), fluid (Triandis 1999), and less collectivist than in the past (Dace 1995; Matusmoto and Takeuchi 1996).

5.7.2   The Pull of Abroad

In contrast to their views on Japan these two possibly idiocentric Japanese, had positive views and perceptions about being abroad. These were linked to first-hand experience living abroad[25] and attracted (pulled) them to travel/study abroad.

'I just feel more free, that is why I love to be here [New Zealand]' (J2, F22)

'Western culture makes me feel more happy' (J2, F22)

'I want to work overseas in the future, just because I love to be overseas; I love the different cultures, so that is why' (J2, F22)

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[25] J2 had been an exchange student in New Zealand in high school and J5 had lived and worked in Guam for a number of years.

'After returning to Japan in 2006 I was working to save money to come back here [New Zealand]. After a few months [in Japan] I was getting the feeling that I missed New Zealand life, the slow life' (J5, F27)

It was evident that certain facets of life abroad struck a chord with these individuals contributing to positive views of abroad and attracting them. For J2 a feeling of being *'more free'* made her love being in New Zealand and contributed to positive attitudes to being abroad. This feeling stood in stark contrast to the feelings of restriction which she implied about life in Japan, and associated with cultural elements such as polite culture, empathy and receptivity, and the suppression of one's feelings and views. It was evident that J2 had had positive attitudes about being abroad; she *'loves'* being in New Zealand, *'love[s] to be overseas'*, and has a desire to *'work overseas'* where '*Western culture'* makes her *'feel more happy'*. While participant J5, who had previously worked in Guam in a '*less strict', 'slow life'* environment, was attracted to a slow lifestyle outside Japan and '*wanted to go somewhere to work [and] to live'* because she did not like its strictness. J5, who had also previously spent time in New Zealand, had positive attitudes towards being abroad, *'missed New Zealand life, the slow life'*, which she valued. Her motivations to leave Japan were strong enough that she began to save money to come back to New Zealand after returning to Japan in 2006.

5.7.3   A Habitual Means to Alleviate Stress

In addition to this, evidence indicated that J5 was motivated to travel abroad because it was a habitual means for this anomie affected participant to escape stresses and restore homeostasis.

If I have stress I get a holiday and then go to travel somewhere; then I was refreshed and then I go back to work. This is my lifestyle in Japan' (J5, F27)

With this *'travel'* was utilised to restore homeostasis when J5 gets '*stress*' in Japan, once *'refreshed'* the participant then goes *'back to work'*. This behaviour is J5's *'lifestyle in Japan'*; one which is repeated when she feels the need. The finding that an individual may use travel repeatedly and habitually to *'refresh'* reflects Gnoth's (1997) notion that individuals are likely to remember all or part of a behaviour that successfully satisfies a drive and then re-use these strategies again in the future, leading to possible habit formation.

5.8   Personal Growth, Self-discovery, and Change

Personal growth, self-discovery and change influenced a number of participants[26] in their decision to go abroad, suggesting that such motivations were important. The desire for change and growth to oneself was predominantly evident with younger participants in the university cohort, but also occurred to a very limited extent with participants in the twenty-something worker group, reflecting the notion that while personal growth and development can influence all kinds of travellers, it is more important to those with a lower level of travel experience (Pearce 2005).

5.8.1   Two Types of Participants

This motivation affected two types of participants: those who were influenced by personal growth, self-discovery, and change and were aware of this need prior to departure and hoped it would occur, and those who experienced self-reflection, self-discovery, and change while abroad, but were unaware of this need prior to travelling.

For the first type of participant it was evident that they were aware of this need in Japan and that this motivation played a role in influencing the participant to go abroad.

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[26] For two this appeared to have been realised upon reflection during the interview (J15, J17) and with one individual there were indications that this motivation was sub-conscious (J10).

'In Japan I thought I needed to be more mature; I thought this. And that I should do things myself [and] *I thought I have to leave; be on my own'* (J21, F19, Sophomore)

This type of participant had forethought on the issue of change while in Japan and expected or hoped that growth or change would occur while abroad. The finding that personal reflection could occur in the home environment prior to departure suggests overseas is the scene for change and growth as opposed to the catalyst for the process of self reflection and evaluation to occur and the scene for change; this contradicts Crompton's (1979) assertion that individuals need to be away from home for evaluation and insights into themselves to occur.

'Before I came to here I think I will meet a lot of countries friend and then I will go to Auckland and after that watch the Rugby World Cup final. [I] just thought that, but my mind changed. [This time abroad is] a good chance to change my mind and a good chance to get something' (J17, M19, Sophomore)

There are a number of possible explanations for the finding that some experience change while abroad, but are not aware of this need prior to leaving presents. One is that it simply such individuals were not consciously seeking change or consciously influenced by this motivation to go abroad, thus reflecting Crompton's (1979) notion that one must travel abroad to get self-reflection. It is also conceivable that it this motivation for change was a hidden or unconscious motivation that was unknown to the individual prior to travelling (Iso-Ahola 1980; Mannell and Kleiber 1997; Moutinho 1987). Another possibility was that this need and motivation was not understood prior to leaving Japan (Lundberg 1971).

5.8.2   The Types of Change

A number of participants experienced or hoped for changes to their personality or character while abroad; these changes were ones that were positive.

'If I worried about myself in Japan I told my friends, my family, my sister what happened, but in here spoke a lot of people because I can understand myself very well and I can think myself' (J21, F19, Sophomore)

'Before I came here I always happen to be angry. I tend to get angry, but in here a lot of culture and difference to Japanese culture; I can allow a lot of things, so it is okay' (J21, F19, Sophomore)

'As I said, I didn't go out as much and if I got invitation to go somewhere from my friends I didn't go there; I couldn't be bothered to go out [in Japan], but here I'm trying to go to the kind of things like a party or a night club. Now I think I have lost a lot of things because of my mendokusai [I can't be bothered attitude], a lot of chances to do something. It's mottainai yarou [a waste, isn't it]? I don't regret about the past but now I think that I will try, I should try things, a lot of things' (J15, F20)

Affected participants wanted to construct a better or more ideal self; this could be one which is a more courageous, mature, and independent like Moaz (2007) suggests (J21) or an allocentric self that is more group-oriented and has a greater concern for affiliation like Triandis (2001) suggests (J15). The finding that participants experienced and/or were motivated by expectation of change abroad echoes Asaoka and Yano's (2009) finding that Japanese university students expect self-discovery to occur from study abroad experiences and comments in Kobayahsi's (2007) study suggesting a desire to change personality and values motivated travel.

As well as this seven participants discussed change within the context of new mentalities/ways of thinking and new ideas. These changes were also for the positive.

'I always think negatively. I wanted to change my way of thinking. I thought I have to think, ah something positively. Because I live in my family in Japan and I always rely on my family, so I thought I have to leave, on my own [to change]' (J7, F20, Sophomore)

'I'm 26, but I think it is young yet. And I have time now, so I want to meet a lot of people to make me more big. I want to grow myself until 30 years old' (J11, M26, Full-time Worker)

It was suggested that study abroad was perceived to be a *'a good chance to my change mind'*, also linked to this was the suggestion that exposing oneself to the world and new people and ideas played a role in growing and develop oneself as a person; this reflected the notion that the travel experience gives individuals the chance to develop new perspectives and new belief systems (Lundberg 1971) and explore and evaluate the self (Dann 1981).

The third type of change found in this study related to career. Career change motivated a number of participants who had worked previously to travel/study abroad with the goal that studying abroad would help them to fulfil their career aspirations.

'I don't like the job..... My job was very stressful because I worked as a customer engineer, so I was always complain to; I was told complaints a lot, every day, every day, to me' (J8, M27)

'My goal is to get a flight licence, commercial licence' (J8, M27)

'Um, I didn't enjoy my life at that time because nurse is hard job, yeah, and for me it was too much pressure.... Everyone has of course a lot of work and so it's busy and sometimes I have to give up my day off and go to hospital....It was like; am I a robot? Sometimes I thought that. Yeah, what can I say? I felt a little bit strange. Same things all the time like just from home to hospital and go and return. Yeah, just repeated.... I think if I didn't give up I might suffer from some mental diseases or mental illnesses' (J18, F27)

'I was a nurse in Japan and I want to be a nurse in New Zealand' (J18, F27)

It was evident that career change can stem from a work situation which impacts participants negatively, causing emotional stress and dissatisfaction with life. This situation motivated affected participants to seek a solution; this was to quit their job, escape their situation, and work towards a new career goal abroad in something they aspired to do, suggesting that these

participants were escaping personal world problems (1982) and aspiring to fulfil self actualisation needs (Maslow 1943).

5.9   Affiliation/Relatedness/Social Interaction

Social interaction, including strengthening friendships and meeting new people, is an important part of leisure (London et. al. 1977; Ritchie 1975; Kelly 1976; Neulinger and Raps 1972), which is also an important travel motivation (Crompton 1979; Dunn, Ross, and Iso-Ahola 1991). Meeting new people or reconnecting with people was a motivational influence for seven participants, just under a third of the sample.

5.9.1   Meeting New People

A number of participants were influenced to travel abroad in part by an underlying motivation to meet new people and establish new friendships abroad.

'Before I came here I thought I will meet a lot of countries friends. In Japan is hardly make international friend, it is hard to make or meet them'. (J17, M19)

'I can improve English, I hope, and make friends other countries' (J18, F19)

It was suggested that for some Japanese it was difficult to make friends with people from other countries within normal life in Japan. For such individuals travel abroad provided a means to fulfil a need for social interaction and affiliation (Crompton 1979; Dunn et. al. 1991; Jung 1978), reflecting Crompton's (1979) findings that travel gives individuals the chance to meet new people outside of their normal reference groups and build friendships with them, and echoing findings in export education research indicating that students are motivated to travel abroad by a desire to meet people, interact with them, and develop friendships (Kistantas 2004; Jarvis and Peel 2008; Asoako and Yano 2009; and Nyaupane et. al. 2011).

5.9.2 Building Existing Relationships

Travel/study abroad was also a means to reconnect and strengthen already existing relationships with friends or host families, which simultaneously pushed participants to go overseas and pulled them to the country where the people they desired to connect with resided.

'I just wanted to meet my old friends' (J14, F20)

'Well, I just came here to visit my host family; I just love my host family. When you go on holiday and you were in overseas you probably think that you might, you know, go and visit your family, it is the same thing to me. I just really wanted to see my host family.' (J2, F22)

J2 clearly indicated that she was motivated by a strong underlying need to leave Japan to reconnect with others. In J2's case, the participant was intent on reconnecting with the host family she had established a relationship with in New Zealand some *'five years ago'* on an exchange programme to New Zealand during high school. These were people that J2 has a *'love'* for and considered '*my family'*. J2 stated that since her initial visit five years ago she J2 had visited her host family in New Zealand twice (once '*two years ago'* and the *'third time'* at the time of interview) giving indications that host family relationships can develop into strong connections between student and host family, lead to long-term affiliation (Jung 1978), and stimulate VFR travel and repeat visitation which provide opportunities to build and enrich these relationships (Crompton 1979).

5.10 Now-or-Never Motivation

Now-or-never motivation has been defined in this research as an internal motivation to act on an opportunity while there is the freedom and opportunity to do so because such an

opportunity may not arise again for a considerable period of time or occur again in the future; it was found to have influenced eleven participants.

5.10.1 University-Related Impetus

In the university cohort there was a perception that '*second year*' was better for study abroad which motivated students, giving them impetus to travel in sophomore year. This impetus was attributed to the perceived impacts to job hunting and study from travelling later in university.

The first factor which encouraged travel/study abroad during sophomore year was student perceptions that later travel would negatively impact the process of job hunting.

'I can come here next year [third year], but maybe I will lose the opportunity to get a job'. (J12, F19)

'Because when I am a third grade [year] I have to get a job – go job hunting. [It's very important for me because as you know I want to be a pilot in the future, so if I go and study abroad in third grade [year] it may affect my life [because] the hiring rate is decreasing' (J8, M20)

'Third year I have to get a job in Japan. Maybe *I will be busy, so I choose now'* (J21,)

'I can't come here next year because I want to get job next year, so this year [sophomore year] is best' (J12, F19)

It was suggested that '*third year*' was not optimal for travel/study abroad as this time was for job hunting in Japan and doing so would '*affect*' one's '*life*' possibly meaning that one would '*lose*' the '*opportunity to get a job'* in Japan's tough job market. In a similar vein fourth year was perceived not to be optimal because *'if someone needs to get a job in their fourth year'* it would '*not*' be '*good*' to travel abroad; consequently sophomore year was best. The finding

that students perceived travel in third and fourth year as negatively impacting the job hunting process, reflects literature suggestions that job hunting conflicts with the best time for undergraduates to study abroad (AFP 2010) and disadvantages one if done in senior year (Hayes 1997).

The second factor which gave impetus to travel in sophomore year was the perception that later travel would have negative impacts on the students' studies.

'I have to get more credits in my university so if I go to study abroad the second year is best....I think it is difficult to go abroad at different times' (J7, F20, Sophomore)

'In my major freshman and sophomore are more about foundation of my major, third and fourth I start to learn about the details of my major' (J13, F20, Sophomore)

'If I want to go abroad in fourth year maybe I can do it but.... maybe I will have to go to university for another year' (J21, F19, Sophomore)

Travel abroad was perceived to be better in *'freshman and sophomore'* years because it was the *'foundation'* of one's *'major',* as opposed to *'third and fourth'* year when one would *'start to learn about the details'* of one's major, *'be busy'*, and need to *'get more credits'*. This belief that second year was better was given impetus by a perception that later travel, such as fourth year, could result in the students failing to complete their undergraduate studies in the normal period of time and having to *'go to university for another year'* – a factor which Asaoka and Yano's (2009) study found discouraged Japanese students from undertaking study abroad. Together these reasons gave university students impetus and reasonable justification to travel during sophomore year, rather than later (Dann 1981).

It emerged that life stage was a factor stimulating now-or-never motivation in the university cohort. For these participants there were suggestions that being a student at university was what provided them with the freedom to travel/study abroad.

'I just wanted to see my host family because I'm start to work next year an' I'm not gonna have time to come back here, so that's why' (J2, F22, Fourth Year Student)

'Because at that time before I came here I really wanted to come here and if I miss this chance this is maybe 3 years later or 4 years later like you told me. And if I, if I, if I found a job and then if I work, maybe, for me maybe, I will continue this job for a long time. I couldn't stop it maybe'. (J16, F22, Sophomore).

'I thought I wouldn't have a chance after I graduate; so, in university was my last chance [because] I have to get my job' (J15, F20, Sophomore)

'If I will work from next year I won't have a time, free time. No free time, yeah. It just only time, it just only free time. I've finished job hunting on this may. Free time is only now —. I think so. This is the only chance. Yes' (J24, M22, Fourth Year Student)

With statements such as '*university was my last chance*' and '*free time is only now.... this is the only chance*' to travel/study abroad and student perceptions that they would be too busy and occupied once in the working world to stop and travel abroad it was suggested that impetus for travel/study abroad was partly based on being at university with freedom, opportunity, and time to travel/study abroad. As there are a number of twenty-something workers studying abroad in this study it is evident that reality contradicts this belief and it is a fallacy, but in the minds of these individuals this belief is reasonable motivation for travel (Dann 1981) which provides impetus and justification for these university students to travel before graduating and entering the workforce.

5.10.2 Age as Impetus

A number of participants in their late twenties were given impetus to travel/study abroad now rather than later by age, reflecting findings made by Kobayashi (2007) on Japanese women undertaking English study in Canada. This motivation was specifically linked to age restrictions and age discrimination that workers in their late twenties would face in the hiring practices of companies in Japan if travel was undertaken later.

'I'm 29 years now and I wanna change my job before 30, because it's difficult to find new job after 30 in Japan.... Before 30 it is very important for me because after 30 years old it is difficult to find new job because new company's people worry about if I will get married and quit early. It's [a] very serious problem' (J4, F29).'

'There is a limit of age when I get a job in Japan about almost all airline companies has a limit of age, about 35, yes.' (J8, M27)

Travelling now was a safe option as it allowed the individual go abroad and return to Japan to re-enter the Japanese workforce without the fear of age discrimination when they *'change'* jobs. Indeed, cut-off ages were evident for both men and women in recruitment. J8, a Japanese male in New Zealand learning to be a commercial pilot, indicated that in the Japanese airline industry he would face a cut-off age of '*about 35'* as a pilot, while J4, a female participant, highlighted that women faced discrimination at the lower age of 30. J4 indicated that this discrimination for women '*after 30'* in Japan was based on a perception that companies would '*worry'* that she would *'get married and quit early'* — which would let down the group and impact *amae, giri-ninjo* and group harmony (Oysermann et. al. 2002; Dace 1995). This discrimination was a *'serious problem'* that workers in their late twenties wishing or contemplating going abroad had to consider, one which gave workers in their late twenties thinking of going abroad impetus, reasonable motivation (Dann 1981), and justification to travel abroad and return to Japan before they reached those cut off ages.

5.10.3 Relationship Status as Impetus

Comments suggest that a single relationship status gave twenty-something workers freedom and impetus to undertake travel/study abroad.

'Because now I 28, if I get married it's hard to travel abroad, maybe. Now I'm single, I want to travel now' (J3, F28)

J3 stated '*Now I'm single. I want to travel now'* and suggested '*if I get married it's hard to travel abroad'*, similarly J8 indicated that he would *'never try'* to go abroad to pursue his dream of becoming a pilot if he were not for him being single. Such comments suggest that for twenty-something workers their being single gives them the freedom and impetus to undertake travel/study abroad. Because they are free from family and relationship commitments like marriage, which contribute to making it *'hard to travel abroad'*, single twenty-something workers have can focus on their own needs and *'travel now'* without the need to be concerned with relationships, considerations, and obligations to family or partners (Sugiyama-Lebra 1976; Ahmed and Krohn 1992; Dace 1995).

5.11 Obligation and the Influence of Deep-Seated Motivation

As previously stated, motivation is deemed extrinsic when the rewards to the activity are primarily external (Neulinger 1974), or when an individual's behaviour is motivated by something extrinsic to the person (Sansone and Harackiewicz 2000). In this study a number of university students were extrinsically motivated to go abroad by the extrinsic motivation of obligation.

In total this influenced 5 individuals; these were all sophomores on mandatory study abroad programmes who were motivated to travel/study abroad by the extrinsic motivation of obligation which was associated with their study abroad programme.

'Everybody must go abroad to study English or second language, but some of people couldn't go; the reason is money or some trouble'. (J17)

As J17 indicated *'everybody'* in his department was required to go abroad on a mandatory study abroad programme, barring *'money'* issues or *'trouble'*. By compelling students in departments with mandatory study abroad programmes to travel abroad, universities

impinged on students' self determination to travel abroad at their own volition, motivating them to travel abroad by obligation, a form of extrinsic motivation (Mannell and Kleiber 1997, p. 128).

For three of these extrinsically motivated sophomores on mandatory study abroad programmes the underlying motivation to travel abroad was classified as deep-seated motivation, an internal socio-psychological motivation for travel, which formed a considerable period of time before departure and remains latent and unfulfilled for years or decades before being satisfied. This underlying motivation drove these three participants to seek out universities and university departments with study abroad opportunities to fulfil their goal of travelling/studying abroad.

'I had known that there was a compulsory programme for my department before I entered the university; actually this programme was the reason I chose my department' (J15)

Comments indicated that all three were aware that of study abroad opportunities at the university level and desired to enter a university or department with one to go/study abroad. J15 stated the *'compulsory programme' 'was the reason'* for her to enter her university department, indicating the importance of the programme to her. Similarly J20 indicated that her top choices for universities were all institutions that had study abroad programmes, while J14 knew prior to entering her department that it had a study abroad programme, and *'kind of'* applied to it because of this. Interestingly, J14 ruled out a more prestigious Japanese university with a much *'longer'* study abroad programme on the basis that it was '*really hard to enter'* that particular department. Such comments indicate that study abroad programmes were attractive to individuals with deep-seated motivation to study abroad; indeed, all three affected participants' suggested universities and university departments with study abroad offerings as desirable places to be, and worked towards securing places in department that had such offerings.

	J14	J15	J20
Formed deep-seated motivation to go abroad/study abroad during adolescence	Yes	Yes	Yes
Applied to universities with study abroad programmes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Desired to enter a university department with a study abroad programme	Yes	Yes	Yes
Knew prior to entering university that the departments they applied for had study abroad programmes	Yes	Yes	Yes

5.11.1 Inspirational Image formation Agents and Seminal Experiences

For a number of participants, including the three aforementioned sophomores, deep-seated motivation to go/study abroad was linked to inspirational image formation agents and seminal experiences during adolescence.

'For a long time, since I was in high school, I really wanted to go to England. I guess just a stupid reason, I really love Harry Potter; so I'm just kind of curious to go there' (J14)

'I read about Tekapo, its famous starlight. And I read a book. I thought I might watch the Aurora, south part, if possible' (J3)

'When I was a high school student I decided to go abroad because when I was a high school student I went to Vienna, Austria, but it was a short time. I played clarinet and I had a music concert there. Then I saw a lot of statues and church; it was very beautiful, I thought. And because of this I wanted to see a lot of culture and statues abroad' (J21)

'When I was a high school student I already decided to go abroad in the future. Basically I liked English and I thought in the future I wanted to use English at work.... When? I started

studying English around junior high school and at that time I meet an ALT [Assistant Language Teacher] who taught English to us from overseas, like USA, 'n' Australia. I met many teachers and I thought their thinking was totally different from us Japanese, and I felt that was quite interesting and I wanted to know more' (J18)

In the case of these participants experiences with people, culture, books, places were inspirational, making them *'curious'* about other places and cultures, stimulating an interest and desire to *'see'* and *'know more'* and experience things firsthand. Exposure to these inspirations instilled in these adolescents a desire to travel abroad in the future. This echoes Laing and Crouch's (2006) finding that inspirational image formation agents from the past, including books, movies, television, pictures, and photographs, can be considerable influence in motivating children to undertake travel in the future and expands on it by finding that seminal and inspirational experiences abroad and in English education were also influential in motivating future travel amongst adolescents.

5.12 Conclusions on Research Issue 1

Research Issue 1: What motivates individuals in this market segment to go abroad?

In summary, a variety of motivations influenced participants in this sample to go abroad, many of which were ones associated with pleasure travel. Many of the motivations found here were evident in earlier export education related studies, but had not been classified within the context of pleasure travel motivation.

Recapping the findings from this section it was revealed that, while obligation influenced participants on mandatory study abroad programmes to go abroad, in some cases deep-seated motivations to go/study abroad was the real driver. This deep-seated motivation influenced participants to seek study abroad programmes to fulfil their desire to go abroad, where it was then masked by the extrinsic motivation of obligation associated with mandatory study programmes.

For a number of participants the desire to go abroad/study abroad was linked to the influence of inspirational information agents and seminal inspirational experiences during adolescence.

Affiliation, relatedness, and social interaction needs was also an underlying motivational influence for travel abroad. With this participants were motivated either by a desire to establish new relationships with people outside of one's normal social groups or to building and strengthen existing relationships with friends and host families connected to the individual who reside abroad.

Also of influence, on a number of participants, was anomie and escape. Of particular interest were the findings that certain aspects of Japanese life and collectivist culture cause feelings of anomie in idiocentric individuals, pushing them to escape, while positive aspects of life abroad pulled affected individuals overseas. Also of interest was the finding that anomie affected participants may habitually use travel abroad as a means to escape stresses in the home environment and restore homeostasis in themselves.

Catharsis was identified as a key motivational influence in this study, which was especially prevalent amongst twenty-something workers. This need was found to a result of negative work and academic situations, which caused stress and dissatisfaction with life, and brought about a desire to escape Japan to get refreshed abroad.

Another key influence was novelty, variety, and change. This motivation was identified as an important underlying motivational influence in the university cohort. Individuals who were affected by this were found to have feelings of boredom and monotony from various aspects of work and university life, which stimulated a desire for novelty, variety, and change through experiences abroad

Knowledge and learning motivations were also key motivations, which influenced the majority of participants. It was found that this motivation was English language and higher education focused or concerned building an understanding of other people, culture, and the world firsthand.

Another motivation, which was found to be a key underlying influence in the university cohort, was a need for personal growth, self-discovery and change. Participants, who were motivated by this, desired positive change to their personality or character, their thinking or views, and in some cases their career.

In addition to this, a now-or-never motivation was also evident. In the case of this motivation it was found that university-related reasons, age, and relationship status gave participants impetus to participate in travel/study abroad when they did.

5.13 Research Issue 2

Research Issue 2: What motivates this segment to study English abroad?

This section of data analysis and findings concerns research issue 2 — the motivations influencing participants to study English abroad. The purpose of this research question was to establish an understanding of some of the motivational differences between Japanese adults who study English abroad and pleasure travellers, given that many motivations associated with pleasure travel were found to be influential in answering research issue 1. A relatively limited number of motivations for studying English aboard were found in this study. These represented the intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation (Neulinger 1974; Deci and Ryan 1991; Ryan and Deci 2000), the expressive-instrumental value dichotomy (Sugiyama-Lebra 1976), and a belief that studying English abroad is better than studying domestically (Coleman 1997). These findings are presented in a general order of commonness and relevance.

It must be acknowledged that there were some cases where there were difficulties in inferring whether behaviour was either primarily intrinsically or extrinsically motivated, or primarily instrumental or expressive. This was due to participants giving conflicting statements suggesting the presence of opposing motivational forces, reflecting the reality that many activities contain both and extrinsic and intrinsic motivations (Iso-Ahola 1980), individuals can be motivated by more than one motivation simultaneously, sub-consciously or consciously (Swarbrooke and Horner 2007; Moutinho 1987; Crompton 1979), the motivational processes is dynamic and very complex (Mannell and Kelieber 1997), motivations can conflict with one another because of their dynamism (Mannell and Kelieber 1997), and motivations can be subjectively defined (Iso-Ahola 1980).

5.14 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

Activities are said to be intrinsically motivated when rewards and benefits from participation come from the activity itself (Neulinger 1974), when individual engage in activities for the

satisfaction that is intrinsic to this behaviour (Ryan and Deci 2000), there are no obvious reward except the activity and they are ends in themselves, not means to and ends (Deci 1975, p. 23). Conversely, extrinsic motivation has been defined as occurring when external rewards are the primary motives for engaging in the activity (Neulinger 1974 in Mannell and Kleiber 1997), or when an individual's behaviour is motivated by something extrinsic to the individual (Sansone and Harackiewicz 2000).

5.15 Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation was found to be the predominant of the two motivations, influencing the majority of participants to study English abroad. This motivation stemmed from the academic and business worlds and included extrinsic motivations such as scores or grades, course credits, mandatory course requirement, jobs or career requirements, employment opportunities, university entrance requirements, and academic study requirements.

This study found that most participants were extrinsically motivated to study English abroad did so because English was perceived to be important for, or integral to, their current or future career, echoing Weirs-Jenssen (2003), Kitsantas (2004), and Jarvis and Peel's (2008) findings that improving one's career prospects motivated individuals to study abroad. One important aspect of this finding was that extrinsic motivations to study English abroad were linked to its value in the job hunting process (obligation and reward).

'A lot of companies request the high score TOEIC applicants' (J10, M23)

'If I can get a good mark [in TOEIC], I can choose the job. When I get a job it is useful'. (J7, F20)

'Build English, yes, because of globalisation I think. Because in order to get a job in Japan, these days, [It's] better having English skills' (J14, F20)

With this, extrinsic motivations to study English abroad were a reflection of the explicit or implicit obligations to have English for the labour market in Japan as well as the rewards that would accrue to them from having those skills. This was a market in which *'high'* TOEIC scores were favoured and *'English skills'* were perceived to be *'useful'* or *'necessary'* for *'get[ting] a job'*, reflecting the emphasis that Japanese companies place on English skills in their recruitment processes (Graddol 1997; Iino 2002; English First 2011A) and its importance for securing a job in modern Japan. It was also a market where *'good'* TOEIC marks meant that one would have the external benefit of being able to *'choose the job'*.

English was also perceived to be important or necessary for work in the business, which provided extrinsic motivational impetus to undertake English study abroad.

'In my case I work at a trading company, so I have to use English' (J4, F29)

'I want to be a flight attendant. I need to speak English' (J12, F19)

'I want to get a job that uses English like a teacher or how do you say? Translator' (J10, M23)

'In my case I work at a trading company, so I have to use English' (J4, F29)

'All pilots need to speak English very well.... even in Japan' (J8, M27)

The suggestion that English was important or necessary for work reflects the high value Japanese companies place on English, the language's role as a business language in some companies in Japan and with international dealings (Graddol 1997; Iino 2002; English First 2011A), and the notion that English is the world's language and progressively a basic skill for workers (Batchelor 1988; English First 2011B).

As well as being motivated to study for the business world it was identified that participants were motivated to study English by extrinsic motivation that was a reflection of the value and necessity of English for higher education and postgraduate studies.

'I want to be a master's student.... Somebody who can't speak English can't be master's student' (J13, F20)

'I have to pass IELTS before entering university, so English is the first place' (J23, M25)

'We have to read much essays [in English], and sometimes some people hand in papers to some journals in English' (J23, M23).

With this group English was deemed necessary for entrance to postgraduate or undergraduate study and important for disseminating and obtaining knowledge, reflecting beliefs that English is important for the screening of individuals in education and jobs in Japan, that students need to read books in English in university, and the notion that students' ability for analytical and logical thinking is correlated to their English score (Iino 2002) as well as the notion that English plays a role in accessing necessary information in areas of scientific technology (Noriguchi 2007).

5.16 Intrinsic Motivation

While most participants were motivated to study English abroad for extrinsic reasons, a small number of participants were motivated to study English for primarily intrinsic reasons. These particular participants learnt English primarily for the satisfaction and benefits of the internal states that the activity brought them (Neulinger 1974; Deci 1975; Ryan and Deci 2000).

'I love to study foreign languages' (J2, F22, Interest in the activity, View that English is a hobby)

'It's just fun, it's just really fun' (J2, F22, Commenting on speaking English with others, Pleasure from engaging in it)

'I like English' (J7, F20, View that English is a hobby, Interest in the activity)

'Little dream, I wanted to try studying English; I wanted to learn English' (J22, F28 , Having a dream to study English, Desire to build competency in English for intrinsic reasons)

'I wanted to study English, but my major is politics so I can't, so I wanted to study abroad' (J7, F20, A desire to do more English study, Desire to build competency in English for intrinsic reasons)

'Because I still want to study my grammar and reading and that sort of thing' (J2, F22, Desire to build competency in English for intrinsic reasons)

It was identified that these satisfactions and benefits were interest in the activity, pleasure from engaging in it, the view that English was a hobby, having a dream to study English abroad, a desire for more English study, and wanting to build competency in English for intrinsic reasons. Interestingly, only females participants were found to have been primarily influenced by intrinsic motivation, echoing Habu (2000) and Kobayashi's (2007) suggestion that Japanese women are less instrumentally motivated than men in study abroad experiences and Habu's (2000) finding that many Japanese women travel abroad for export education motivated by a desire for self-fulfilment rather than economic benefit.

5.17 Expressive and Instrumental Value Dichotomy

It has been established that when an activity is undertaken as a means to an end then the behaviour is instrumental and that when it is undertaken as an end in itself that then there behaviour is expressive (Sugiyama-Lebra 1976). It has also been noted in addition that within education expressive refers to experiences that result in pleasure to life, expand horizons, give gratification without lengthy delay, or enable self-expression (Hiemstra 1976). Using these two definitions as guiding criteria statements were analysed to determine whether an individuals were expressively or instrumentally motivated. The following presents the key findings related to instrumental and expressively motivated behaviour from this sample.

5.17.1 Instrumental Motivation

Sixteen participants, or the majority of the sample, were found to be motivated to study English abroad by instrumental motivation. For these individuals English study abroad was a means-to-an-end for something. This instrumental motivation was classified into career-oriented instrumental motivation and academically-oriented instrumental motivation.

Career-oriented instrumental motivation occurred when a participant used English study as means-to-an-end for opportunities and advancement in the working world, while academically-oriented instrumental motivation concerned the use of English as a means-to-an-end for opportunities and advancement in higher education or an academic career. Thirteen individuals, or just over fifty percent of participants, were driven by instrumental motivation related to their career. This was attributed to real or perceived needs for English either on the job or during the hiring process.

'I want to be a flight attendant. I need to speak English' (J12, F19)

'I work at a trading company so I have to use English' (J4, F29)

'All pilots need to speak English very well because all radio communications are in English, even in Japan' (J8, M27)

'In the future I want to be an English teacher in Japan. I want to use English for children'. (J21, F19)

'I will work next year. My company is a manufacturer...ah car parts maker. My guest is Toyota, Honda, Nissan... car parts maker. My company wants global people. I need to study English; I need English' (J24, M22)

'In order to get a job in Japan these days, it is better to have English skills' (J14, F20)

'If people can speak English in Japan it will be an advantage for getting a job' (J2, F22)

Participants indicated that English was necessary for their career or advantageous for getting a job. For these individuals English study abroad was an investment in the future and a means to an ends for their career, echoing Habu's (2000) finding that some Japanese women were motivated to study at Japanese universities for new career opportunities and Weirs-Jenssen (2003), Kitsantas (2004), and Jarvis and Peel's (2008) findings that individuals study abroad partly to improve career prospects. It also reflected industry findings that career and job are top reasons for Japanese to study English (Iino 2002). Given that many Japanese companies utilise English in communications (English First 2011A; Graddol 1997), it is employed in the screening process of candidates in employee recruitment and company promotions in Japan (Iino 2002), and a basic skill for workforces around the world (English First 2011B) it is not surprising to find many participants motivated to improve their English abroad because it is a means-to-an-end for careers.

A small number of participants were motivated to study English abroad by academically-oriented instrumental motivation. This motivation concerned the study of English abroad as a means-to-an-end for advancement and study in the academic world and was less prevalent than career-oriented instrumental motivation.

'I want to be a master's student.... Somebody who can't speak English can't be master's student' (J13, F20)

'I have to pass IELTS before entering university, so English is the first place' (J23, M25)

'We have to read much essays [in English], and sometimes some people hand in papers to some journals in English' (J23, M23).

Participants were found to be motivated to study English abroad because the language was essential for gaining entrance to postgraduate programmes. This reflects the use of English to screen potential students at the university level in Japan (Iino 2002), and is indicative of the influence of extrinsic motivation on participants desire to study English abroad. English was also found to be important for gathering and disseminating knowledge at the postgraduate level, suggesting that Japan's historical perception of associating English with modernisation

and accessing information (Noriguchi 2007; Fujimoto-Adamson 2006; Iino 2002; Aspinell 2006) still has relevancy in the academic world today.

5.17.2 Expressive Motivation

When an individual views the outcome as an end in itself (Sugiyama-Lebra 1976) or when their experience brings pleasure to life, helps expand horizons, gives gratification without much delay, or enables self-expression (Hiemstra 1976) their behaviour is expressive. Using these definitions of expressive motivation as guiding criteria participant statements were analysed to identify whether their behaviour was primarily expressively motivated.

Only a small number of participants were motivated by expressive motivation. One of these was J2, a fourth year university student who had come to New Zealand primarily for VFR travel.

'Well I just came here to visit my host family and I know I can't stay at home all day long and that's why I picked up study. Maybe I can go to study and just gonna help my English. Yeah, do something, do something.... Because I wanted to study; I wanted to learn English' (J2, F22)

'I love to study foreign languages' (J2, F22)

'I like to study English' (J2, F22)

'I still want to study my grammar and reading and that sort of thing' (J2, F22)

'[Speaking English was] just fun, it's just really fun' (J2, F22)

'When I speak English I think I become more open-minded' (J2, F22)

These statements suggested that using and studying English brought J2 pleasure in life, helped her to expand her horizons, gave her gratification without much delay, enabled self-

expression, and was an end in itself for her. These aspects fit the criteria of Hiemstra 1976 and Sugiyama-Lebra's (1976) definitions of expressive motivation, suggesting that J2 was motivated by this motivation.

While J2's comments indicated expressive motivation there were also references to instrumental outcomes as well, which suggested to instrumental motivations as possible justifications for studying English.

'If people can speak English in Japan it will be an advantage for getting a job' (J2, F22)

'I want to work overseas in the future. Just because I love to be overseas' (J2, F22)

While J2 perceived English to be *'an advantage for getting a job'* in Japan the participant was unsure if English would be necessary in her day-to-day job as an office worker at an IT company after graduation. In addition to this J2 also had a desire to live and *'work overseas'* in an English-speaking country in the future, something which — while possibly a pipe dream — suggested instrumental motivations. Both statements suggested that while J2 recognised and highlighted potential instrumental benefits were more likely mentioned as reasonable motivations that could be taken as socially acceptable justifications (Watkins 2006) for expressive motivations to study English in a society that values education and training highly (Reisinger and Turner 1999).

5.18 Studying English Abroad is Better

Six participants perceived that studying English abroad was better than in Japan, which influenced them to study abroad. These participants highlighted numerous disadvantages or shortcomings of studying English in Japan, which contributed to the notion that studying English overseas was better, pushing participants towards studying English abroad.

'I went to language school in Japan. You know it's expensive and it's only one hour one time so it's not enough for me. And I have no native speaker friends; I have no opportunity to speak English with my friends' (J4, F29)

'I want to be a flight attendant. I need to speak English…it's not enough for me to speak English in Japan. No opportunity to speak English. I didn't have an opportunity to study English in my university. I wanted to study English, but my major is politics so I can't; so I wanted to study abroad' (J7, F20)

'If I stayed in Japan I wouldn't use English much' (J14, F20)

'I think studying English in Japan is also good, but sometimes Japanese English is incorrect to native English speakers' (J10, M23).

Contributing to the perception that it is '*better to learn English abroad than in Japan*' (J4) were numerous benefits or advantages with studying English abroad, which attracted participants to studying English abroad.

'In my case I work at a trading company so I have to use English, but I cannot speak and I cannot listen; so, I thought I have to study English in Australia, in New Zealand…. I think it is better to learn English abroad than in Japan because actually I spoke English every day. It's very good practice for me' (J4, F29)

'Because [people] who can speak English they have been to other countries, overseas, at least once…. I thought that if I went overseas I could speak English' (J10)

'I can speak with native speakers and live in an English environment' (J7, F20)

'I wanted to go somewhere outside of Japan to practice speaking English…. I just wanted to put myself in the environment where I have to speak English.' (J15, F20)

The numerous perceived disadvantages or shortcomings with studying English in Japan such as '*no opportunities*', or limited opportunities to '*speak*' or '*study English*', communicate with '*native speaker[s]*' or '*use English much*', as well as the expense of learning English in

Japan, the perception that *'it's not enough'*, and issues with being exposed to incorrect *'Japanese English'* acted as push factors, stimulating desire to study English abroad. Conversely numerous benefits or advantages from studying English abroad — including the opportunity to *'practice speaking English'* and be immersed in an *'English environment'*, the need *'speak English'* in that environment, speak *'English every day'*, and *'speak with native speakers'*, as well as the opportunity to *'feel'* culture, and a belief that if one went overseas one *'could speak English'* and *'listen'* — acted as pull factors, attracting participants to study English abroad. Such comments suggest that participants were attracted to study English abroad by the overall advantages that the environment and experience offered rather than a belief that actual courses abroad are superior to domestic courses as found in Mazzarol and Soutar's (2002) study on Chinese, Indonesian, Taiwanese, and Indian students in export education. In this it can be posited that participants' perceptions mirror the commonly held belief *'that the only way to really learn the language of a foreign country is to go and live there'* suggested by Coleman (1997, p.2).

5.19 Conclusions on Research Issue 2

Extrinsic motivation influenced the majority of this sample to study English abroad. This motivation was found to stem from extrinsic motivations in the academic and business worlds which were linked to rewards and obligations. Intrinsic motivation was also found to have influenced a number of participants in this sample to study English abroad. It was identified that these participants were motivated primarily by the satisfaction and benefits to internal states that English brought them (Neulinger 1974; Deci 1975; Ryan and Deci 2000). The predominance of extrinsic motivation in this sample over intrinsic motivation is arguably a reflection of the real world situations in which participants are in, the obligation to study English that these circumstances place on participants, and the importance of it as a means-to-an-end in life.

Indeed, the majority of the sample was found to be motivated to study English abroad by instrumental motivation. For these participants English study abroad was a means-to-an-end for in the business or academic world, reflecting the importance of English for opportunities

and advancement in both of these areas. While the majority of participants were motivated by instrumental motivations to study English abroad, a very small minority was motivated to study English abroad by expressive motivation. With this, it was found that English was studied primarily because it brought pleasure to life, helped to expand horizons, gave gratification without much delay, enabled self-expression, and was an end in itself.

The predominance of extrinsic and instrumental motivations to study English abroad is arguably a reflection of the real world situations in which participants are in, the obligation to study English that these circumstances place on participants, the rewards from having a command of English, and the importance of English as a means-to-an-end in the business and academic worlds.

In addition to this, it was identified that a number of participants perceived studying English abroad to be better than in Japan, which influenced them to study English abroad. With this it was found that the shortcomings of studying English in Japan acted as push factors for study abroad experiences, while the perceived advantages associated with studying English abroad acted as pull factors participants, attracting participants to study English overseas.

5.20 Chapter Summary

The sections in this chapter presented findings on research issues 1 and 2, establishing the motivations that influenced this sample of Japanese adults undertaking short-term English courses in New Zealand to go abroad and study English.

In summary, the findings on research issue 1 indicated that many motivations associated with pleasure travel were present as motivational influences in this study. Many of these motivations were also evident in earlier export education related studies, but had not been classified within a pleasure travel motivation context. This study found that anomie and escape; a need for catharsis; novelty, variety, and change needs; affiliation, relatedness, and social interaction needs; the extrinsic motivation of obligation; knowledge and learning

motivations; a desire for personal growth, self-discovery, and change; and now-or-never motivation; and deep-seated motivation linked to inspirational image formation agents and seminal experiences from adolescence.

In addition to this, findings from research issue 2 revealed that the majority of this sample was motivated to study English abroad by extrinsic and instrumental motivations; conversely, only a small number of participants were influenced by intrinsic or expressive motivations. This section also revealed that a number of participants were motivated to study English overseas by a perception that studying English abroad was better than studying English in Japan.

In the final chapter the findings from these two research issues will be used to answer the overarching research question and resultantly draw conclusions on how alike and different the motivations of Japanese adults undertaking short-term English course in New Zealand are to the motivations found in pleasure travel. In addition to this Chapter 6 will discuss some implications for industry as well as areas for future research.

Chapter 6: Conclusions, and Implications

6.1   Review

Chapter 5 revealed what motivated Japanese adults to go abroad and study English; this chapter (Chapter 6) utilises findings from the preceding chapter to address this research's overarching question — how alike and different the motivations of Japanese adults enrolled in short term English language study in New Zealand are to motivations within pleasure travel. It was established that many non-education related motivations, as well as education related motivations, influenced participants to go abroad and study English, reflecting Batchelor's (1998) findings that English language students have key reasons other than study to go abroad and Kobayashi's (2007) finding that personal reasons motivate Japanese to study English abroad. Recapping these motivations participants were found to be motivated to travel abroad and study English by anomie and escape; a need for catharsis; novelty, variety, and change needs; affiliation, relatedness, and social interaction needs; the extrinsic motivation of obligation; knowledge and learning motivations; a desire for personal growth, self-discovery, and change; now-or-never impetus; deep-seated motivation linked to inspirational image formation agents and seminal experiences from adolescence; intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, instrumental and expressive motivation; and a belief that studying English abroad was better.

6.2   The Overarching Research Question

With the establishment of what push factors motivated this sample of adults from Japan to go abroad and study English this research now investigates how alike and different the motivations of Japanese adults enrolled in short term English language study in New Zealand are to motivations within pleasure travel.

6.3   Discussion

With participants being motivated by bundles of motivations to travel abroad and study English it is evident that this study echoes Moutinho (1987) and Crompton's (1979) suggestion that people usually travel to satisfy multiple motivations. While there were some differences, such as the instrumental focus of going abroad, Japanese adults involved in short term English study abroad in this study were found to have shared many motivational similarities with pleasure travel in the realms of anomie and escape; a need for catharsis; novelty, variety, and change needs; affiliation, relatedness, and social interaction needs; knowledge and learning motivations; a desire for personal growth, self-discovery, and change; and deep-seated motivation linked to inspirational image formation agents and seminal experiences from adolescence. In addition to these similarities, this study has found some key motivational differences between the two groups with instrumental motivation, extrinsic motivation, and now-or-never motivation.

6.3.1   Learning, Knowledge

One way in which motivation in this sample reflected motivations associated with pleasure travel was the importance of learning and increasing knowledge as a motivational influence (Guinn 1980; Pearce and Foster 2007; Park 2009). Education was an integral aspect of the overseas experience for the majority of participants, echoing the notion that education is an intrinsic component of Japanese travel (Kajiwara 1997), an important motivation for Japanese outbound pleasure travellers (Yamamoto and Gill 1999; Cha, McCleary, and Uysal 1995), and important to Japanese society (Reisinger and Turner 1999). While it has been indentified that education can be a justification for the recreational side of travel for Japanese (Watkins 2006) the emphasis by most participants in this study on concrete instrumental benefits of studying English coupled with extrinsic motivations to study English for academia and the business world suggest that education was important for the future of individuals and less of a justification for the recreational side of travel.

6.3.2 Catharsis

Another important motivational influence that this sample shared with pleasure travellers, including fellow Japanese travellers, was a need for catharsis and relaxation (Crompton 1979, Hills 1965; Iso-Ahola 1980; Cha, McCleary, and Uysal 1995; Yamamoto and Gill 1999). In this study catharsis was a key motivational influence within the full-time worker group, reflecting the toll of the Japanese working culture of hard work and long hours on participants (Cha, McCleary, and Uysal 1995). For participants affected by this it was important to escape emotional tensions and anxieties associated with the home environment and get recharged abroad, but unlike individuals who participate pleasure travel to recharge themselves mentally (Moutinho 1987) these participants differed by choosing to quit their job and challenge themselves with study English abroad, while simultaneously fulfilling other motivations, such as instrumental career-related motivations.

6.3.3 Novelty, Variety, and Change

Novelty, variety, and change are key motivations in tourism (Dann 1977, 1981; Crompton 1979; Leiper 1984; Moutinho 1987; Lee and Crompton 1992); they were also found to be influential motivations within this sample. While these motivations were not widely prevalent across the sample, they were key influences for the university cohort. The importance of this motivational influence with this group of young adults reflected the boredom of the organised routine of students living in modern industrialised societies (Lee and Crompton 1992). For these young adults the decision to go abroad is reflective of the notion within tourism that travel provides a means to satisfy novelty needs and alleviate boredom as it allows the individual to escape the boredom and routine of home for a different physically and socially different environment (Crompton 1979; Lee and Crompton 1992); thus in this manner these students are akin to pleasure travellers. As these participants have chosen to travel to New Zealand, a Western destination that is culturally very different to Japan, it suggests that these participants have a higher degree of novelty seeking, like travellers of the same nature (Wahlers and Etzel 1985).

6.3.4 Anomie and Escape

In addition to this, participants' motivations were also similar to those in pleasure travel in so far that anomie and escape also motivated a number of participants to go abroad (Dann 1977). It was evident that like in pleasure travel individuals affected by this need escaped their work and home life to restore homeostasis (Crompton 1979). There were also indications of travel becoming a habitual method to restore homeostasis (Gnoth 1997) suggesting that, like in pleasure travel, when disequilibrium is long term a single trip may be insufficient to restore equilibrium and numerous trips may be undertaken over time (Crompton 1979).

6.3.5 Personal Growth, Self-Discovery, and Change

Another aspect of motivation where this sample was somewhat similar to pleasure travel was the influence of personal growth, self discovery, and change on participants. In the realm of pleasure travel personal growth, self discovery, and change is one of the main motivations within the youth travel segment of the backpacker market, mirroring the notion that while this motivation influences all kinds of travellers it is of greater importance to individuals with lower levels of travel experience (Pearce and Lee 2005). Reflecting this notion personal growth, self discovery, and change motivations were also found to have predominantly influenced young adults in this study — in this case students in the university cohort. One key way in which the students in the university cohort group differ is that unlike backpackers (Locke-Murphy and Pearce 1995) to fulfil these motivations these individuals do not distance themselves from all types of adult control; indeed, these participants are fulfilling their need for personal growth, self discovery, and change under circumstances which included adult control in the classroom, adult control on home stays, adult control of students through the conditions of study abroad programmes.

While participants indicated a desire to create a more ideal self this self was not necessarily the more courageous, independent and mature individual that Maoz (2007) suggests from pleasure travel; indeed, there were indications that this better self could be one that was more allocentric or group oriented in nature, reflecting Japan's collectivist culture (Ishii-Kuntz

1989). This group also differed from pleasure travel in so far as it was found that contrary to Crompton's (1979) assertion it was not necessary for individuals to leave the home environment to evaluate the self, as indicated in the previous chapter in a number of cases participants evaluated themselves in Japan, using abroad as the environment to make those desired changes occur. Another key aspect in which the personal growth, self discovery, and change motivations of this sample differed to those within pleasure travel was that these were linked to career change in a small number of older participants. For this participants travelling abroad to study English was a means to attain career change and thus fulfil self actualisation needs (Maslow 1943).

6.3.6 Deep-seated Motivation

This sample's motivations were similar to those in pleasure travel in that desire to travel abroad and study English as an adult was linked to the influence of inspirations during adolescence in a number of participants (Laing and Crouch 2006). While not defined as deep-seated motivation by Laing and Crouch this study used the term to describe motivation that formed a significant period of time before departure and remains latent and unfulfilled for years or decades before being fulfilled. Like Laing and Crouch's (2006) research, this study found books to be an inspiration for future travel in adolescents, but differed in that it also found that seminal and inspirational experiences abroad and in English education could also motivate adolescents to travel abroad as adults.

6.3.7 Affiliation, Relatedness, and Social Interaction

This study found that a number of participants were motivated to travel abroad by affiliation, relatedness, and social interaction needs, echoing findings on travel in the literature (Lundberg 1972; Crompton 1979; Dunn et. al. 1991; Mannell and Kleiber 1997; Pearce and Lee 2005). The importance of these motivations to travellers and participants in this sample is indicative of the similarity between the two groups, implying that these are non-specific needs (Howard and Sheth 1968). It was evident that like pleasure travellers participants were motivated to affiliate and meet new people outside their normal reference group to establish

new friendships as well as meet people that were already known to strengthen established relationships and kinships (Crompton 1979); that said this motivation differed from in pleasure travel in that participants sought to strengthen relationships with host families who were loved and thought of as family, but not kin in a familial sense. In addition to this another way in which motivation in this sample differed from that in pleasure travel was that the need for relatedness was found to reflect a desire to connect and know the 'other' rather than a desire to feel loved, connected, be understood, and feel involved in a meaningful way in a larger social world (Mannell and Kleiber 1997).

6.3.8   Now-or-Never Motivation

One key motivational difference with pleasure travel motivations was the presence of now-or-never motivation in this study. In the previous chapter it was established that this motivation was found to be present in another export education setting, amongst Japanese women undertaking English study in Canada (Kobayashi 2007). In this research now-or-never motivation has been found to be an impetus on participants, which influenced them to seize the opportunity to travel while they perceived they could. It was also established that with this there was a belief amongst participants that this was either their last chance to travel abroad to study English or their last chance for the foreseeable future due to age, life stage, or relationship status reasons. While now-or-never motivation was identified as a motivational difference between this sample and pleasure travel it is conceivable that this motivation and factors such as the age, life stage, or relationship status reasons found in this study could influence individuals to undertake travel for pleasure. Indeed in the pleasure travel market, youths who travel on gap years or backpack could conceivably share some of the same impetus to travel before working like participants in the university cohort in this study. Likewise twenty-something adults who go on working holidays may conceivably decide to travel sooner rather than later, like participants in this study, because of their relationship status or because of age limits set out in visa conditions (INZ 2010; Department of Immigration and Citizenship 20?).

6.3.9 Extrinsic Motivation

An important way in which motivation in this sample may differ from pleasure travel is the influence of extrinsic motivations on participants. Extrinsic motivation was identified in the form of implicit and explicit needs to have English skills, and the benefits from having English in the business and academic worlds, as well as obligation for university students studying abroad on mandatory programmes. In some cases students studying abroad on mandatory programmes were found to have underlying motivations such as deep-seated motivation masked by obligation to study abroad. As there is a lack of discussion on remains to be seen as to how different these two groups are in this regard. While extrinsic motivations has been suggested as occurring in pleasure travel, such as with dependent children who are obliged to go on family holidays with their parents (Fodness 1992), it is conceivable that this is less common for adults due to their greater independence, levels of self-determination, and freedom.

6.3.10 Prevalence of Instrumental Motivation over Expressive Motivation

Another aspect in which motivation in this sample may differ with pleasure travel was the prevalence of instrumental motivation over expressive motivation. With this it was identified that this sample was predominantly motivated to travel abroad to study English for instrumental as opposed to expressive reasons. This motivation was linked to career and academic related reasons. It was the motivational difference of these activities being a means-to-an-end rather than an end in itself which fundamentally sets these individuals apart from anyone who learns skills while travelling for expressive reasons.

6.3.11 Perceptions on Studying English Abroad

In this sample it was found that there was that a belief that studying English abroad was better than studying English in Japan that motivated a number of participants to study abroad. With this motivation there were push and pull elements, participants were pushed to go abroad by the deficiencies they saw in learning English locally and pulled abroad by the advantages they saw in studying English in an MESDC. The long and short of this is that

individuals are pushed abroad by a desire to fulfil something which, while they can fulfil locally, they perceive it to be insufficient and inferior to the attributes of what is offered abroad (Yuan and McDonald 1990). This belief is arguably something which commonly acts push and pull factors in tourism. Indeed, one just has to consider the ubiquitous English summer holiday at the beach; while an English family can fulfil such a desire domestically it is arguably the perceived 'value' of destination attributes such as climate, weather, and beaches in Spain which pull English tourists in droves to those beaches every year (Riley and Van Doren 1992, p. 270; Yuan and McDonald 1990). Consequently, in this respect this research finds that both pleasure travellers and this sample alike find 'value' in the travel object (Riley and Van Doren 1992) and are pushed to travel by needs and pulled to destinations by the benefits that the destination's attributes offer (Goossens 2000).

6.4   Conclusion

This study has found that Japanese adults enrolled in short-term English study in New Zealand are motivated by many underlying socio-psychological motivations associated with pleasure travel. This finding suggests that the motivations associated with pleasure travel influencing this sample are non-specific and can be satisfied through education experiences abroad in addition to pleasure travel (Howard and Sheth 1968). The motivations to go abroad and study English in this sample were akin to motivations within pleasure travel in many ways, but there were some provisos and one key difference. This difference was that while this sample was influenced by underlying socio-psychological motivations the decision to go abroad and study English was also influenced by extrinsic and instrumental motivations. These additional motivational forces were extrinsic motivation of obligation to go abroad and study English, and extrinsic and instrumental motivations to study English associated with the business and academic worlds. These extra motivations were key motivations that drove individuals to study English abroad and fulfil other needs that could be fulfilled by pleasure travel through education experiences instead.

6.5 Contributions

With the findings presented in this study this research makes a contribution to the literature by identifying what motivated this sample of Japanese adults undertaking short-term English study in New Zealand to undertake study abroad and classifying many of these motivations in regards to motivations found within pleasure travel. This study also made a contribution by finding that, although motivational differences exist, many motivations associated with pleasure travel influenced participants to go abroad, suggesting that this sample had much in common with pleasure travel motivation, thus providing more evidence for recognising international education experiences are a form of tourism. It has also made a contribution in the areas of deep-seated motivation and now-or-never motivations, providing further understanding of the motivational forces that influence individuals to go abroad and participate in export education.

6.6 Implications for Industry

With many push factor motivations associated with pleasure travel also motivating Japanese adults studying English in New Zealand, this study demonstrates that motivations normally associated with pleasure travel, such as a need for catharsis, are non-specific and can be fulfilled through study abroad experiences. This suggests that industry can market that educations experiences can fulfil such needs in addition to education related motivations and that education marketing messages that also indicate the fulfilment of underlying pleasure travel related motivations will appeal. In addition to this, information from this study is also useful as it can help providers to develop programmes and experiences to better fulfil underlying motivations associated with pleasure travel.

Furthermore, the finding that influential and seminal experiences during adolescence can create a desire to travel abroad and study English at later stages in life suggests that industry marketers create strategies to create interest in their destination amongst Japanese youth. This should be done with the view that doing so may give the destination the opportunity to influence future travel choices with university students and workers.

Moreover, as it was found that personal links to people in New Zealand can lead to repeat travel there is scope to foster this through strategies to capture more of Japan's adolescent study abroad programme market i.e. the junior high and high school market to foster such connections. As sophomores travelling on mandatory study abroad programmes are obliged to study abroad and have limited self-determination in terms of their choice of destination it is important for industry to strategise how to best market to institutions and sophomores to capture a bigger slice of this market segment.

The increased knowledge of what motivates individuals to go abroad and study English found here in this study has the potential to help industry and New Zealand to better market themselves to academically-inclined individuals. It may also be of benefit in attracting individuals abroad for education-based travel in an economic climate when more than just fulfilling pleasure travel related motivations may be needed for some individuals to justify a trip abroad.

Such knowledge may help market destination New Zealand and its education offerings more effectively, especially in light of the current unhealthy economic situation in many student-generating countries and New Zealand's long decline in international student numbers. Ultimately such knowledge may contribute to helping New Zealand stem this decline and eventually increase its share of the student market vis-à-vis other MESDC competitors such as Australia or the United Kingdom.

6.7 Recommendations for Further Research

As knowledge on motivations within export education is somewhat limited there is value in conducting further research in this area to develop a broader and more detailed understanding of the phenomenon. One avenue for research is to investigate relationships between motivations. Another prospect would be to develop a typology of students. In addition to this a quantitative study could be developed based on this study's findings. This research could

explore areas such prevalence and the degree of influence of motivations on individuals as well as examine relationships of these motivations. This would further develop understanding of push motivations amongst Japanese adults in the ESL market and could potentially lead to market segmentation for marketing purposes (as the majority of Japanese individuals studying in New Zealand enrol in English language schools segmentation could be beneficial for marketing more effectively, but only if there are a sufficient number of people to warrant segmentation and the assignment of limited marketing resources to them). It may also aid in the development of a typology of students.

There is also scope for industry or academics to conduct research into push motivations into other areas in export education such as particular export education areas, e.g. high school or university courses, and specific markets within New Zealand, e.g. China, South Korea, or Saudi Arabia. This would give industry and academics a clearer picture of different aspects of the export education market, potentially aiding in the development of marketing efforts and market segmentation as well as the possible creation of student typologies.

As pull factor motivations were omitted from this master's thesis, due to longitudinal constraints, there is opportunity for research into this aspect of motivation. Developing insight into what motivates individuals to choose a nation over its competitors has benefit for a destination, firstly because it gives insight into the nation's pull factor strengths as a study destination in comparison to its competitors, and secondly because understanding individuals' travel motivations is important for successful destination marketing (Gnoth 1997).

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Appendices

Appendix A: Participant Information Sheet and Consent Form
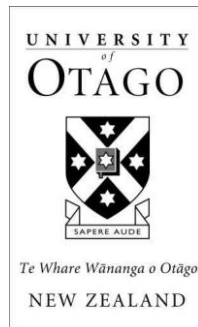
How alike/different are the motivations of Japanese English language students in New Zealand to those of pleasure travellers?

INFORMATION SHEET FOR PARTICIPANTS.

Thank you for showing an interest in this project. Please read this information sheet carefully before deciding whether or not to participate. If you decide to participate we thank you. If you decide not to take part there will be no disadvantage to you and we thank you for considering our request.

The Aim of the Project

This project is being undertaken as part of the requirements for a Master's of Commerce degree. The aim of this research is to learn more about why Japanese decide to go abroad and study English, and why Japanese decide to choose New Zealand for this purpose. This research also intends to examine how alike and different these motivations are to those of pleasure travellers.

Type of Participants being sought

This research is seeking 10-25 Japanese adults aged 18 years of age or older who are undertaking or have undertaken English language study in New Zealand in the last three years. Individuals are not eligible if they were not free to choose an alternative study destination to New Zealand.

What participants will be asked to do.

Should you agree to take part in this project, you will be asked to participate in a face-to-face interview. Interviews are expected to take approximately 30 minutes to an hour of your time. Please be aware that you may decide to end the interview at any time.

What data or information will be collected and what use will be made of it.

This project involves an open-questioning technique. The general line of questioning includes asking about your motivations to travel and study, and why you chose New Zealand as destination. The precise nature of the questions which will be asked has not been determined in advance, but will depend on the way in which the interview develops.

In the event that the line of questioning does develop in such a way that you feel hesitant or uncomfortable you are reminded of your right to decline to answer any particular question(s) and also that you may withdraw from the project at any stage without any disadvantage to yourself of any kind.

Interviews will be recorded on audio for later analysis. The data collected will be securely stored in such a way that only those mentioned below will be able to gain access to it. At the end of the project any personal information will be destroyed immediately except that, as required by the University's research policy, any raw data on which the results of the project

depend will be retained in secure storage for five years, after which it will be destroyed. Individuals will not be identifiable in the finished work.

The results of the project may be published and will be available in the University of Otago Library (Dunedin, New Zealand) but every attempt will be made to preserve your anonymity. Please be aware that you may decide not to take part in the project without any disadvantage to yourself of any kind.

This proposal has been reviewed and approved by the Department of Marketing, University of Otago.

If you have any questions about our project, either now or in the future, please feel free to contact either:

Scott Macshane	**Dr. Juergen Gnoth**
Department of Marketing	**Department of Marketing**
University Telephone Number: **03 479 8967 8446**	University Telephone Number: **03 479 8446**
Email Address: **scott.macshane@otago.ac.nz**	Email Address: **juergen.gnoth@otago.ac.nz**

This study has been approved by the Department stated above. If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of the research you may contact the Committee through the Human Ethics Committee Administrator (ph 03 479-8256). Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated and you will be informed of the outcome.

Appendix B: Examples Questions

Questions to Determine Eligibility for the Study

How old are you?

Did you come to New Zealand on your own or as part of a group or (school) programme?

If you came on a programme, was it compulsory?

If you came as part of a group or on a programme, did you have the opportunity to choose your study destination?

Demographic Questions

Gender: M/F

What do you do/what did you do before you came to New Zealand?

When did you come to New Zealand?

General Questions

How long have you been in New Zealand?

How long is your stay in New Zealand?

What kind of visa did you get for New Zealand?

Why did you get that type of visa?

Push Factor Related Starter Questions

What was your life in Japan like before you came to New Zealand?

Tell me more about your (school life/ work life/ social life).

Why did you feel (bored) with (your school life) in Japan?

Why was (e.g. change/meeting people) important to you?

When did you become interested in going abroad to study English?

How did you become interested in going abroad to study English?

Export Education Related Starter Questions

Why are you studying English?

Why did you decide to study English abroad?

Why not just study English in Japan?

Why now?

Why is (e.g. studying English/improving your speaking skills) important to you?

What benefits will studying English bring you?

How will you use English in the future?