



LUNDS UNIVERSITET  
Campus Helsingborg

## Learning in tourist motivation —exploring Swedes' travel to China

Supervisor: Malin Zillinger

Author: Shang Guan Fang Ping



## **Acknowledgement**

I would like to express my appreciation and gratitude to everyone who has contributed to this thesis. Especially, I would like to thank my supervisor Malin Zillinger for her sharing her ideas and guiding me through the research process.

Special thanks to all interviewees for sharing their experience with me. In addition, thanks to other fellow students who have given me valuable feedback and suggestions.

Shang Guan Fang Ping  
Helsingborg Campus,Lund  
June, 2011

## **Abstract**

---

Tourist motivation is considered to be one of the most important variables to explain travel decision and tourist behavior. Given that technological advancements have a dramatic impact upon educational forms of tourism, it is essential to study how learning can motivate people to travel so as to understand educational tourists' behavior. However, there seems to be a lack of study on the motivation of educational tourism.

Therefore, this thesis reports an exploratory qualitative study using abductive approach. It aims to explore how learning can motivate people to be mobile. An endeavor was made to examine how learning mandarin can influence Swedes' sense of place (China), as well as how it motivate Swedes to travel to China. Based on literature review on educational tourism, sense of place and motivation theory, two models were established for conducting the research and an improved model with insights from the research results was proposed at the end of the thesis. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with nine Swedes who are learning mandarin.

The main findings of this study are that learning mandarin can influence both subjective and intersubjective aspects of Swedes' sense of place either consciously or sub-consciously. It can influence the whole dynamic and cyclical process of forming tourist motivation via multiple paths and meanwhile the effects subject to several conditional factors. Particularly, sense of place plays a significant mediating role in motivating the Swedes to travel to China. It is suggested future research may employ collecting data at a large scale to test the proposed model.

**Keywords:** educational tourism, learning language, mobility, motivation, sense of place

## **Contents**

---

<i>Acknowledgements</i> .....	1
<i>Abstracts</i> .....	2
<i>Contents</i> .....	3
<b>1. Introduction</b>	
1.1 Background.....	4
1.2 Research aim and research questions.....	5
1.3 Societal relevance.....	7
<b>2. Theoretical Framework</b>	
2.1 Learning, travel and place	
2.1.1 Learning and travel.....	8
2.1.2 Learning foreign language as product in travel.....	8
2.1.3 Learning foreign language as process/function in travel.....	9
2.1.4 Place and sense of place.....	11
2.1.5 Conceptual framework.....	12
2.2 Learning foreign language in travel motivation	
2.2.1 Tourist motivation.....	14
2.2.2 Conceptualizing learning in travel motivation.....	16
2.3 Summary.....	18
<b>3. Methodology</b>	
3.1 Research type-qualitative.....	18
3.2 Reasoning approach-abductive.....	19
3.3 Research strategy.....	20
3.4 Data collection and analysis	
3.4.1 Sample selection and sample size.....	21
3.4.2 Designing interview guide and questions.....	22
3.4.3 Conducting interview.....	24
3.4.4 Data analysis.....	25
3.5 Research validity and reliability.....	26
<b>4. Empirical finding and analysis</b>	
4.1 Profile of interview informants.....	27
4.2 Recognized linkageage between learning and place	
4.2.1 Learning language at place.....	28
4.2.2 Pursuit of other special interests at place.....	29
4.2.3 Learning language and sense of place .....	31
4.2.4 Other conditional factors-stimuli and constraints.....	38
4.3 Learning foreign language in travel motivation (improved model) .....	39
4.4 Interaction between learning and mobility.....	43
4.5 Summary.....	45
<b>5. Conclusion</b> .....	43
<i>References</i> .....	47

## 1. Introduction

---

In the chapter, background information of educational tourism will be presented, followed by a summary and discussion of previous researches and related problems. Finally the purpose and societal relevance of this thesis will be brought out.

---

### 1.1 Background

- Scene A:*
- “Are you learning Chinese?”
  - “Yes, I’m taking Chinese course in school.”
  - “Have you been to China?”
  - “Not yet. But I’m going to there for a culture course this summer!”
- Scene B:*
- “Are you learning Chinese?”
  - “Yes, I’ve been studying it intermittently for couple of years.”
  - “Have you been to China?”
  - “I’ve been there three times!”
- Scene C:*
- “Are you learning Chinese?”
  - “Yes, I’ve been self-studying it for nearly three years!”
  - “Have you been to China?”
  - “Not yet...”

...

When I met people here in Sweden and asked them if they are learning Chinese<sup>1</sup> and if they have been to China, I was usually offered diverse answers. Nowadays, modern technology facilitates learning without corporal mobility, for example people can take distance learning courses, get access to the information for their learning through internet, have cyber communication with other learners. Still, many people travel to learn, either independently or through organized trip (e.g. EF, STS, 2011). How learning can motivate people to travel for learning instead of learning without travel?

Travel for purposeful study or education has grown over the last few decades and there is also an increase of educational and learning elements in tourism products (Ritchie, 2003). The convergence of learning and mobility can be embodied as for example educational tourism. Educational tourism was conceptualized as the overlap domain between tourism and education, which consists of *tourism first* experience or products and *education first* ones (Ritchie, 2003:13). The former refers to those with education/learning as the secondary

---

1. In this thesis, Chinese refers to mandarin.

but important motives and experience, e.g. general edu-tourism (ecotourism and cultural tourism) and adult or seniors' educational tourism. The latter refers to those with education/learning as the primary motives and experience, e.g. university/college students' and schools' tourism (language school, exchange programmes etc.). Educational tourism is therefore a complicated area which is concerned with diverse market segments and sub-segments. Its market system even involves invisible actors (Ritchie, 2003).

Furthermore, the convergence of education and tourism involves education-facilitated mobility between countries and tourism-supported international exchange and learning (Ritchie, 2003). For example, People may travel to another country for university study or language courses. They may also travel abroad for their holiday and during the journey, they learn about for example local history, culture or language.

## **1.2 Research aim and research questions**

Motivation is critical to understanding the decision-making process (Mansfeld 1992; Snepenger et al 2006). Tourist motivation is considered to be one of the most important variables to explain for example travel destination choice-making and tourist behavior (Chan & Baum, 2007; Fodness 1994, in Hall 2005). However, there is a lack of research in educational tourism especially the travel motivation (Ritchie, 2003). Although there are a few motivation studies related to the adaptation of specific educational group such as international student (e.g. Chirkov *et al*, 2007), or the study abroad motivation in general (e.g. Nyaupane *et al*, 2011), very few research that analyze tourist motivation through examining the relation between learning and mobility. As technological advancements have a dramatic impact upon educational forms of tourism (Ritchie, 2003), how learning can motivate people to travel?

Therefore, the aim of this thesis is to explore how learning can motivate people to be mobile. Especially, learning language can involve transnational mobility (Ritchie, 2003), for example taking language courses in a foreign country where the target language is natively spoken. Besides, learning or pursuit of some special interest often involves travel to some place (Ritchie, 2003). On the one hand, learning foreign language itself asks for the environment or settings that can support the learning practice. On the other hand, since

language is a tools of communication, learning foreign language can be taken as a way to know more about the place or to interact with people in a foreign coutry. Therefore, learning is related to certain place in terms of the specific settings and social connections.

Hall (2005) pointed out that *place* especially *sense of place* is important to understand mobility in individual's lifelong practice. Since learning langauge is a continuous process that goes on throughout the individual's life-span (Foley and Thompson, 2003), the mobility involved in learning can be understood through examining the individual's sense of place. Furthermore, sense of place reflects the relationship people form with places while this relationship could be one of the factors that motivate travel to the place.

There are several studies on motivation of vacation tourism (e.g. Crompton 1979; Goossens 2000). They can be referred for my study on motivation of educational tourism because of the convergence of learning and leisure, as well as the shared the underpinning basic theories, for example the push-pull theory (Dann, 1977, 1981; Crompton, 1979) and the analysis of seeking and escaping as motivational dimensions (Iso-Ahola, 1982). Since educational tourism comprises diverse market segments and sub-segments which involve intricate actors, Ritchie (2003:19) suggested using a segmentation approach to examined educational tourism. In this thesis, focus is put on a geographic segmentation (Sweden) and specifically a sub-segment with the special interest in a foreign language (mandarin).

There are three reasons for choosing the segmentation and sub-segment. Firstly, People may be encouraged by the proximity and travel to another country nearby to learn foreign language (Ritchie, 2003:21). While the motivation of long-distant educational travel might involves richer information. Secondly, I am from China and resident in Sweden. Through my personal contacts, I reached some Swedes show great interest in learning mandarin and some of them have travelled to China. To understand how these Swedes consider learning mandarin and travel across the noticeable geography distance to China can help better understand educational travel. Thirdly, China, as a popular tourist destination in the recent years (Xinhuanet, 2010) and the expected important language travel destination in the future (WYSE, 2008), has received noticeable educational tourists from established resource market for example USA and UK, which can be implied from some operators in this field

(e.g. China Study Abroad, Mandarin House). In contrast, little research has been made on Sweden as a potential niche market and it seems remain underdeveloped as I know. That's why I choose Swedes who are learning mandarin as my research subjects.

In a word, it is assumed in this thesis that foreign language learning, either as product or as process/function, can motivate people to take part in educational travel. The research questions are:

1. *How learning mandarin can influence Swedes' sense of place (China)?*
2. *How learning mandarin can motivate Swedes to travel to China? (including first visit and revisit)*

### **1.3 Societal relevance**

The research on tourist motivation in relation to language learning can reveal why the language learners behave or perceive things as they do, why and how their learning practice involves travel. Assessing the tourist motivation allows a better understanding for their destination choice and travel behaviour, which is essential for tourism operators, educational institutions and other related organizations to develop tailor-made educational travel products (Mansfeld 1992).

Furthermore, the study on tourist motivation is also important for design relevant marketing strategies and service delivery evaluation (Snepenger *et al*, 2006). the findings of this thesis may offer implications for future research on the promising niche market. This research is focused on motivation stage and naturally pays attention to the individuality. This attention to individuality of the language learner, who is also the consumer of educational travel, implies the possibilities of identifying the “various social groupings with particular pattern of consumption” and focusing on “lifestyle as selling features for tourism branding and products” (Hall, 2005: 42).

## **2. Theoretical Framework**

---

This chapter will cover the relevant concepts in light of the literatures and previous researches. Two conceptual frameworks are proposed in quest of the research questions.

---

This chapter comprises two sections. Firstly, bases on literature review, I will discuss how



learning (language) can be attached to a specific place in the context of convergence of education and tourism. These linkages are examined from three aspects of place – setting, social connection and sense of place. Particularly, sense of place is highlighted because it directly reflects the relation between the individual and the place. This part of discussion is illustrated as the conceptual framework of Learning-Travel-Place (Figure 1). Recognizing these linkages can be the precondition of framing the tourist motivation in question. Then I will move on to discuss tourist motivation in relation to learning language. The conceptual model of learning in travel motivation (Figure 2) is proposed, which will be verified and improved by data analysis later on.

## **2.1 Learning, travel and place**

### **2.1.1 Learning and travel**

The convergence of education/learning and travel has been perceived as a changing trend of demand in tourism market (Ritchie, 2003). On the one hand, education/learning becomes an important part of the leisure activities and makes it more educational in nature; on the other hand, there is an emerging demand for including educational and learning component in tourism products. Educational tourism can be illustrated as a continuum ranging from “tourism first” (general interest learning while travel) to “education first” (travel for purposeful learning) (Ritchie 2003:12). In relation to my research issue, learning language can be conducted in a formal or informal way. People can travel to a foreign country for the language courses in school. They may also have language practice or other learning practice during daily life while travel.

Educational tourism can be viewed as product, process or function (Ritchie, 2003). As product, learning itself can be defined as an end; as process or function, learning can be defined as a means to an end. Since the educational element in travel can be diverse and complicated (Ritchie, 2003), people who learn foreign languages may travel not only for learning language but also for other extended learning practice. Even if their initial travel motivation is to learning the language, their travel experience at the destination could be more related to other interest because the motivation can change during a trip (Hall, 2005).

### **2.1.2 Learning foreign language as product in travel**

Ritchie (2003) argued that learning or pursuit of some special interest often involves travel. In relation to the research questions, learning foreign language itself can be a special interest. People may travel to a foreign country for learning foreign language because there are more learning-friendly settings and facilities attached to the place, for example the local language environment that can support their learning or the language courses in schools.

People may have more than one motive for travel and learning can be one of them. As mentioned above, continuum of educational tourism includes education/learning either as the primary motives and experience or as the secondary but important motives and experience (Ritchie, 2003). Accordingly, learning foreign language can be the primary motivating factor for one's educational travel and it also can be the secondary motivating factor but still the important part of one's travel experience. People may travel for learning foreign language or they may travel for other interests (e.g. learning history and culture) and social practices (e.g. travel and making local friends) which can be facilitated by learning the foreign language. In this case, learning foreign language can be taken as channel to pursue other aims.

### **2.1.3 Learning foreign language as process/function in travel**

Learning foreign language can be taken as a means towards the pursuit of other special interests. Since language is a tool of communication as well as a resource of cognitive development (Foley and Thompson, 2003), learning foreign language can facilitate communicating with local people, or reaching the relevant information of other special interest such as local history, culture or arts. It can also help the individual obtain a deeper understanding of the people and the culture of the place because language is the central means by which people make sense of the world, understand each other and construct culture (Barker and Galasiński, 2001).

Especially, the practices of language notably signify the shared meanings of culture (Barker and Galasiński, 2001). The practices of language symbolically produce meanings within the material and institutional contexts. Through exploring how meanings being produced by these practices, the culture can be understood. In this case, learning a foreign language may help people understand the related culture and how other people-mostly the

native speakers of this language-make sense of the world. Sense of place is also important to study cultures (Relph, 2008). People may realize they cannot study and understand a culture without being in a place with the culture. They may travel to a specific place to learn and experience the culture. In this sense, even if people travel for learning foreign cultures and else, learning foreign languages can be a supporting agent in forming their motivation of taking action for travel.

Furthermore, cultures themselves are mobile and travel as well as people, which results from the diverse mobilities including corporeal travel, the mobilities of objects, imaginative mobilities and virtual travel (Rojek and Urry, 1997; Urry, 2000). The mobility of peoples, objects, images and information across national borders produce and reproduce social practices as well as cultural forms. The travel of cultures inevitably brings about the admixture of elements and hybrid cultures, which make it a challenge to sustain the purity of the culture and to represent the reality of the places (Rojek and Urry, 1997). The parallels between the traveling cultures and traveling peoples imply that knowing cultures involves work of “memory, interpretation and reconstruction” and it “almost always involves travel” (Rojek and Urry, 1997:12). People who are interested in cultures may travel for some culture's sacred sites for example the location featured in famous novels or movies, the places where historic events took place, or those related to some celebrities and their documentary records.

Mobility across national borders is entailed in especially diasporic cultures (Rojek and Urry, 1997). Chinese culture is regarded as one of the diasporic cultures (Ma, 2002) and knowing this culture might involve international mobilities. As mentioned above, language is the central means to understand cultures, accordingly learning mandarin could be important to understand Chinese culture. Here it echoes with what has been discussed above: language learning is not necessarily the *end* of educational travel and it also can be the *means* to other ends for example learning cultures or fulfilling other special interests. Therefore, in order to explore how learning foreign language can motivate people to participate in educational travel, several other stimulus involved need to be examined, for example the purpose and practice of learning foreign language; one's special interests in

relation to certain culture or place; and one's sense of place which could be influenced by the language learning.

#### **2.1.4 Place and sense of place**

Hall (2005) highlighted role of *place* in understanding the individual's mobilities. Institutional and individual practices occur in places where there are specific settings for the social interaction and relationship construction. There are three components of place: "locale", "location" and "sense of place" (Agnew 1987, in Hall 2005:93). Locale refers to the settings where social relations are constituted. For the individual, it means the settings for personal social relations and interpersonal activities. Location refers to the factors of certain places, for example macro environment and societal systems, which externally affect the people at the place. Since my research issue is concerned with tourist motivation which is at the individual level, the three aspects of place that are associated with individual are specified as *settings*, *social/interpersonal connections* and *sense of place* (see Figure1).

Particularly, sense of place is "exclusively place-based" and the properties of the physical environment contribute to one's sense of place (DeMiglio and Williams, 2008:21). As a response towards the characteristics or aspects of the environment, sense of place "involves both interpretive perspective on the environment and an emotional reaction to the environment" (Hummon, 1992:262). Therefore, it depends on the individual and the context of the place. The degree of experiencing sense of place varies from person to person (Relph, 1976) and depends on a number of factors such as the nature of the place and time (DeMiglio and Williams, 2008:21).

Sense of place is not only subjective but also intersubjective (Relph, 2008). It combines "seeing, hearing, smelling and touching with memory, responsibility, emotions, anticipation and reflection" (Relph, 2008:36). On the one hand, sense of place is subjective since it is the "conceptual being" (Stefanovic, 2008:47) that people have in mind, which can take shape through establishing relations directly with the place. On the other hand, sense of place is also intersubjective because the individual can make sense of the place through communication with other people, for example local people from the place or people in some communities. This interaction may result in kind of shared or common sense of place.

Moreover, one's sense of place can be reinforced by this interaction and the consequent social connections, for example belonging to a community in the place (Relph, 2008). Learning foreign language can facilitate interaction with local people and smooth one's stay in the place. Since the "experiences of a place are always framed by and contribute to a social context and shared language" (Relph, 2008:36), learning foreign can influence the experience at the place and therefore the sense of place.

Furthermore, Relph (2008:36) differentiated *sense of place* from *sense of a place* by arguing the former refers to the ontological awareness while the latter refers to the synthaesthetic faculty to identify specific places. In this case, what is examined in my study is actually sense of a place because it is related to specific place (China). It refers to the faculty by which the individual identifies the properties of China and differentiates it from the others place.

Besides, places comprise of complex networks and flows that are non-static and fluid (Hall, 2005). Accordingly, the individual's sense of place is a dynamic construct and tends to vary with culture and over time (DeMiglio and Williams, 2008). Specifically, during learning foreign language, people may communicate with native speakers of this language and get access to the information in this language. They can be involved in the communities either in virtual space or in reality. Their social connections therefore can be extended through language foreign language. These interactions may influence the way people make sense of the foreign country as a place, differentiate the place from the others and encourage people to travel in order to know more about the place. One's sense of place is produced through establishing relationships with the place in the social interaction and tourism can be viewed through these interconnected transnational social networks and linkages which account especially for transnational mobility (Hall, 2005). Therefore, in order to explore the travel motivations of educational tourists, it is necessary to examine how these transnational social connections are established between the individual and the place, as well as how they influence the individual's sense of place.

### **2.1.5 Conceptual framework**

Drawn from the discussions above, a conceptual framework of Learning-Travel-Place is

established (Figure 1). It is a flexible and evolving rudimentary device which is used as a preliminary instruction for data collecting and analysis. The improved conceptual framework is presented in the latter part of this thesis, incorporated with insights arising from the analysis.

As illustrated in this figure, it is assumed that learning can motivate people to be mobile because of the linkage between learning and the place, as well as the one between special interests and the place. The object of learning can be language, culture or else. Accordingly, learning language can be taken as product or process/function. Learning language or pursuit of other special interests can motivate people travel to a specific place while learning can be the primary motive (education first) or secondary motive (tourism first) for the travel. The linkages with the place can be reflected from three aspects: setting of place, social connections with place and sense of place. Particularly, sense of place is emphasized here in examining tourist motivation because it captures the essence of relationship the individual forms with the place (DeMiglio and Williams, 2008). Besides, among others, it encompasses the emotional bonds with the place, which can be derived from social connections, and the awareness of the settings of the places, which can be cultural, historical etc. (Williams *et al*, 1998).

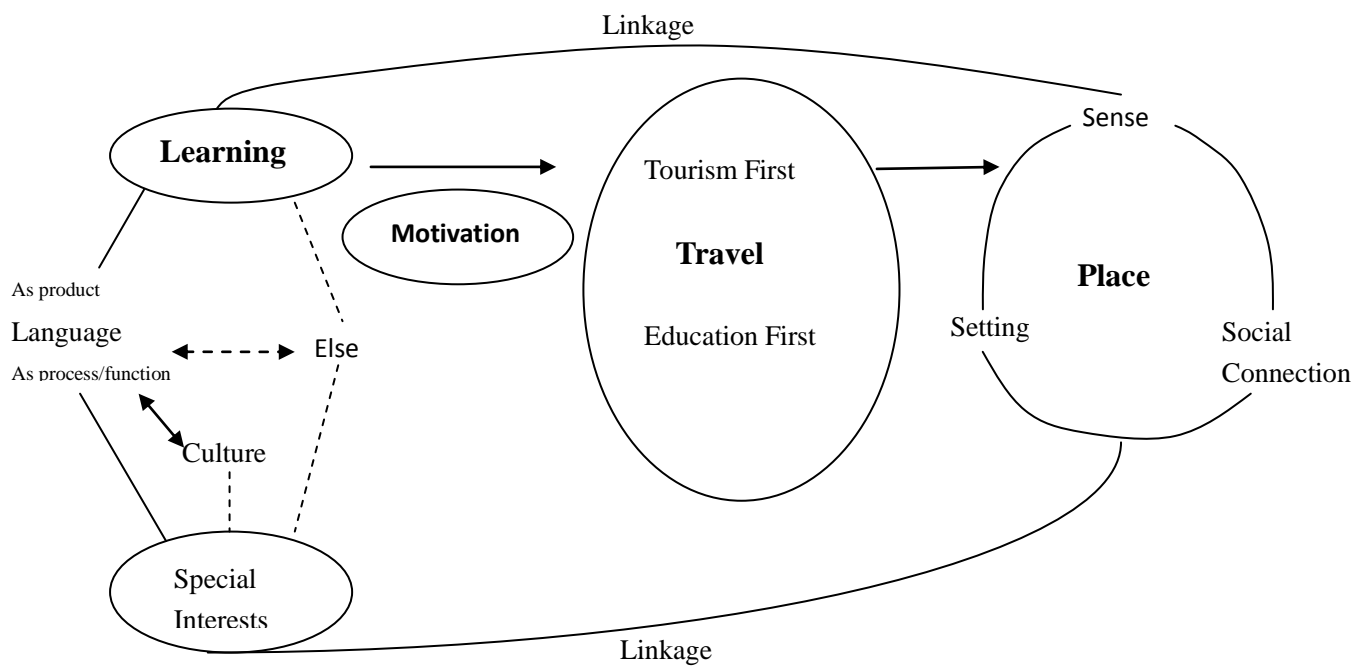


Figure 1. Learning-Travel-Place: conceptual framework

## **2.2 Learning foreign language in travel motivation**

### **2.2.1 Tourist motivation**

Tourist motivation was argued to be the stage that triggers the whole decision process and channels it accordingly (Mansfeld, 1992). It is a complexity since it can change during a trip or over the tourist's lifetime (Hall, 2005) and the travel can be initiated by one-motive situation, leading-motive(s) situation or multi-motive situation (Mansfeld, 1992). As discussed above, education /learning can be the primary or secondary part of an educational journey. Learning foreign language, as product, can be the end of the educational travel. Learning foreign language, as process or function, can also be a way towards other aims of educational travel.

In order to understanding both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, Mansfeld (1992) suggested incorporating the study of tourists' stated preferences and their actual choice. Hall (2005) pointed out that tourist motivation can change during a trip or over their lifetime. He argued that tourist motivation should be examined in the context of the individual's life course and it can be further understood in relation to the travel behavior. Therefore, in quest of the research questions, the tourists' travel behaviors during the journey are taken into consideration since the motive is not observed directly but inferred from the tourist behavior (Murray 1964, in Snepenger et al, 2006). Moreover, pre-journey behavior also might reflect tourist motivation because motivation and intentions may dictate how to prepare the trip (Ritchie, 2003:17).

Witt and Wright (1992) introduced expectancy theory to study motivation since content theory can only partially explain the motivated behavior. Content theory is focused on the needs while needs is only a "potential source of motivated behavior" and there are other possible aspects that influence individual's motivation, these studies (Witt and Wright, 1992: 44). Therefore they proposed a unifying framework and make it possible to incorporate all other motivation theories. Motivation researches increasingly employ more holistic approach which seeks to integrate emotions and cognition in the individual's decision-making process (Gnoth 1997). In light of integrating the insights from both content theory and expectancy theory, I try to identify both emotional and cognitional factors in the

educational tourist's motivation in quest of how learning can motivate people to be mobile, leaving space for all possible explanations.

There are much of foundational early work on tourism motivations, for example push-pull theory and the four dimensions analysis of personal/interpersonal-seeking/escaping (Dann, 1977, 1981; Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1982). The push motivations are viewed as relatively general and can be fulfilled in various ways whereas the pull motivations are thought to be more specific and attached to some destination (Crompton 1979). Klenosky (2002) further examined push-pull motivational framework using means-end theory and proposed more research on how push and pull factors are related.

Gnoth (1997) proposed a theoretical distinction between tourist motives and motivation motives. The former are internally generated drives (push factors) from the behaviorist or needs-based perspective. They emphasise the emotional parameter of decision-making. The latter are argued to indicate object-specific preferences (pull factors) from the cognitivist perspective. They focus on the situational parameters and the rational weighing up of situational constraints (Gnoth 1997).

Besides the cognitive and reasoning process involved in motivation stage, there are non-conscious influences on motivation, as social cognition research shows (Bargh, 2002). People have various needs and goals and the particular goal in place changes the individual's focus of attention and evaluation of objects and events, as well as relevant memory (Bargh (2002). Bargh (2002) argued that all of these needs and goals can be activated and operate non-consciously, which means the person may not be aware of their influence on his/her evaluations and behavior. In relation to the current study, needs and goals underneath the learning behavior can non-consciously influence the individual and result in his/her positive or negative evaluation of mobility and therefore approaching or avoiding travel. The non-conscious primes can be delivered either subliminally or supraliminally, which means either the primes being not accessible to the person's awareness or the person being aware of the primes but not of their potential influence. Social cognition research showed that both of the ways influence judgments, motivations, and behaviors (Bargh 1992).

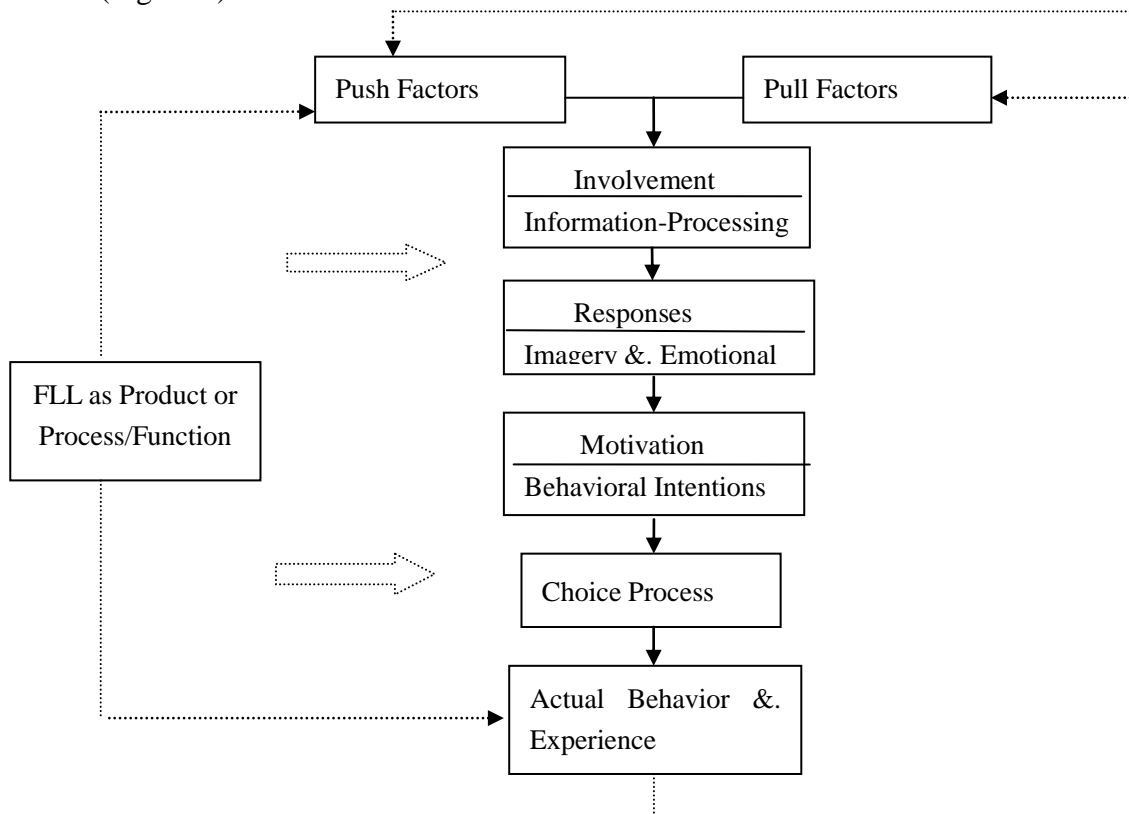
Several tourism theorists have defined motivations for vacations (for example Crompton



1979; Goossens 2000), which can be referred in my research for mainly two reasons. Firstly, the underpinning theories are shared, for example the push-pull theory (Dann, 1977, 1981) and the four dimensions analysis of personal/interpersonal-seeking/escaping (Iso-Ahola, 1982). Secondly, as mentioned above, owing to the convergence of education and tourism, education/learning is becoming an important part of leisure experience while leisure activities are incorporated in educational travel. Considering the shared basic theories and the overlapped practice, researches on motivation of hedonic tourism can be referred for study on motivation of educational tourism to some extent.

### 2.2.2 Conceptualizing learning in travel motivation

Goossens (2000) proposed a Hedonic Tourism Motivational Model which illustrated the motivational and emotional aspects of destination choice. Although it was designed for Hedonic tourism in a marketing context, it can be referred for my research because of the common underpinning motivation theories and the convergence of learning and leisure, as mentioned above. Therefore, I used this model as prototype and modified it on the basis of the relevant theoretical discussions above. In quest of the research questions, a rudimentary conceptual model of LFL (learning foreign language) in travel motivation is established as follows (Figure 2).



**Figure 2.** LFL (learning foreign language) in travel motivation

(Source: based on Goossens, 2000: 304)

Unlike the conceptual framework in 2.1.5 (Figure 1) which illustrates the static linkage between learning and travel, Figure 2 above shows how motivation is formed in the dynamic process. It is employed to examine whether and how learning foreign language can influence through the motivation stage, which is marked with dotted line and will be verified by the empirical data later on.

The internal and external motivators contain push factors and pull factors, which integrates the drive-based emotions and cognitions in the individual's decision-making process (Gnoth 1997). Learning foreign language may entail the need/drive for improving language skills. *Involvement* is the information processing of push and pull factors in the individual's brain. It is an unobservable state of motivation, arousal, or interest, which is evoked by particular stimulus or situation and results in searching, information-processing, and decision-making (Goossens 2000). Learning foreign language may arouse the individual's interest in communicating with native speakers and it can also facilitate searching relevant information in the target language.

After the information processing of the push and pull factors, mental imagery and emotions arise through processing sensory or cognitive information in spoken, written, or pictorial format and from diverse sources (Tybout and Artz 1994; Van Raaij and Crotts 1994). They reflect the emotional and cognitive responses of the individual, which are the two aspects needed to be considered when examining tourist motivation (Gnoth, 1997). Cognitions refer to "mental representations such as knowledge or beliefs" while emotions encompass "drives, feelings and instincts" (Gnoth, 1997:287). Imagery processing can be either at a low level of cognitive elaboration, such as mentally picturing a static stimulus object, or at a high level one which includes creative thinking and daydreaming (Goossens, 2000). In relation to my research, the possible relation between learning foreign language and the enactive imagery will be examined because enactive imagery, in which the individual is highly involved with the travel information, has a stronger potential to elicit

behavioral intentions (Goossens, 2000).

Besides imagery response, emotional experiences can be manifest through the call for action or through elicitation of behavioral intention. It is differentiated from feelings since feelings are elicited from certain objects or situations while emotions are elicited from opportunities and risks in obtaining or avoiding those objects or situations (Goossens, 2000). In my research, the influence of learning foreign language on travel motivation can be examined through the cognitive part of the individual's emotional response which involves goals, plans and beliefs (Goossens, 2000).

Last, motivation (behavioral intention) comes into being and choice is made on educational travel or the other forms of travel. The actually travel experience may influence the tourist's dispositions and generate new needs or drives (push factors). It can also influence pull factors in terms of unvisited attractions which are discovered by the tourist during their travel at the place. Therefore, the actually travel behavior and experience can influence the push and pull factors and possibly result in revisits to the place.

### **2.3. Summary**

In this chapter, based on literatures and previous researches, the linkages among learning language, travel and place are discussed and conceptualized (see Figure 1), as well as the possible influence of learning on tourist motivation (see Figure 2). Since language and other objects of learning (e.g. culture) are attached to a place in terms of settings and social connections, learning language or pursuit of other special interests can involve travel to the place. Particularly, sense of place plays an important role in examining tourist motivation because it captures the essence of relationship the individual forms with the place (DeMiglio and Williams, 2008). Furthermore, it can be derived from the other two aspects of place examined in discussion - settings and social connections. For example, sense of place includes emotional bonds and physical environment relations (Williams *et al*, 1998), which can be derived from social connections with the place and the setting of place respectively. The conceptual framework of Learning-Mobility-Place (Figure 1) illustrates the linkages between learning and specific place which are the preconditions for exploring learning in

tourist motivation.

In consideration of the shared underpinning theories about tourist motivation and the convergence of learning and leisure, Goossens's (2000) Hedonic Tourism Motivational Model is employed as the prototype for my research. Based on theoretical discussion, this model is modified in quest of the second research question (see Figure 2) which shows the possible influence of learning foreign language on tourist motivation. The actually travel behavior and experience can generate new push and pull factors and possibly result in revisits to the place. This conceptual model will be tested and improved in light of the data analysis later on.

### **3. Methodology**

---

This chapter will present the research methods I use in the research. This thesis is an exploratory qualitative research within the interpretative paradigm, using a semi-structured interview to collect data. Abductive is adopted as the primary reasoning approach. The data collection process is explained in detail as the study going on. Research validity and reliability will also be examined.

---

#### **3.1 Research type – qualitative**

This thesis aims to study how learning can motivate people to travel, which indicates that I will describe and interpret how learning acts on individual's motivation instead of measuring determinants or constructing statistical models to analyze related concepts. Therefore, it is the nature of the research aim and research questions that make a qualitative approach more suitable. Furthermore, before carrying out the fieldwork, I only know roughly but not clearly about the possible aspects to explore the research questions. The qualitative approach can therefore broaden the understanding of the issue in question more than the quantitative approach would do.

However, I am fully aware that tourism researchers, especially when employing qualitative study, must be very cautious when making general, theoretical, statements on the basis of empirical research because the research deals with human beings in the varying and

ever-changing social and physical environment (Veal, 2006). Thus I do not have intention of making generalizations. I try to be careful to make a general statement when analyzing the empirical data. The research findings in this thesis relate only to the subjects involved, at the time and place the research was conducted.

### **3.2 Reasoning approach –abductive**

There are three scientific reasoning approaches which are called the deductive, inductive, and abductive (Walton, 2004). Inductive reasoning moves from the specific to the general. In the case of an inductive approach, theory is derived from the empirical data (Blaikie, 2009). In contrast, deductive approach draws on previous understandings of theory, from which the hypothesis is developed and tested by empirical data (Veal, 2006). The study at hand is a qualitative research in which “theory development and data collection and analysis are often intertwined, rather than being sequential” (Veal, 2006:62). In consideration of the lack of specified theoretical model that illustrates learning and mobility in tourist motivation, and based on relevant concepts and general motivation theory, I conducted the rudimentary conceptual frameworks to conduct fieldwork. Through analyzing the empirical data from fieldwork, an improved conceptual framework is proposed afterward. Therefore, the general reasoning approach in this thesis is more close to abductive.

The abductive approach is seen as combination of inductive and deductive, which can be described as a reciprocal action between theory and empirical data (Thagard and Shelley, 1997). Abductive reasoning typically begins with an incomplete set of empirical data and presents the likeliest possible explanation for the phenomenon (Thagard and Shelley, 1997). Therefore it can be intuitive and revolutionary. The abductive analysis in my research was a query-driven process, which was triggered by asking how and why (Walton, 2004). I tried to discuss possible explanations by bouncing back and forth between theory and empirical evidences and by comparing the interview responses. The conclusion is a tentative assumption relative to the progress of my research to a given point (Walton, 2004). However, it could be meaningful as a reference for collecting data at a larger scale or for research on other geographic segmentations or different learning objects.

### **3.3 Research strategy**

The research strategy used in any study is predominantly defined by the purpose of the research. The purpose of this research is to explore how learning can motivate people to be mobile and specifically how learning Chinese can motivate Swedes to travel to China. I aim for providing new insights for further study in the future.

Therefore, this paper conducts an exploratory qualitative research within the interpretative paradigm. Specifically, based on reviewing the relevant concepts and theories in literatures, especially in relation to learning, language, mobility and tourist motivation, I propose two conceptual frameworks as presented above. These frameworks are referred to conduct the fieldwork and collect empirical data. They are also employed to explain the phenomena and interpret the possible answers to the research questions. Through analyzing the data, the rudimentary conceptual frameworks are examined and the improved ones are presented.

Motivation is a series of physiological activities especially *involvement*, as Goossens (2000) put it, is an unobservable state of motivation, arousal, or interest. Therefore, study on motivation entails getting immersed into the interaction with the research subjects to probe their motivation and identify both conscious and non-conscious influences on their motivation. Interview is considered appropriate for collecting the empirical data. The relevant text materials, e.g. learning/travel diary/blog, are also considered to be examined because these written contents might imply their motivation which might not be stated orally during interview. However, according to the responses from interviewees, not all of them made the relevant records. As for those who had been writing blogs for some time, the contents are reported to be in Swedish and the linkages were expired and not available any more. Therefore, the analysis in this thesis is mainly focused on data collected during interviews.

### **3.4 Data collection and analysis**

#### **3.4.1 Sample selection and sample size**

In consideration of the research questions, samples are selected with set criterion which is

Swedes who are learning mandarin. As an endeavor to maximize variation, I tried to reach the samples through diverse channels. During February and March, I started with some Swedes within my personal contacts who are learning mandarin. Meanwhile, through sending message on a language-learning website Polyglot (Polyglot, 2011), I contacted 37 members who list mandarin as their learning language on their profile message, including the active members and inactive ones (referring to their last login date). By the end of April, three of them replied to me, showing their interest in my research.

In the mid-March, I sent an email to the Chinese Studies programme of Lund (Lund, 2011) and asked for the contact of the Swedish students who are learning Chinese. One month later, I received the reply with 42 email addresses of the students. I emailed the interview requests to all of them right away and by the end of April I received one response that confirmed their willingness to be interviewed.

There is one Swede who is learning mandarin contacted me initiatively. He visited my profile in a website called Community of Sweden (Community of Sweden, 2011) and left his email expressing his expectation of knowing more about China.

Either through personal contact or other channels, none of the interviewees are my close friend. I also contacted EF and STS and asked for contacts information of their customers since both of them arrange language travel to China. However, they declined for privacy reason.

Totally nine Swedes are interviewed individually during middle of March to the end of April. There are four from personal contact, three from Polyglot, one from mandarin programme in Lund and one initiative contact. The responses from the interview informants offered rich information for the analysis in this thesis. Since qualitative methods permit studying the research issues in depth and detail with quite limited sizes of samples (Patton, 1990), I tried to deal with the empirical material in detail and proposed a conceptual model for future research.

### **3.4.2 Designing interview guide and questions**

Based on the theoretical framework discussed above, an interview guide is designed to

conduct the semi-structured interviews. It is comprised of two sections-the interviewee's characteristics and the open questions. The former includes the basic information of the interviewee such as current resident place, gender, age, educational background and occupation. The choice of open question corresponds to the research type and strategy in the thesis. Since the interviewees' experience and motivation can be diverse, open question leaves space for all explanation and makes it possible to identify non-consciously influence on the respondent's motivation. It can lead to verbatim replies which can provide a rich source of varied material which might be overlooked by closed-questions (Veal 2006:252).

The interviewees can be divided into two groups: those who learn Chinese and have been to China and those who learn Chinese but have not been to China. The former is asked with total four open questions and the latter with three. There are two common questions for both groups and two special questions for the former and one for the latter respectively. The interviewees are asked about their experience of learning Chinese, as well as travel to China.

I took the interviewees' travel behaviors/experience during the journey into consideration because the motive is not observed directly but inferred from the tourist behavior (Murray 1964, in Snepenger et al, 2006). Tourist motivation can be further understood in relation to the travel behavior because it can change during a trip (Hall, 2005). Moreover, pre-journey behavior also might reflect tourist motivation because motivation and intentions may dictate how to prepare the trip (Ritchie, 2003). Therefore, both the interviewees' stated preferences and their travel behavior are examined in order to understand their intrinsic and extrinsic motivations (Mansfeld, 1992), especially the non-conscious influences on motivation (Bargh, 2002) and the unobservable state of motivation *involvement* (Goossens, 2000). That is why the interviewees include two groups, including those who have been to China and those who have not been to China.

Under each open question, there are several sub-questions (*italic in Appendix 1*) which were asked during the interviews to help the interviewees start talking when the interviewee responded as having no clue to answer. However, some of the interviewees covered several sub-questions spontaneously without being asked.

The first open question for both groups is: *Please describe your story of learning*



*mandarin. Why do you learn it?* The interviewee was encouraged to tell the thorough story that covers but not limit to why and how they learn mandarin. The motivation of learning can indicate if they take learning mandarin as an *end* or as a process/function to other *ends* (Ritchie, 2003). This question was asked to understand how these Swedes consider the convergence of learning and mobility (Ritchie, 2003) and identify the possible linkage between learning mandarin and the place (China). Also, sub-questions about how they are influenced by learning mandarin was put forward since it might change their way of thinking including consideration of mobility.

The second open question is: *Please tell something about China.* The interviewees were asked about their image of the place (China) which might include specific setting at the place and possible special interest related to the place. More importantly, the question is for probing the interviewee's sense of place which is the subjective feeling associated with China (Agnew 1987, in Hall 2005). Also, it is intersubjective (Relph, 2008:37) and indicated by the interaction between individuals and the consequent social connections (Relph, 2008:37).

Besides the two common questions, those who have been to China were asked two special questions as follows:

1. *Please describe your journey to China.*
2. *Please describe your experience in China.*

These two questions were put forward because tourist motivation can be further understood in relation to the travel behavior (Hall, 2005). They may reveal that whether learning mandarin is the primary or secondary motives and experience for the interviewee's travel to China. They also indicate learning mandarin is taken as product or process/function. Particularly, sense of place can be drawn further from what the informants describe their journey and experience in China. Those who have been to China more than once were asked to specify each journey.

Instead, those who have not been to China were asked one special question: *How do you consider travel to China?* The answer to this question may cover but not limit to the travel plan, expectation and the possible factors that influence their motivation of travel to China.

As mentioned in 3.3 Research strategy, all the interviewees were asked if they made travel records (e.g. blogs) or if they know other Swedes do so. I tried to obtain some relevant text materials which might imply their motivation which might not be stated orally during interview. However, according to the responses from interviewees, few of them offered the linkages and the contents are reported to be in Swedish and the linkages were expired and not available any more.

### **3.4.3 Conducting interviews**

Before each interview, appointment with the interviewee was scheduled via email, Skype or phone to ensure consent and availability of each other. Since the interviewees are located all over Sweden and also being subject to their limit available time, all the interviews were conducted through Skype during the middle of March to the end of April. Although face-to-face interaction might offer richer observable and perceivable information such as body language and expressions, Skype interview could make the interviewees feel free to tell about their motivation because people might feel nervous or reluctant to state their motivation face-to-face to especially a stranger. At the beginning of each interview, I briefly introduced my research issue to the interviewee and emphasized the confidentiality of any information from them.

The interviews were conducted in English. During the interviews, I tried to be neutral and avoid making any positive or negative comments. I rephrased and explained the questions when the interviewee had difficulties understanding the questions, I also intermittently paraphrased and summarized what the respondent was talking about in order to ensure that the answers would be interpreted accurately later on. Besides covering the sub-questions under each open question, the interviewees were free to provide additional information under the interview guide. At times some of them strayed from the point and turned to irrelevant topics. I did not interrupt the interviewee when they kept talking and stray from the asked question because I tried to make them feel comfortable and more importantly the free talking might reflect the non-conscious influence on their motivation (see 2.2.1 *Tourist motivation*). If they talked too far away from the topic, I leaded them back to the question

during the pause of their talking or moved on to next question without giving any comments on their answers. According to the response from the interviewee, some of the interviewees were asked with personalized specific questions in order to probe further information related to the research issue.

During the interview, most of the interviewees reported it is difficult to answer the *why* questions. It usually took longer time to think about their motivations and put them in words. Some of them simply replied "I don't know" when it comes to the questions that are explicitly related to motivations and drives, for example *why do you learn mandarin* or *why China is attractive to you*. However, later on when answering other questions, they unconsciously offered the answers to the former questions that they thought they could not answer before (Interview informants 1-9). Some of the interviewee also responded hesitatingly and offered ambiguous answers to some questions. For example, when asked *what does China mean to you*, they replied *I don't know* first and then continued talking about their feeling for the country and explain why the place was meaningful to them (Interview informants 1-9).

The duration of the interview varies between 40-80 minutes. Generally, the interviews with the Swedes who have been to China took longer time since they were asked more question about the travel experience. Still, the duration of the interview depended on the talking speed of the interviews and how talkative they were. Four interviews are recorded by cell phone and five by a downloaded Skype recorder software called Ifreeder. The recorded interviews were transcribed afterward and the answers and the questions were sorted out as showed in the interview transcripts.

#### **3.4.4 data analysis**

The recorded interview audios were transcribed into written format prior to the analysis. The interview transcripts were scrutinized reviewing the recorded videos. The data were analyzed by employing thematic analysis technique (Bryman, 2001; Smith, 2010). Firstly, the responses were read, reread, and the key words (e.g. learning, travel, place) were marked out with color pens, as well as the frequently occurred words because they could be salient

in the minds of interview informants.

Secondly, in relation to the context, line-by-line coding was applied to the marked key words in order to identify the similarities and differences and group them into themes and sub-themes. In light of Figure 1 and Figure 2, three main themes were structured to answer the research question: *learning language/pursuit of special interests attached to place, learning language and sense of place and learning in travel motivation.*

Thirdly, extra attention was paid to the answers of *why* questions since they may imply the informants' motivation. I compared the different answers to the same why questions across the informants and asked myself why they were similar or different. Meanwhile, I searched for missing information because they may indicate what the informants were unwilling to answer or the possible assumptions made by them. For example, if the informants did not explain why China was their travel destination instead of other places, it might be because they assumed that everyone (including me) should know the exclusiveness (you may have more than one choice to going abroad to learn English) therefore they leave out the information.

The interview informants include two groups: those who have been to China and those who have not. Particularly, when analyzing *learning language and sense of place* in 4.2.3, I divided the two groups and made comparison in between them because the sense of place involves the actual experience at the place.

### **3.4 Research validity and reliability**

Validity is the extent to which research represents what it is intended to represent while reliability is the extent to which research is replicable (Veal, 2006). Since random sampling is rarely possible for qualitative research (Silverman, 2004), I focused on the samples which I get access to (Patton, 1990) and studied the research questions in depth and detail with these limited sizes of samples (Silverman, 2004). I contacted Swedes who learn mandarin so they can offer relevant information about learning and (possible) plans or experience of travel. Based on literature review, open questions were designed for the semi-structured interviews, assuring they are relevant to the purpose of my research. The open question may

leave room for the interviewees to offer any additional information since individual motivation can be diverse. Considering that people may be reluctant to tell their real motivation for travel if it is deeply personal or intimate (Crompton 1982, in Witt and Wright, 1992:40), the interviewees were asked about their motivation as well as the actual or planned behavior. And they were encouraged to explain the discrepancies if there would be any.

I conducted one-to-one Skype interviews in an environment (at respective home) where respondent was feeling comfortable and answer the questions independently without being influenced by other people (compare with group interview), as well as to assure privacy, confidentiality, non-judgmental views. Before conducting the interviews, I made clear the purpose of the study to the interviewees. All interviews were recorded so as to produce reliable transcripts. Before analyzing the data, I rechecked the consistency of the information.

What might hinder validity is the fact that the interviews were conducted in English, which is neither my mother tongue nor any of the interviewee's. However, since all individuals are fluent in English, I do not consider it as a significant hindrance to the validity of the research.

#### **4. Empirical findings and analysis**

---

In this chapter the data collected by semi-structured interview will be analyzed by themes and sub-themes, which are derived from the theoretical framework of this thesis. Meanwhile, I will leave room for possible discovery from data analysis in order to reach the improved conceptual model.

---

The profile of the interview informants will be introduced, followed by data analysis in correspondence with the theoretical framework. First, the linkages between learning and place are discussed through analyzing the interviewees' narrations of their learning mandarin or pursuing other special interests in relation to China, especially sense of China. Secondly, I will try to incorporate findings into the rudimentary conceptual model of LFL in

travel motivation (Figure 2) and propose an improved model (Figure 3) in order to illustrate how learning mandarin can motivate Swedes to travel to China. Meanwhile, an endeavour will be made to present the interaction between learning and mobility, aiming to grasp an overall picture.

#### **4.1 Profile of interview informants**

The nine interviewees are located all over Sweden, aged from 18-33 and all males. I have no intention to select the gender but it turned out to be the way it is. They have diverse educational background ranging from high school to PhD. Seven of them are now students (including PhD) and the other two are working. Only two out of the nine interviewees are now taking full-time Chinese courses while the others are self studying although some of them took courses before. Five out of the nine interviewees have been to China, of which two have been there more than once. The other four have not been to China but two of them have specific scheduled travel there.

#### **4.2 Recognized linkage between learning and place**

##### **4.2.1 Learning language at place**

As the *conceptual framework 2.1.5* shows, language can be attached to some place in terms of supporting settings and accessibility. The two groups, those who have been to China and those who have not been to China, both consider it is necessary to go to China to study Chinese. For those who have been to China, China is the “best place to study Chinese” because “everyone speaks Chinese” there and you “have to speak Chinese” to make yourself understood (Interview informant 4). It is “so much easier to learn” Chinese in China since you can practice in daily life such as “buying train tickets, food or else” (Interview informant 2). “You have all of the opportunity to really learn” Chinese in China since “you have to get over” the language barrier and get encouraged “to start using” Chinese, for example “go to the market place and negotiate in Chinese” (Interview informant 3). In contrast, it is “harder in Sweden because you don’t get any chance to practice” (Interview informant 2). You “can only use Chinese in class like ten hours every week” and even if

“grammar can be picked up very quick in school, you have to get used to use the language in everyday life and you can't do that in Sweden” (Interview informant 4)

Among the five informants who have been to China, four of them reported they learned Chinese during their stay in China, either in a formal way such as taking courses in university or with help from a private tutor, or in an informal way such as daily life practice (see Interview informant 2-4, 8). These correspond to prior research in that the learning practice in educational tourism can be formal or informal (Ritchie, 2003).

For those who have not been to China, it is also realized that “Practice is important for learning foreign language” while practicing Chinese in Sweden “is usually limited to reading” because “not so many people” in the society speak Chinese (Interview informant 5). They “want to go to China to study” because of the “need to practice more oral Chinese” and “listening abilities”, for which “there's just not enough opportunity” in Sweden “even if you try really really hard” (Interview informant 6). There is one Swede considered that travel to China will offer “the opportunity to learn mandarin in a much more authentically way” because being “able to communicate with the local people in their own language is far more authentic than communicating with them using English” (Interview informant 9). For him, learning Chinese in China seems not the *end* of his envisaged travel to China but a *means* to interact with local people, a process towards social contact. Here it echoes what I discussed in 2.1.3. that learning language can be not only the product but also the process or function in travel.

For most of the interview informants, travel to China is considered as an opportunity to learn Chinese in the favorable environment (daily life context), which is not available in Sweden, to practice Chinese during daily life especially as for listening and speaking. Learning Chinese can motivate these Swedes to travel to China in order to improve their language proficiency, as well as to apply this instrumental skill to other aims for example social activities. Compare with those who have not been to China, those who have been to China expressed their understandings of the linkage between learning language and the setting of the place in a more detail and affirmative way. One possible explanation can be that their understandings are based on their own experience in China, involving the

comparison with their study experience in Sweden. Therefore, the travel experiences help them identify the differences of learning language in different place and confirm their opinions about learning Chinese in China.

#### **4.2.2 Pursuit of other special interests at place**

Besides language, the other special interests mentioned mostly by the interview informants are food and culture, which are also considered attached to the place. Those who have been to China expressed their passion for Chinese food. They love Chinese food but “Chinese food in Sweden is not Chinese food”, they are “western-influenced” (Interview informant 2). It is “like Swedish-Chinese food” (here in Sweden) and the genuine Chinese cuisine in China “is really good and diverse” (Interview informant 3). One of those who have not been to China said he “heard” the Chinese food “here in Europe is pretty awful” so when he travel to China, he “would like to try real Chinese food” since he has “never tried genuine Chinese food” (Interview informant 6). Although he also considered he would get real Chinese food only in China, the longing seems more come from his curiosity than from actual preference because the future travel experience may turn out to be positive or negative. He might like Chinese food in China or might not. Since he has not been to China, he heard the information from other people. His opinion about food in China could be mostly influenced by the experiences of other people around him for example the “friends who also study Chinese” in school (Interview informant 6).

Culture is also regarded as another element that attached to the place. “You can really get the culture in China” because “something that may not make sense when you try to learn it in Sweden but they make sense in China so that you have to go there to know what they really mean” (Interview informant 4). Another informant further explained how he learned culture at the place:

*“When you toast and put the glasses together...we heard that the person who was higher position in the company had his glass higher. And we thought this can't be true. When we were there (in China), we tried this actually. When I toasted with one of the people in the company, he refused to give a toast to me if I didn't have my glass higher than him. He wanted it to be polite. And I was very surprise...It was very important to learn to be polite.*



As can be seen from his response, he “heard” about the local etiquette and “thought this can’t be true”, later on when he experience it in China, he understood it as a way to show politeness. Although in some senses, cultures travel and are not fixed in place in terms of sets of objects (e.g. artworks, handicrafts) (Urry, 2000), there are still cultural elements such as life style and virtues which are *societally structured* (Urry, 2000:8) and attached to the place. You have to go there to experience, feel and understand them in certain context at the place. Furthermore, the perceived exclusiveness of the culture can be another determinant that influences to what extent the culture is perceived to be attached to a place. The overall image of China and its culture, according to the informants, is “different” or “exotic” or “diverse” (interview informants 1-9). They considered China shared little culture or tradition with other country especially western countries so that you have to go and see the whole picture of its culture in China.

Since Chinese food and culture are regarded being attached to China in a way. Pursuit of these special interests naturally involves travel to China. As discussed in *2.1.1 Learning and travel*, besides as product, learning language can also be seen as process or function for other interests during the travel. It is perceived by the informants that learning language can facilitate the pursuit of other interests for example food, culture or travel itself. For example, you can use the learned language when “buying things, ordering food in the restaurant, taxi directions” (Interview informant 3). In addition, “learn some basic mandarin” would “help get along in China” and “get to understand people when travel” (Interview informant 8). Besides, there is a connection between language and culture because “language contains a lot of culture” so that “you can’t know the language without knowing the culture” And also “you can’t know the culture without knowing the language” (Interview informant 4).

The responses from the informants reveal their understanding about how learning language is related to their special interests. Learning Chinese can smooth their stay in China and contribute to their pursuit for food, culture and else. If it is perceived that learning language can facilitate pursuit of other special interests, it can be the situational parameter

that rationally weighs up the motivation of travel (Gnoth 1997) because it would make the travel for special interests more promising and practicable. In this case, even if learning language is not the main *tourist motive* for travel (e.g. travel mainly for food and culture not for learning language), it can be (one of) the *motivation motive(s)* as Gnoth (1997) put it (see 2.2.1 *Tourist motivation*).

#### 4.2.3 Learning language and sense of place

As argued in 2.1.2 *Place and sense of place*, sense of place may play an important role in motivating people to travel and it includes both subjective and intersubjective attributes. I will analyze the relevant responses from the interview informants in relation to their learning, with comparing the two groups - those who have been to China and those who have not been to China. Generally, the former offered richer information than the latter during the interview.

The subjective sense of place can be perceived from how the informants who have been to China expressed their emotion related to the country in a general way such as “I like China, I like the people, I like the food, I like the culture” (Interview informant 2,4). Meanwhile, they also related it to specific places in the country. For example, when talking about his experience in China, one informant said he “often went to Xidan just for looking” because he “just likes the place” (Interview informant 4). And when one of them went to China for the third time, he “went to the scenic spots again” and he has “been to the Forbidden City three or four times” (Interview informant 3). When talking about his coming revisit to China, one informant said he will fly to Hongkong “to see Hongkong and Shenzhen again, just for old time’s sake” (Interview informant 8). It is indicated from these responses that for those who have been to China, the emotional attachments (e.g. nostalgia) to some specific places in China account for their sense of place. These emotional attachments can result from previous travel experience. The place-related memories make these places familiar and meaningful to them. Their sense for these places (where they have been to) may substitute for their sense for the whole country to some extent.

Admittedly, for some informants it seems complicated to explain their emotion for China. As one of them said, people “always ask me why and I can’t really answer” but in the future

he “want to go back” (to China) “as quickly as possible” (Interview informant 4). Individual difference such as personality can be one of the factors related to this emotion, as one of the informants said:

*“I think it (China) matches my personality quite well...I'm usually a little bit like the Chinese on the inside...I feel like visiting this kind of culture suits me quite well...the way I think and feel...it's kind of matching the Chinese lifestyle. Ok, it might sound a little bit crazy...”*

–Interview informant 7

It is perceived that their sense of place involves the sense of belonging. As Relph (1976) described, the rooted sense of place is feeling an emotional connection to for example the residential place. However, these Swedes' rooted sense of place seems connected to China instead of to Sweden where they reside. China might be their imagery home and the place is where they emotionally belong to.

How learning language can influence this subjective sense of place? As discussed in 2.2.1. *Tourist motivation*, the individual's various needs and goals can be activated and operate non-consciously and the person may not be aware of the influence on his/her evaluations and behavior (Bargh, 2002). When being asked if learning Chinese changed their worldview or lifestyle, the initial responses from most of the interview informants were like “I don't know or I don't think so” (interview informants 1-9). However, later on they admitted learning Chinese did bring some changes, for example it “build up an interest in China” and his “focus has been more in China” (Interview informant 1). It also changed “habit of reading and music” and more attention was paid to “Chinese history and politics” (Interview informant 6). “Reading Chinese paper” can offer “very different point of view” (Interview informant 5) which may influence their way of thinking. Generally, “the more language you learn, the more perspectives you get to looking at one thing” (Interview informant 8). As can be seen from their responses, the interview informants were aware that learning mandarin influenced their worldview, lifestyle and behavior. However, they didn't report the influence until the question was rephrased and without those terms. Therefore, instead of being influenced non-consciously, their travel motivation can be influenced sub-consciously by

learning mandarin.

In a word, learning language can change, consciously or sub-consciously, their focus of attention and influence their way of thinking which may change the evaluation of objects and events. Since people tend to seek out places where the norms of behavior and expressed values and lifestyles match their own (Williams and Patterson, 2008), learning language can mediate this seeking process by offering the access to extensive information in this language which is related to the place. This place-related information may encourage the individual to realize what they really need or appreciate. In this sense, the seeking for match process is incorporated with self-discovery and self-reflection.

In contrast, instead of reflecting a strong sense of place which involves strong emotion such as affinity, responses from those who have not been to China seem relative general. For example, China is stated to be “a huge country” which has “so much to see” and to “experience” (Interview informant 1). The sense of place can be vague or even doubtful because most of what he read “really debates what” he has “heard about China” (Interview informant 5). Although “China is wonderful in many ways” for example it “is very exotic”, “different” and “mystical”, there would be “problems coping with when going there” because of the differences in “politics” and “human right codes” (Interview informant 6).

The differences between the responses from the two groups may result from the intersubjective attribute of sense of place, which combines for example “seeing, hearing, anticipation” and “reflection” (Relph, 2008:36). Those who have been to China have experience at the place, seeing, hearing things and interacting with people at the place, while those who have not been to China do not have the experience at the place and might have to resort to the information from internet or friends around them. The response from one of the informants who have been to China may explain how his sense of place can be strengthened through the experience at the place:

*“They (people in China) are very very outgoing and social. Everyone is friendly and wanna help us. I’m a Swede myself but Swedes are not really that outgoing. If you look lost in middle Stockholm, lots of people would just stop and ask, ‘Are you lost? Do you need help?’ But in China, they do all the unexpected things for you. They might invite you home and treat you with dinner and everything. They’re very very friendly. That’s why I like*

-Interview informant 2

As can be seen from his experience, the interaction with local people in the specific social context helped him identify the properties of the place (China). Through comparing with the other place (Sweden), he appreciated the values or virtues in the society (e.g. hospitality and politeness). The reason why he likes China was confirmed. However, for those who have not been to China, they may hear that China is different and exotic but they do not have personal experience at the place to support their feeling. In addition, the information about China obtained by the interview informants without corporal mobility could be limit because most of the information they searched for learning language or other interests related to China is from internet, newspaper or radio and it is in English or Swedish, according to their responses.

For the Swedes who have not been to China, the sense of place is mostly formed by the information they obtained from for example media or other people. Even if they have some contact with people from China, it is still hard to say their sense of place is sense of real place because they have not been exposed to the meaningful and rather messy contexts of everyday life which the real place possess (Relph, 2007). Therefore, their sense of place is actually sense of virtual place. Furthermore, virtual places cannot be authentic since to be authentic is to be real (Relph, 2007). The authentic sense of place involves a sense of belonging to place (Relph 1976), which is perceived only from the responses of Swedes who have been to China. In this sense, only those who have been to China have the authentic sense of place (for china).

Therefore, travel to a place and the experience at the place are important to frame or strengthen one's sense of place which comprises the emotional attachment to the place, the meaningfulness of the place and the sense of belonging etc. In turn, the positive sense of place could be the essential factor in motivating them to (re)visit the place because sense of place is related to emotional well-being and it can influence the individual's mental state and therefore affect the respond to a place through action (DeMiglio and Williams, 2008). As one of the interview informant said he will “probably go back to China again because” he

“really do like China and travel there” (Interview informant 2).

Learning language can influence one's intersubjective sense of place in various ways. It can help people know more about the place through getting access to more information in this language (e.g. Interview informant 4, who is a relative advanced learner). Furthermore, learning language can facilitate interacting with people in the place, either through cyber communication or meeting face to face. Since the *experiences of a place are always framed by and contribute to a social context and shared language* (Relph, 2008:36), the experience you would have at the place may depend on how much you know the shared language and the consequent interaction with local society. Learning language can help relieve the distance between strangers. For example, one of the interview informants told me “a very good experience” in China. When he met local people, even if he “spoke very little mandarin but tried to start with Nihao” (hello), “Duibuqi (means sorry) and something like that in Chinese”, and people seemed “relieved” and turned to be “very happy” instead of looking at him “suspiciously”. And therefore he never felt “insecure or disturbing” because he “was speaking mandarin like that” (Interview informant 2). It can be reflected from his story that learning mandarin made him feel comfortable and easy at the place and enhanced his sense of place in terms of *satisfaction*. Besides, learning language can also help establish social connections with the place, taking another informant's experience for example:

*“There was a Xiaomaibu (snack counter) in the campus with benches and tables outside. People were often just sitting there and talking. So every evening I went there and tried to talk to people. Sometimes I met new people and we just went to have dinner and something, talked and came back in the evening...I registered for Renrenwang (a social media website) and talked to people there. I met some people in really life too that I met there.”*

–Interview informant 4

As reflected from the response above, learning language provided the opportunity to socialize in the place, to enjoy local life, to meet and interact with people, to make friends and establish social connections. Sense of place can be strengthened by these social

connections and therefore encourage people revisit the place. Besides facilitating establishing social connections at the place, learning language also offers possibility of establishing connection with the place through cyber communication. There is one informant who reported his first journey to China in the near future is mostly because his wife is from China and they just got married. Interestingly, he met his wife (who is Chinese) when practicing Chinese online (see interview informant 5). The possible reason why his three-year Chinese studying did not motivate him to travel to China before can be implied from his sense of place. From his understanding, China is “large”, “diverse” and very “different” from Sweden. And the information about China available for him is incomplete and doubtful. It is implied that this differences and incomplete information about China make him feel insecure because the possible difficulty to understand each other's language at the place. Even if you know Chinese (mandarin), “you can't just easily go to someone in Guangdong” (where the dialect is Cantonese) “and understand their mother tongue” (Cantonese). Although he claimed he did “not have a very strong sense of place,” actually he did have sense for the place which is related to the insecure and unfamiliar emotion. However, after the marriage, the sense of place seems to be positively strengthened by the marital connection with the place. He has specific plan for travel to China that he “will go there in one and half month” and “plan to spend half of the time in traveling and half in staying with her (his wife) family” (Interview informant 5). Therefore, sense of place can be strengthened by establishing social connections with the place. It is an important factor in calling an action for travel to the place through influencing the individual's motivation consciously or sub-consciously.

Another explanation for his case can be that his purpose of learning Chinese seems different from the other interview informants. It is “not like want to work in China” or “other special interest”. Instead, he likes Chinese because the Chinese character is “an interesting system”. It is “elegant” since it “does not have inflections”. He learned Chinese just because of the language itself. It is for the aesthetic but not the utility of the language. Therefore, it seems no urgency for him to travel to China to learn the language. The purpose of learning language can be the conditional factor that influence to what extent learning

language exerts on people's travel motivation, which I will discuss together with other conditional factors and constraints later on.

Besides, learning language also influence one's sense of place through their *anticipation* related to the place (Relph, 2008:36). For example, some of the informants related learning Chinese to their plan for future career in China. It is believed that China "is soon becoming a world market" so that learning Chinese "would be a very big advantage" as for the work competition (Interview informant 2). And "it is very good to have Chinese in resume" (Interview informant 6). They were planning future career in China, "go to China and work there" (Interview informant 2), or "work in China for a few years" (Interview informant 6), or to "try best" to find a job in China "as soon as graduate" (Interview informant 4).

It seems that the usefulness of the language (Chinese) and the power of the place (China) are realized by these informants. Learning Chinese can advantage them in the career competition. It is believed that going to China can not only helps them learn Chinese better but also make them get closer to their dream of future career. They have goals or plans about learning or working in the place. In this sense, the place (China) is not only a place for visit, for travel, for fun, but also a place that carries their dream or hope for future, where they might find promising career opportunities. Learning language can help their future plans come true and fulfill the anticipation related to the place. These *goals, plans and beliefs* reflect the individual's *emotional response* related to the place (Goossens, 2000), which may result in behavioral intention of travel to the place (see 2.4 *Conceptualizing learning in travel motivation*).

#### **4.2.4 Other conditional factors – stimuli and constraints**

To what extent learning language can motivate people to travel to a specific place could be subjected to some conditional factors. For example, although all of them were aware of travel to China can contribute to their language learning, they explained their travel plans in various ways. One Swede who is working as a doctor right now stated that he will revisit China "in the coming years when I have time" (Interview informant 3). The one who is on his midway of university study planned "to work all through this summer so that next



summer” he will “have money to go to China to really learn more Chinese” (Interview informant 6). Another Swede planned to “go to China this year in August” because he will graduate from high school soon (Interview informant 7).

Among others, *time* and *finance condition* can be the conditional factors, as well as the individual's *life course*. As Hall (2005) pointed out that tourist motivation can change over lifetime and it should be examined in the context of the individual's life course. The individuals' various life courses (e.g. working, studying, nearly graduating) need to be taken into account when examine how learning language can motivate them to travel to the place, especial concerning long distance travel (e.g. Sweden to China). Besides, *purpose of learning* can be another conditional factor. People may learn language for social purpose, career purpose or for the language itself as mentioned above. These diverse purposes influence how learning language can be attached to a certain place.

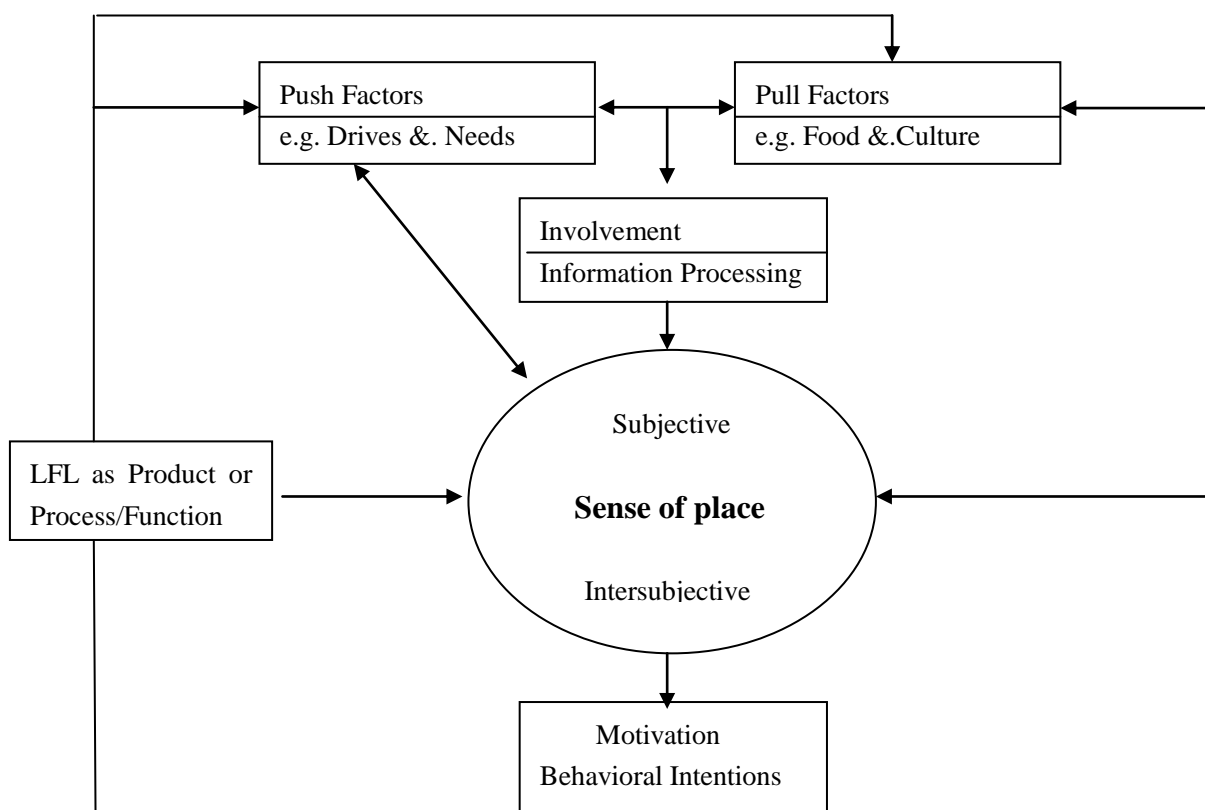
Another factor that is concerned with to what extent learning language can mobilize people could be the *exclusiveness of objects*. On the one hand, exclusiveness means that the individual perceives there are few substitutes for the target language or for other special interests. On the other hand, it refers to the availability of the facilities/settings/environment that can support learning this language or pursuit of other special interests. For example, if the target language is spoken by a great amount of people (or community) in the learner's home country (or in some other countries) or is supported by educational system in the country (or in some other countries), the learner may not necessary go to a specific place to learn it since there are many alternative places. Therefore, it seem the more different the language is from the individual's mother tongue or the more this language is attached to a specific place, the more likely learning can motivate people to travel to the place. Although it seems self-evident, I should have asked the interview informants if they considered go to other place (besides China) to study Chinese.

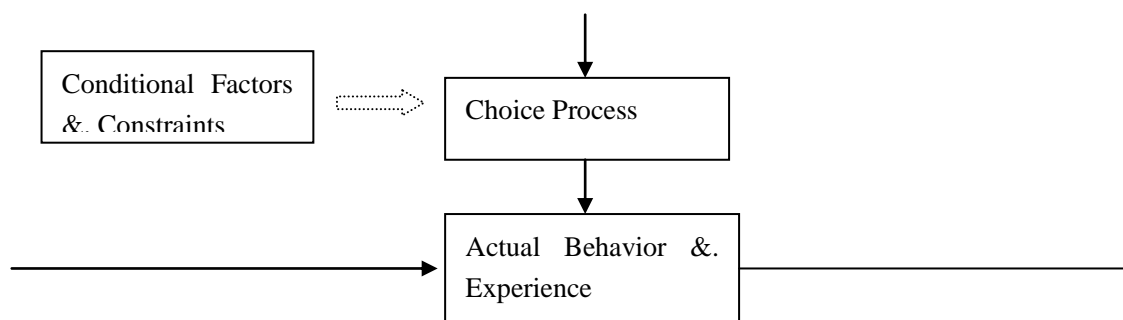
*Educational system* is another conditional factor that supports the travel motivation. For example, one of the Interview informant's planned trip to China is mostly for the “the culture course in China” which is a “cooperated programme” by Swedish educational institution (Folkhögskola) and culture institution in China (TCG Nordica) (Interview

informant 1). One of the informants went to China for the internship in China which was included in his university programme in Sweden (Interview informant 2). Another informant's first journey to China included taking the language programme in a Chinese university which cooperated with Lund University (Interview informant 4). The international cooperation in a country's educational system can impel the tourist motivation into action since it can facilitate the arrangement of the journey. For example it can help them with accommodation and ease the finance pressure to some extent, according to the interview informants.

### 4.3 Learning foreign language in travel motivation (improved model)

In light of the proposed *conceptual framework in 2.1.5*, the discussions above cover how the interview informants considered learning Chinese and pursuit of other special interest are attached to the place (China), as well as how learning language can influence their sense of place. The results of the discussion above are incorporate into the conceptual model in 2.4 (Figure 2) and achieve the improved model as follows (Figure 3):





**Figure 3: Improved Model: Learning in Travel Motivation**

Based on the empirical data, I will explain the main adjustments in this model and illustrate how learning language can influence the whole motivation stage.

In Figure 3, *Responses* in Figure 2 are substituted by *Sense of place* because the latter involves the imagery and emotional responses (e.g. the goals, plans and beliefs related to a place) and meanwhile comprises broader implications, either subjectively or intersubjectively. Some subjective elements in sense of place interact with push factors. For example, the sense of belonging or affinity with a place can generate the drive or need of going to the place while the internal needs (which may vary with different personalities) have effect on framing one's sense of place. One's sense of place takes shape through information processing of the push and pull factors and leads to the behavioral intention of travel to the place. It can also be strengthened by the individual's experience at the place and result in revisiting the place (see 4.2.3 *Learning language and sense of place*).

As illustrated in Figure 3, the influence of learning foreign language can be identified all through in the process of motivation. Firstly, either as an end/product or as a means/process/function towards other special interests, learning foreign language has effect on both push and pull factors. On the one hand, pursuit of special interests or continuation of education involves the drive for travel which provides intrinsic rewards (push factors) such as self-fulfillment, education and learning (Iso-Ahola 1983, in Ritchie, 2003). Besides, the communities or social activities involved in learning may generate push factors such as *enhancement of kinship relationships and facilitation of social interaction* (Dann, 1981:191). On the other hand, language and some of the special interests (e.g. food, culture) can be the

pull factors themselves since they are attached to the place in consideration of for example favorable settings and availability (see 4.2.1 *Learning language at place* and 4.2.2 *Pursuit of other special interests at place*). The social connections at the place which are established through learning can also be a pull factor. Pull factors both respond to and reinforce the push factors (Dann, 1981:191). For example, the need of enhancing kinship relationship may result in establishing more social connections at the place while the established connections reinforce the facilitation of social interaction.

Secondly, learning language can influence one's sense of place either subjectively or intersubjectively (detail see 4.2.3 *Learning language and sense of place*). You get to know the place and have access to the information about the place through learning the language. As one of the interview informants reported, "*when you learn about the Hanzi*" (Chinese characters), "you pick up things at the same time like how the characters are composed" and "learn a bit about Chinese history" (Interview informant 3). Some other informants get access to the interested information about China (e.g. history, politics) from reading involved in learning language (Interview informant 5) or from people in the community of learning language (Interview informant 6). Besides, learning language facilitates interaction with other people especially local people at the place and consequently results in possible social connections with the place. These social connections can strengthen their sense of place in terms of for example emotional bonds and place meaningfulness. Moreover, through learning language and the interaction involved, they may find the shared norms of behavior, expressed values and lifestyles in the place and therefore seek for the place (Williams and Patterson, 2008) which leads to behavioral intention of travel to the place.

Thirdly, learning language can influence the individual's actual behavior and experience which may generate new push and pull factors, strengthen the individual's sense of place (as mentioned above), and therefore result in possible revisit to the place. Learning language can facilitate communication and interaction with local people while the individual's experiences of a place are framed by this social context and shared language (Relph, 2008:36). The travel experience influence can stimulate internal drive or need (push factors) for example self-reflection, which is implied from the response of one of the informants:

*“...they're (things in China) different from that in Sweden. It's like when you experience something different, you get to think why you look at the world this way. You expand your views because if you stay in one place, look at the same things all the time and talk to the same people, you would end up with thinking that's the only way to think about the world. But that's not the case. It's just your way of thinking.”*

–Interview informant 3

Through experience the differences at the place, he realized things are not necessary like this way. The experience at the place broadened his horizons and changed his worldview. He was encouraged to ask why and rethink and therefore developed a drive for self-reflection (push factor).

The pull factors generated by the individual's experience at the place can be the reinforced or new-discovered attractions, for example the food, nice native people and unexplored travel sites (Interview informants 2-4). As the response from one of the interview informants revealed, he knew where to go next time; he wanted “to go the south and the southwest” because he had “only been to the North” (Interview informant 3). Moreover, it also implied the need of seeking for unexplored places.

There are *other conditional factors* that influence the choice process, as showed in Figure 3. For example, time, finance condition, individual's life course, purpose of learning, the exclusiveness of objects and the educational system (see 4.2.4 *Other conditional factors-stimuli and constraints*). They weigh against each other and the synthetic effect can be the stimuli or the constraint factor in turning the behavioral intention (motivation) into actual behavior.

#### **4.4 Interaction between learning and mobility**

As illustrated in Figure 3, learning language can motivate people to travel to a place more than once (first visit and revisit). The interaction between learning and mobility can be an

escalating cyclical process. Taking two of the interview informants' experience as example, one informant stated that he "tried to learn a few words" before going to China for the first time, but when he got there he "realized that it was hard to make him understood". Therefore, before his second visit to China, he "prepared by this 90-lesson tapes". And after coming back home from the second visit, he "took the official Chinese course in Lund University" (Interview informant 3). Another informant he took Chinese course in China to improve his language skills during the first visit to China and tried to "avoid the other foreign students but just stick to Chinese students". Now he considered his "level is high enough" and there is "no need to go to the any courses to learn" but "just go to China to learn to speak more natively" (Interview informant 4).

It is indicate from these two cases, learning and mobility can facilitate each other in the *leanring* → *praticing/testing at place* → *leraning* circle. Leaning can mobilize people and the travel experience can encourage them to learning more.

#### 4.5 Summary

As analyzed above, it is recognized by the informants that the language (mandarin) and other special interests, such as food and culture, are attached to China in a way. Therefore, learning mandarin or pursuit of other special interests (with learning mandarin as a means) can motivate them to travel to China. The recognition of these linkages can be grouped into either push or pull factors in their travel motivation.

Comparatively, those who have been to China reveal stronger sense of place than those who have not been to China. Their sense of place comprises, but not limit to, the imagery and emotional responses. It involves emotional attachments, sense of belonging, satisfaction, anticipation, meaningfulness and so on. Travel to China and the experience in China are important to form or strengthen one's sense of place. In turn, the strengthened sense of place could be the essential factor in motivating them to revisit China. In a sense, those who have not been to China do not have authentic sense of place but have sense of virtual place so to speak.

The findings from fieldwork are incorporated into Figure 2 and the improved model

(Figure 3) is presented with sense of place being highlighted. Learning language can influence sense of place in various ways either consciously or sub-consciously since some of the informants responded as if they were not aware of it. Learning language enables people to obtain the place-related information in the target language. And it also facilitates interactions with local people either through cyber communication or meeting face to face and further establishing social connections with the place. Learning language can influence the whole motivation stage.

The improved model also reflects *other conditional factors* that influence the choice process. For example, time, finance condition, individual's life course, purpose of learning, the exclusiveness of objects and the educational system. Overall speaking, the interaction between learning and mobility is perceived as an escalating cyclical process.

## **5. Concluding discussion**

The research aim of this thesis is to explore how learning can motivate people to be mobile. Towards this aim, two questions have been asked - "how learning mandarin can influence Swedes' sense of place (China)?" and "how learning mandarin can motivate Swedes to travel to China (including first visit and revisit)?" Semi-structured Skype interviews with nine Swedes, who were learning mandarin, have been conducted.

The data analysis has showed that all the interview informants have recognized the linkages between learning (mandarin) and the place (China) to some extent, which has provided the precondition for examining how learning mandarin can influence their travel motivation. Especially, sense of place embodies their cognitional and emotional responses towards China. Learning mandarin can influence both subjective and intersubjective aspects of their sense of place either consciously or sub-consciously.

In subjective domain, learning the language can turn their focus of attention towards China, as well as change their way of thinking and the criteria of evaluation. Since people tend to seek out places where the norms of behavior, expressed values and lifestyles match their own (Williams and Patterson, 2008), learning language can mediate their seeking endeavor. It offers the opportunities of getting to know the possible more matched place and

nurture their goals and dreams at the place. The learning process can also broaden their horizons and encourage them to engage in self-discovery and self-reflection. Therefore, learning mandarin can influence the relations Swedes form with China in two ways. Given the individual differences, this influence on their sense of place can be conscious, as expressed explicitly, or sub-consciously, as reflected in responding to the rephrased questions instead of the designed questions.

In the intersubjective domain, learning mandarin can facilitate communicating with other people, especially Chinese people, in real space or in virtual space, during which shared sense of place can be reached. The interaction with local people may possibly lead to social connections with China, which can strengthen the Swedes' relationship with China and result in shared sense of belonging, emotional attachment, place meaningfulness or satisfaction. And the strengthened sense of place contributes to their revisits to China.

Sense of place plays a significant mediating role in motivating the Swedes to travel to China. As showed in Figure 3, it directly leads to the behavioral intention, namely motivation. Sense of place is produced by the involvement of push and pull factors positive and overlaps with push factor in some cases. It can be strengthened by the Swedes' actual experience in China and the reinforced sense of place can be the fundamental stimuli in the Swedes' motivation of revisit to China.

In short, learning mandarin can take part in the tourist motivation stage via sense of place. Besides, it can also influence the cyclical motivation stage through other paths, as illustrated in Figure 3. On the one hand, learning mandarin itself can be the motive of travel to China because the language is attached to China to some extent. In this case, drive of learning is the push factor while the favourable learning environment or facility at the place is the pull factor. On the other hand, if learning mandarin is seen as process or function towards other special interests, it directly influences four elements in the motivation system – push factor, pull factor, sense of place and actual behaviour/experience (see Figure 3).

Several conditional factors are identified to be the stimuli or constraints in Swedes' travel motivation, which may affect to what extent learning mandarin can motivate them to travel to China. For example, time, finance condition, individual's life course, purpose of learning,



the exclusiveness of objects and the educational system.

In a word, the linkages between learning or learning-facilitated activities and place are the precondition for how learning can motivate people to be mobile. All of the interview informants in the current study recognized and emphasized these linkages, therefore learning can possibly motivate them to travel to China. However, it is the sense of place that lie underneath tourist motivation and mediate all the factors that are involved throughout the motivation stage. Besides, there are several conditional factors that are involved in the rational weighing up process and can be the stimuli or constraints for their decision making.

The current study demonstrates the potential to enhance the understanding of the role learning plays in travel motivation. However, the analysis and conclusion are based on limited empirical data. Collecting data at a larger scale is needed to test the proposed model for the purpose of market research in the future. Especially, for the Sweden as a niche market, future research can focus on examining the importance of sense of place and other conditional factors in their travel motivation. Besides, the samples in this study are all males, which is not my intention though. The gender difference can be taken into account and comparative study can help further understand the role of learning plays in tourist motivation.

## References:

- BBC, *Mandarin learning soars outside China*, 2007-01-09,  
<http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/asia-pacific/6244763.stm>, Accessed 2011-03-22.
- China Study Abroad, <http://www.chinastudyabroad.org/index.aspx>, Accessed 2011-03-22.
- Community of Sweden, <http://www.communityofsweden.com/>,  
EF Education First, *Language Programmes*  
<http://www.ef.com/#agegroup%3DHOST%2Fproduct%3D%2Ftarget%3Dinner-content%2Fsite%3Ddefault>, Accessed 2011-02-13.
- Lund University, *Chinese Studies*,  
[http://www.lu.se/o.o.i.s?id=7130&task=view\\_english\\_organization\\_information015030001&username=](http://www.lu.se/o.o.i.s?id=7130&task=view_english_organization_information015030001&username=),
- Xinhuanet, 2010-03-22, *UNWTO: China to become world's top tourist destination by 2015*,  
[http://news.xinhuanet.com/english2010/china/2010-03/22/c\\_13219683.htm](http://news.xinhuanet.com/english2010/china/2010-03/22/c_13219683.htm),  
Accessed 2011-03-22.
- Mandarin House, <http://www.mandarinhouse.cn/index.htm>, Accessed 2011-03-22.
- Mynewsdesk, 2011-04-08, *Här avgörs vilka svenska gymnasieelever och studenter som är bäst på kinesiska*,  
<http://www.mynewsdesk.com/se/pressroom/su/pressrelease/view/haer-avgoers-vilka-svenska-gymnasieelever-och-studenter-som-aer-baest-paa-kinesiska-613709>, Accessed 2011-04-13.
- Polyglot, <http://www.polyglot-learn-language.com/>
- STS, *STS språkkurser i hela världen*, <http://www.sts.se/sweden/ils/kursorter/>, Accessed 2011-02-13.
- WYSE, *Global Directions in Language Travel* (2008), <http://www.wysetc.org/Research.aspx>,  
Accessed 2011-02-13.
- Bargh, A. John (2002) *Losing Consciousness: Automatic Influences on Consumer Judgment, Behavior, and Motivation*, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 29(2): 280-285.
- Barker, Chris & Galasiński, Dariusz (2001) *Cultural studies and discourse analysis : a dialogue on language and identity*, London : Sage.
- Blaikie, Norman (2009) *Designing social research: the logic of anticipation*, Publisher Cambridge : Polity.

Booth, Wayne C., Colomb, Gregory G. & Williams, Joseph M. (2008). *The Craft of Research*. Chicago: Chicago University Press.

Bryman, Alan. (2001). *Social Research Methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Chan, Jennifer Kim Lian & Baum, Tom (2007) *Motivation Factors of Ecotourists in Ecotourism Accommodation: The Push and Pull Factors*, *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 12: 4, 349-364.

Chirkov, V.; Vansteenkiste, M.; Tao, R. ; Lynch, M. (2007) The role of self-determined motivation and goals for study abroad in the adaptation of international students, *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, Vol. 31 (2): 199-222.

Crompton, J.L. (1979) Motivations for pleasure vacation, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 6(4): 408-424.

Dann, G.M.S. (1977) Anomie, ego-enhancement and tourism, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 4(4) : 184-194.

Dann, G.M.S. (1981) Tourist motivation an appraisal, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 8(2):187-219.

DeMiglio Lily & Williams Allison (2008) A sense of Place, A sense of well-being, in Eyles, John & Williams, Allison (eds.) *Sense of place, health and quality of life*, Aldershot: Ashgate.

Dornyei, Zoltán & Csizér, Kata (2005) The Effects of Intercultural Contact and Tourism on Language Attitudes and Language Learning Motivation, *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 24(4), 327-357.

Fodness, D. (1994) Measuring tourist motivation, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21(3):555-81.

Foley, Joseph & Thompson, Linda (2003) *Language learning: a lifelong process*, London : Arnold.

Gnoth, J. (1997) Tourism motivation and expectation formation, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(2): 283-304.

Goossens, C. (2000) Tourism information and pleasure motivation, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(2): 301-321.

Hall, Colin Michael (2005) *Tourism: rethinking the social science of mobility*, Harlow: Pearson/Prentice Hall.

Hummon, D.M. (1992) Community attachment: Local sentiment and sense of place, in I. Altman and S.M. Low (eds.) *Place Attachment*, New York: Plenum Press.

Iso-Ahola, S.E. (1982) Toward a social psychological theory of tourism motivation: A rejoinder, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 9(2): 256-262.

Klenosky David B. (2002) The "Pull" of Tourism Destinations: A Means-End Investigation, *Journal of Travel Research*, 40(4) : 396-403.

Ma, Laurence J. C. (2002) *Space, place and transnationalism in the Chinese diaspora*, Hongkong : The Centre for China Urban and Regional Studies, Hong Kong Baptist Univ.

Mansfeld, Y. (1992) From motivation to actual travel, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(3), 399-419.

Markham, N. A. (2004) Internet communication as a tool for qualitative research, in David Silverman (eds.) *Qualitative research: theory, method and practice* (2ed.), London: SAGE.

McCabe, A.S. (2000) Tourism Motivation Process, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(4): 1049-1052.

Nyaupane Gyan P.; Paris Cody Morris; Teye Victor (2011) Study abroad motivations, destination selection and pre-trip attitude formation, *International Journal of Tourism Research*, Vol. 13 (3) : 205-217.

Patton, M. C. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. London: Sage

Relph, Edward (1976) *Place and Placelessness*, London: Pion.

— (2007) Spirit of place and sense of place in virtual realities, *Techn évol*.10 (3):17-25.

— (2008) Sense of Place and Emerging Social and Environmental Challenges, in Eyles, John & Williams, Allison (eds.) *Sense of place, health and quality of life*, Aldershot: Ashgate.

Ritchie, Brent W., with Neil Carr & Chris Cooper (2003) *Managing educational tourism*, Buffalo: Channel View Publications.

Rojek Chris & Urry John (1997) Transformations of travel and theory, in Rojek Chris & Urry John (eds.) *Touring cultures: transformations of travel and theory*, London : Routledge.

Silverman, David (2004) *Qualitative Research: Theory, Method and Practice*, Thousand Oaks:Sage.

Silverman, David (2007) *A Very Short, Fairly Interesting and Reasonably Cheap Book about Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Smith, Stephen L.J. (2010). *Practical Tourism Research*. Oxfordshire: Cabi.

Snepenger, David; King, Jesse; Marshall, Eric; Uysal, Muzaffer (2006) Modeling Iso-Ahola's Motivation Theory in the Tourism Context, *Journal of Travel Research*, 45(2), 140-149, Sage Publisher.

Stefanovic Leman Ingrid (2008) Holistic Paradigms of Health and Place: How Beneficial are they to Environmental Policy and Practice, in Eyles, John & Williams, Allison (eds.) *Sense of place, health and quality of life*, Aldershot: Ashgate.

Thagard, P. & Shelley, C. (1997) Abductive reasoning: Logic, visual thinking, and coherence. In: M.-L. Dalla Chiara et al (eds), *Logic and Scientific methods*. Dordrecht: Kluwer, p.413-427.

Thurlow, Crispin & Jaworski, Adam (2010) *Tourism discourse: language and global mobility*, New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Tybout, A. M. & N. Artz (1994) Consumer Psychology, *Annual Review Psychology* 45:69–131.

Van Raaij, W. F., & J. C. Crotts (1994) Introduction: The Economic Psychology of Travel and Tourism, *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, vol.3(3):1–19.

Urry, John (2000) *Sociology beyond societies: mobilities for the twenty-first century*, London: Routledge.

Veal, A. J. (2006) *Research methods for leisure and tourism: a practical guide* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.), Harlow : Financial Times Prentice Hall.

Walton, Douglas (2004) *Abductive reasoning*, Tuscaloosa, Ala.: University of Alabama Press.

Whatmore, Sarah; Pryke, Michael & Rose, Gillian (Eds.) (2003) *Using Social Theory: Thinking Through Research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Williams, D. R. Stewart, S.I. (1998) Sense of place: An elusive concept that is finding a place in ecosystem management, *Journal of Forestry*, Vol. 66(5):18-23.

Williams R. D. & Patterson E. Min (2008) Place, Leisure, and Well-being, in Eyles, John & Williams, Allison (eds.) *Sense of place, health and quality of life*, Aldershot: Ashgate.

SMMM02-Master's Thesis  
ShangGuan FangPing  
1 June, 2011

---

Witt A. Christine & Wright L. Peter (1992) Tourist motivation: life after Maslow, in Johnson Peter & Thomas Barry (eds.), *Choice and demand in tourism*, London: Mansell.

SMMM02-Master's Thesis  
ShangGuan FangPing  
1 June, 2011

---