

MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS INFLUENCING
CHOICE AMONG ARAB STUDENTS OF
MALAYSIA AS EDUCATIONAL TOURISM
DESTINATION

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ABSTRACT

In this study, the researcher investigates the motivations of Arab educational tourists in Malaysia. This study employs a model entitled “a model of Arab educational tourist motivations” of push and pull factors developed by the researcher to determine the motivations of Arab educational tourists traveling to Malaysia. Data was collected from 424 Arab educational tourists (60.5 percent of the total sample) who are studying at seven academic institutions in Malaysia (UM, UPM, UIAM, UUM, USM, MMU, UNITEL). Factor analysis was conducted to identify tourism motivations and cultural factors of Arab society. Pearson correlation analysis technique was used to find the relationship between push and pull factors of tourism motivations and the relationship between Arab culture and push and pull factors of tourism motivations. Test of differences like T-tests and One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were employed to determine the differences in Arab educational tourists’ motivations according to their demographic factors. Logistic regression was used to find out the influence of tourism motivations, cultural factors and demographic factors of Arab educational tourists on destination choice (Malaysia).

The results of factor analysis in this study identified five push factors and six pull factors. The five push factors (intrinsic desire) extracted were: ‘Escape’, ‘Personal reasons’, ‘Enjoying natural resources’, ‘Adventure and excitement’ and ‘Knowledge’. The six pull factors (attributes of destination) identified were: ‘Cultural and natural attractions’, ‘Cost’, ‘Country image’, ‘Knowledge and awareness’, ‘Social environment’ and ‘Safe environment’.

The factor analysis of cultural items resulted in six underlying domains, 'Individualism', 'Uncertainty avoidance', 'Social interdependence' (collectivism), 'Helping others' (collectivism), 'Family relationship' (collectivism) and 'Inequalities and hierarchy' (power distance). Pearson correlation analysis technique found significant correlations between the majority of push and pull factors. Pearson correlation also found significant correlations between tourism motivations and cultural factors in most factors.

The findings of ANOVA and T-tests revealed significant differences in Arab educational tourists' motivations traveling to Malaysia according to their demographic factors. The results of logistic regression test revealed that one of the five push factors 'Knowledge' was found to be significant, whereas the other factors were not critical determinants in choosing the destination. Besides, this study found that five pull factors, 'Social environment', 'Country image', 'Cultural and natural attractions', 'Cost' and 'Safe environment' have a significant influence on destination choice. Regarding the cultural factors, 'Helping others' (collectivism), 'Family relationship' (collectivism) and 'Inequalities and hierarchy' (power distance) were found to have a significant influence on the destination choice, while the rest three factors were not significant in the selection of the destination. For demographic factors, one factor 'Educational level' was found to have a significant influence on destination choice. The other factors, 'Age', 'Gender', 'Marital status' and 'Income level' were not significant in choosing the travel destination (Malaysia).

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the study background, theoretical framework, problem statement, objectives of the study, scope of the study and definition of key terms used in this study. These are followed with discussion on the contribution of this study. Finally, this chapter ends with a discussion on organization of remaining chapters.

1.2 Background of the Study

For many communities and countries all over the world, tourism is the most important industry. Tourism is an integral part of several economies of the world. The travel and tourism sector generates more than 230 million jobs and contributes billions of dollars, collectively, to the economies of countries across the world. As tourism can bring in income, employment, tax revenue and foreign exchange earnings, many countries are in competition to attract foreign tourists.

The globe currently encompasses a period of accelerating diversity and multicultural experience. Globalization, educational tourism and international student growth have brought about the need for a better understanding of the social and economic wealth of the tertiary education cross-cultural experience (Townsend & Lee, 2004).

The development of both education and tourism as industries lately has led to increasing and expanding recognition of these industries from both an economic and social perspective (Ritchie, 2003). Mutual reliance between countries makes their success, development and economic prosperity to be highly reliant on the capabilities of two industries – education and tourism – to pave the essential ways to support international exchange and learning (Roppolo, 1996). The modifications in the tourism industry over the previous twenty years together with the changes in education have seen the convergence of these two industries with education facilitating mobility and learning becoming an essential element of the tourist experience (Ritchie, 2003).

Students' travel, including the journeys that were intended for longer periods to pursue degrees and other formal educational opportunities, regarded as much as one fifth of all international and domestic tourist-days, and a similar proportion of all tourism-related expenditures (Weaver, 2004). Despite the qualms in the global economy, international tourism is expected to develop steadily and achieve United Nations World Tourism Organization's 2020-vision forecast of 1.6 billion tourist arrivals, at an average rate of 4.3 percent. Collectively these visitors will spend US\$2 trillion annually (World Tourism Organization, 2009).

From an estimated 1.4 million students studying overseas in the early 1990s, the global international students market reached 3 million students worldwide in 2008 (Atlas, 2010). Forecasts suggest that, by 2025, there will be

more than 7 million students studying overseas (Boehm et al., 2002). Smith and Jenner (1997) identify three trends in educational tourism:

1. The rapid growth in the global student population;
2. Continuing education for the mature market;
3. The leisure-education hybrid.

The tourism industry sees educational tourism as a new market segment to increase foreign exchange earnings (Economic Planning Unit Malaysia, 2007). Donaldson and Gatsinzi (2005) state that the main travel motive of student tourists is education; international students have time to travel during university breaks and in this event, they visit tourism destinations in the host country making a contribution to the growing tourism market.

Kalinowski and Weiler (1992, p.17) defined educational tourism as “a travel experience in which there is organized learning whether that be formal or experimental”. The definitions of educational tourism are limited; therefore, the right way to conceptualize this market segment is to look at its broad range of activities. These include school trips, undergraduate and postgraduate study programs, short courses, study tours, vacation and exchange programs (Tarlow, 2008) as well as language courses as tourism and languages generate a powerful combination (Kennett, 2002).

Ritchie (2003) describes two types of educational tourism. First, travel for purposeful study or education, and second, travel incorporating elements of

learning. Ritchie (2003, p.9) states that to date, “the interrelationship between both types of educational tourism have not been comprehensively explored or researched”.

Another form of educational tourism is schools’ educational tourism. Schools usually organize shorter or longer study trips for their students to increase their geographical, historical, or other knowledge (Árva & Könyves, 2009). Nature based ecotourism, like bird-watching, whale watching can be considered as another form of educational tourism. Due to the increasing of global environmental awareness, this form of tourism is growing fast. However, the most important and growing form of educational tourism nowadays is international university and college mobility (Árva & Könyves, 2009).

Understanding tourism is much more than collecting insights from individuals or groups about their personal needs and wants. It is about a sophisticated and multifaceted industry that largely plans, trains and directs tourists’ performances. It is an industry that has brought great changes to certain destinations.

Tourism industry is going through a considerable shift from established areas like the Caribbean and the Mediterranean, to Asia and the Pacific Region where educational tourism is being promoted by Tourism Malaysia to bring new

market and fresh dimensions to the local tourism industry (Tourism Malaysia, 2008).

Educational tourism sector in Malaysia has been developed steadily since its independence in 1957. At that time, Malaysia had only one university. By 2007, the number has been increased to 38 universities, 20 public and 18 private universities. Malaysian Public universities are completely managed and funded by the federal government and the public sector (Arokiasamy et al., 2009). They were established between 1962 and 2007. On the other hand, Malaysian private universities are funded by government business agencies, political parties and individual owners. They were launched from 1999 to 2007. Both public and private universities in Malaysia offer a wide range of programs in different fields (Arokiasamy et al., 2009).

Moreover, a number of international colleges and universities established twinning programs with Malaysian institutions like Monash, Nottingham and other academic institutions. Indeed, they pave the way for students to complete their whole course in Malaysia or in countries such as Australia, New Zealand, or United Kingdom (Tourism Malaysia, 2009b).

Consequently, Tourism Malaysia has successfully attracted about 50,000 thousand educational tourists in 2008 (Tourism Malaysia, 2009b). Besides, some Malaysian universities were able to open branches abroad (e.g. Universiti Utara

Malaysia branch in Yemen). Such remarkable developments in Malaysian educational tourism sector were attributed to the great efforts exerted by Malaysian governments over the last few decades.

Conversely, many Malaysian universities and colleges confront various setbacks that may impede the progress and growth of educational tourism sector in the country. Among others, the insufficient financial support they get from the government and other sectors. Hence, these academic institutions are required to generate their own revenues as any other business enterprise (Arokiasamy et al., 2009). To meet their financial requirements, several universities in Malaysia particularly private universities and colleges endeavor to attract international students as they depend highly on the tuition fees paid by these foreigners.

On the other hand, it is not easy to attract foreign students as the market of international education is in fierce competition. Universities and governments worldwide have recognized the importance of cultural richness and financial outcomes that international students could provide universities and economies (Zhang & Zhao, 2007; Ross, Heaney & Cooper, 2007). Currently, the student market is generating a great amount of profits and comprises a big market segment inside the whole travel system (Richards & Wilson, 2004).

Recognizing the potential of educational tourism as a new market segment to boost foreign exchange earnings has made this form of tourism on the

Malaysian government agenda. Accordingly, many procedures were taken to set Malaysia as a regional center of educational excellence by 2020. Malaysia Education Promotion Centers (MEPC), under the Ministry of Higher Education, were launched in 2003 as a vital initiative designed to this end (Ministry of Tourism Malaysia, 2009a). These centers were established in Beijing, Dubai, Ho Chi Minh City, Jakarta and Jeddah to promote education opportunities available in Malaysia (Economic Planning Unit Malaysia, 2007).

Dubai and Jeddah promotional centers were founded due to the importance of the Arab tourism market to Malaysia. Tourism Malaysia plans to double the number of Arab tourists. However, there are some issues that confront Malaysia in its striving efforts to attract Arab tourists particularly educational tourists. One of these is that Arab governments do not recognize many Malaysian academic institutions' qualifications whereby Malaysia Promotion Education Centers are facing difficulty in promoting the country as an educational tourism destination to the Arab countries.

The distant geographical location of Malaysia from that of the Arab world is another hindrance for Malaysia Promotion Education Centers to attract Arab educational tourists. The Arab culture together with a good number of international universities and colleges located in the Arab countries deter many Arabs from traveling to study abroad. Despite these drawbacks, Malaysian

officials are determined to make the country a hub of educational tourism in the region.

For Malaysia, this study will pave the way not only get useful additional income from such educational tourists, but also generate wider benefits in terms of cultural, social, trade and political links between Malaysia and the Arab league countries. Besides, Arab educational tourists visiting Malaysia are expected to play an important role in strengthening friendly relations with Malaysia when they return to their home countries.

1.3 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework of this research discusses the relationships among the factors that are deemed essential to the dynamics of the motivations of Arab educational tourism. It is based on motivation theory which concentrates on the internal factors that stimulate and direct human behavior and provides an opportunity to understand thought processes that affect behavior.

One of the most important theories of motivation is Vroom's expectancy theory. It is presented by Witt and Wright (1992) as a complete theory applied to tourist motivations. It is a theory that is able to include all the concepts involved in the motivation process. Expectancy theory includes the needs which are important to understand motivation and the decision making involved in choosing

the destination. It is also able to consider 'push and pull' factors (Witt & Wright, 1992).

Several other theories such as Crompton's nine motives and Iso-Ahola personal-interpersonal motives work under the 'Push and Pull' factors theory where they concentrate not only on the intrinsic motivations but also on the attributes and benefits these settings might appear to offer (pull factors) to satisfy a need. The push and pull theory assumes that people travel and choose their destinations according to different push and pull motivational variables. Basically, this is a two-step process involving push factors which motivate an individual to leave his/her home, and pull factors which draw an individual to travel to a specific place (Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1982).

This study will use the push factors (Escape, Enjoying natural resources, Adventure and excitement, Personal reasons, Knowledge) and the pull factors (Cultural and natural attractions, Cost, Knowledge and awareness, Country image) to determine the tourism motivations that drive Arab educational tourists to Malaysia. This study will also identify the differences in Arab educational tourists' motivations according to their demographic factors (gender, marital status, age, educational level and income level).

Hofstede's (1980, 1991) cultural factors (Individualism & Collectivism, Power distance, Uncertainty avoidance) will be used to understand the characteristics of Arab culture, and how this culture is related to tourism

motivations (The effect of cultural factors on demographic factors is outside the scope of this study). This study will additionally identify the factors that have an influence on destination choice, such as tourist motivations, cultural factors and demographic factors.

Factor analysis, Pearson correlation analysis technique, T-tests, One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Logistic regression will be used to find out the relationships between the independent variables (push factors, pull factors, cultural factors, and demographic factors) and the dichotomous dependent variable 'destination choice'.

1.4 Problem Statement

Travel and tourism researchers often overlook educational tourism (Tarlow, 2008). As a result, academic research into educational tourism has been slow to emerge (Australian Learning & Teaching Council, 2009). Several researchers have asserted the lack of studies on educational tourism (e.g. Árvai & Könyves, 2009; Hillhouse & MacLaurin, 2004; Ritchie, 2003; Roppolo, 1996; Smith, 2009; Smith & Jenner, 1997; Taylor, 2006). Therefore, this research will contribute to the body of literature by responding to the need for more academic studies on educational tourism.

Malaysia seeks to place itself as a hub for educational excellence in the Asia-Pacific region. Towards this end, a number of educational facilities and infrastructure have been developed. Public and private institutions of higher education and learning and collaborations with foreign universities have been increased as well (Ministry of Tourism Malaysia, 2009a). Currently, Malaysia targets different regions in the world particularly the Middle East area where the Malaysian government is striving to make the country an educational tourism destination for the Arab countries.

The Arab tourism market is a target for Malaysia due to several reasons, mainly the outstanding expenditure and spending power among Arab tourists which in turn contribute to a vital effect on the Malaysian economy. Such contributions have made the Arab tourism market one of the most important market segments for the Malaysian tourism industry (Ibrahim et al., 2009).

Effective tourism marketing is not possible without an understanding of the customers' motivations, or, in other words, to know the answer to the question of what motivates people to travel (Fodness, 1994). Determining the motivations of Arab educational tourists traveling to Malaysia is a crucial stride for Malaysia Education Promotion Centers to formulate effective promotional schemes capable of targeting professionally the Arab educational tourism market. Therefore, this study will address the question: what are the push and pull motivations that drive Arab educational tourists to Malaysia?

According to the small number of Arab students from Arab league countries at Malaysian academic institutions (see Tables 1.1 and 1.2), it seems that Malaysia Education Promotion Centers in Dubai and Jeddah are not sufficient to give what is needed or desired for a big souk like the Arab tourism market. Besides, the promotional campaigns undertaken by these promotion centers seem to be ineffective.

In his visit to the Gulf Education and Training Exhibition (GETEX) in 2008, Malaysia Ambassador in the United Arab Emirates stated, "It seems that we are wasting our money by having overseas offices. The officials may have his or her own agendas. He or she maybe not good enough to be our representative. For the sake of the nation's pride, we demand better services or close these offices. This year GETEX, our booth was insignificant in the sea of other countries participants. The brochures and goodies were also outdated". He added that the staff of Malaysia education promotion center seemed indifferent and the web site for Malaysia education promotion center needs to be upgraded (<http://trisha4uuu.blogspot.com/2008/10/malaysian-education-promotion-centre.html>).

Lack of knowledge of the Arab culture may lead to fruitless and ineffective promotional campaigns in Arab countries. Arab culture has invariably been the key behind decision making of its individuals. Thus, it is necessary for Malaysia Education Promotion Centers to be familiarized with the core aspects of

Arab culture and how decisions are made in the Arab society in order to create the appropriate marketing strategies for the Arab tourism market. Accordingly, this study will address the question: to what extent do the push and pull motivations of Arab educational tourists are affected by Arab culture and demographic factors of Arab educational tourists?

Tables 1.1 and 1.2 show that the number of Arab students at Malaysian academic institutions is relatively small especially from 14 Arab countries.

Table 1.1
Arab Students at Malaysian Public Universities (2001-2007)

No.	Arab Countries	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
1.	Algeria	71	30	32	50	44	48	81
2.	Bahrain	-	-	1	1	2	7	7
3.	Comoros	11	15	19	18	37	37	32
4.	Djibouti	47	42	51	52	56	38	28
5.	Egypt	17	17	52	39	33	36	51
6.	Iraq	141	105	152	151	166	225	678
7.	Jordan	138	108	156	190	240	284	478
8.	Kuwait	-	-	1	3	3	4	6
9.	Lebanon	1	1	-	-	1	1	1
10.	Libya	206	202	264	191	260	294	456
11.	Mauritania	6	4	2	5	5	7	10
12.	Morocco	7	5	8	13	17	11	15
13.	Oman	43	52	27	59	71	89	133
14.	Palestine	31	26	34	66	106	114	140
15.	Qatar	-	-	-	2	4	1	12
16.	Saudi Arabia	20	15	8	35	42	65	299
17.	Somalia	65	58	78	77	155	176	249
18.	Sudan	245	160	284	237	278	257	432
19.	Syria	11	12	16	18	30	33	59
20.	Tunisia	5	4	4	4	4	3	2
21.	U.A.E.	-	-	-	4	6	6	28
22.	Yemen	73	117	219	308	371	457	837
	Total	1138	973	1408	1523	1931	2196	4034

Source: Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia (MOHE) (2008). Student's statistical report. Retrieved from <http://www.portal.mohe.gov.my>

Table 1.2

Arab Students at Malaysian Private Universities and Colleges (2001-2007)

No.	Arab Countries	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
1.	Algeria	7	6	6	6	12	19	23
2.	Bahrain	-	-	-	-	6	21	50
3.	Comoros	-	-	-	-	2	1	2
4.	Djibouti	2	14	30	29	36	54	82
5.	Egypt	1	3	14	14	52	89	89
6.	Iraq	7	28	31	33	41	92	233
7.	Jordan	3	26	17	37	43	42	59
8.	Kuwait	2	-	-	-	-	-	2
9.	Lebanon	4	8	8	10	9	8	21
10.	Libya	295	144	163	139	202	109	149
11.	Mauritania	1	3	2	-	5	3	-
12.	Morocco	2	12	9	10	10	20	13
13.	Oman	121	349	385	417	424	348	292
14.	Palestine	-	8	18	42	71	77	77
15.	Qatar	-	1	1	4	9	13	18
16.	Saudi Arabia	307	109	128	206	287	460	749
17.	Somalia	19	65	98	203	382	395	447
18.	Sudan	24	163	223	271	428	654	710
19.	Syria	-	8	21	44	39	59	54
20.	Tunisia	-	3	2	5	4	4	9
21.	U.A.E.	5	3	3	2	6	6	31
22.	Yemen	82	363	496	687	1073	1095	1179
	Total	882	1316	1655	2159	3141	3569	4289

Source: Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia (MOHE) (2008). Student's statistical report. Retrieved from <http://www.portal.mohe.gov.my>

According to the statistics published by the Ministry of Higher Education in Malaysia (2008), the number of Arab students studying at Malaysian Universities and Colleges (2001-2007) from eight Arab countries is relatively good while the number from 14 Arab countries is still weak. Out of 8323 students, only 933 students came from 14 Arab countries, constituting only 11.2 percent. The statistics of Malaysian public academic institutions reveal that roughly 19 students are increased annually from each Arab country over the past seven years. More importantly, nine Arab countries out of 22 countries constitute more than 92 percent, indicating that 13 Arab countries form less than 8 percent.

The data on Malaysian private academic institutions also show that the number of Arab students is still few as six Arab countries out of 22 countries make up 84 percent of the total figure. Furthermore, there is a clear decrease in the overall flow of Arab tourists in general. For instance, there was a decrease of 5 percent in Arab Saudi tourists arrival to Malaysia in 2008 and also a decrease of 8 percent in United Arab Emirates tourists to Malaysia in 2008 (Tourism Malaysia, 2009a).

Malaysia seeks to increase the number of Arab students on account of its strategy to make a continuous upsurge in foreign exchange earnings from this growing and promising market 'educational tourism' which improved from RM 220 million in 2000 to RM 450 million in 2005 (Economic Planning Unit Malaysia, 2007). To increase income from tourism, and to determine marketing segments, marketing planners have recently been interested in understanding why people select specific destinations (Poria, Butler & Airey, 2004). Accordingly, identifying the tourism motivations, cultural factors and demographic factors of Arab educational tourists traveling to Malaysia will enhance the efforts exerted by Malaysia Education Promotion Centers to attract Arab educational tourists to the country. Thus, it is important to address the question: what are the tourism motivations, cultural factors and demographic factors of Arab educational tourists that have an influence on destination choice?

1.5 Research Objectives

The main objective of this study is to explore the motivations of Arab educational tourism. The specific objectives are as follows:

1. To determine the push and pull motivations that drive Arab educational tourists to Malaysia.
2. To determine the nature of the relationship between push and pull factors.
3. To determine the relationship between Arab culture and tourism motivations (push and pull).
4. To identify the differences in Arab educational tourists' motivations according to their demographic factors (gender, marital status, age, educational level and income level).
5. To identify the influence of Arab educational tourists' motivations, Arab culture, and the demographic factors of Arab educational tourists on destination choice.

1.6 Scope of the Study

This study focuses on the Arab educational tourists, from the twenty-two Arab league countries, who are studying in undergraduate or postgraduate programs, at language centers within the following universities or enrolled in a partnership program for scientific and cultural research tours within any of the following Malaysian academic institutions; namely, Universiti Malaya (UM), Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM), Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM), Universiti Utara

Malaysia (UUM), Universiti Islam Antarabangsa Malaysia (UIAM), Universiti Multimedia (MMU), Universiti Tenaga Nasional (UNITEN). These universities were chosen for the following reasons:

1. On the data collection process, the above-mentioned universities (out of ten universities), granted permission to undertake the study and gave the researcher the needed statistics regarding the number of Arab students enrolled at their universities.
2. A good number of Arab educational tourists are enrolled at these universities due to the recognition of their qualifications in the Arab countries.
3. The destinations where these universities are placed are accessible easily; therefore, the researcher can afford both time and cost.
4. The researcher is acquainted with many Arab students at these universities. This may reflect better answers for the distribution of questionnaires and higher response rate as well.

1.7 Definition of Key Terms

For consistency of interpretation, the following terms are defined to clarify their use in this study:

This study adopted Ritchie's definition (2003) of educational tourism due to the fact that the population of this study might stay less than two weeks or longer than a year at the destination (the sample was merely taken from educational tourists who spent a period of between two weeks to one year). They are

categorized by most authors as educational tourists while other researchers classify them as educational tourists only if they stay at the destination within the period of between two weeks to one year. Consequently, it was essential to adopt a definition for educational tourism that could include all those students irrespective of the exact period they spent at the destination. Ritchie's definition of educational tourism appears to go the farthest in defining the parameters of the term as he does not include an upper temporal limit to his definition. Therefore, Ritchie's definition is the most useful upon which to build for this study as an Arab student who is staying less than two weeks or longer than a year at the destination can be classified as an educational tourist under his definition.

Educational tourist is "a person who is away from their home town or country overnight, where education and learning are either the main reason for the trip or where education and learning are secondary reasons but are perceived as an important way of using leisure time" (Ritchie, 2003, p.18).

Educational tourism is defined as "tourist activity undertaken by those who are undertaking an overnight vacation and those who are undertaking an excursion for whom education and learning is a primary or secondary part of their trip. This can include general educational tourism and adult study tours, international and domestic university and school students' travel, including language schools, schools incursions and exchange programs. Educational tourism can be independently or formally organized and can be undertaken in a variety of natural or human-made settings" (Ritchie, 2003, p.18).

Tourist motivation is a combination of biological and cultural factors that provide value and route to travel choices, conduct and experience (Pearce, Morrison & Rutledge, 1998).

Push factors encompass the motivations that make an individual seek a destination which meet his or her needs (Chen, 2004).

Pull factors are the association of facilities and services formed of several multidimensional attributes that all participate in the attractiveness of the destination for a specific individual in a choice situation (Hu & Ritchie, 1993).

Culture is “the sum total of learned beliefs, values and customs that serve to direct the consumer behavior of members of a particular society” (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1994, p.409).

1.8 Significance of the Study

Educational tourism is one of the fastest growing areas of the travel and tourism experience (Tarlow, 2008). Despite the fact that educational tourism is a complex field with limited past research, the significance of this form of tourism is likely to become larger due to trends in both the tourism and education sectors (Ritchie, 2003). Educational tourism has been internationally recognized as an important market segment in the tourism industry (Brodsky-Porges, 1981).

One of the contributions of this study sets in developing a model of Arab educational tourist motivations involving a convergence of push and pull factors from both industries “tourism and education” to determine the motivations of

Arab educational tourists traveling to Malaysia. This model is developed due to two main reasons. First, most of the available frameworks or models go either in the stream of education or tourism. Second, the researcher has not found any model or framework regarding educational tourism motivations. Motivational literature considers why tourists are encouraged to have a holiday at a certain destination or why students choose a particular institution; yet a consideration of the multiple-motivations which prompt educational tourists, is largely absent (Taylor, 2006).

Although educational tourists have a lower per diem spending than other tourists, their longer period of stay come with a significant level of expenses directed across a variety of goods and services (Smith, 2009). Árva and Könyves (2009) emphasized that educational tourists' per capita expenditure was the highest among all tourists. In Malaysia, the big spenders were the Arab tourists who spent on the average RM 6,921 per capita during their stay in Malaysia in 2007 (Abdullah, 2009). Accordingly, it is significant to attract Arab educational tourists to Malaysia.

By exploring the motivations of Arab educational tourism, this study will assist Malaysia in attracting more Arabs to its destinations. This in turn will exercise significant effects on the Malaysian local economy generally and on the economy of the host community where educational tourists continue their studies.

International students with different cultural backgrounds enrich the academic experience of local students (Kawai, 2005). Hence, attracting highly qualified Arab educational tourists to Malaysian academic institutions will improve the quality of Malaysia's education which is the backbone of its development and prosperity.

Researchers and practitioners have long been searching for the key answer to the question, why do people travel? To answer this question, it is significant to identify the various needs and motives that compel travelers to seek out specific activities and experiences (Lee et al., 2002). Previous studies identified the effect of cultural factors and demographic factors on tourism motivations in different countries and cultural context (e.g. Bogari, Crowther & Marr, 2003; Metwally, 2004), whereas the studies that determined the effect of cultural and demographic factors on tourism motivations in the Arabic context are scarce. Hence, this study will contribute to the literature by determining the effect of cultural and demographic factors of Arab educational tourists on tourism motivations.

Tourism researchers have not comprehensively examined impacts or relationships of a combination of factors that influence students' travel decisions (Kim, 2006). Little attention has been paid to the motivations of educational tourists for travel, especially when a structured learning environment is sought at the destination (Taylor, 2006). Moreover, the studies that focused on the

motivations of educational tourists traveling to Malaysia are extremely limited. Therefore, it is significant for this study to identify the influence of tourism motivations, cultural factors and demographic factors of Arab educational tourists on selecting Malaysia as an educational tourism destination.

Once this study is completed, Malaysia Education Promotion Centers will have a better chance to design the appropriate marketing strategies that can attract a good number of Arab educational tourists and design the suitable products and services required by current and potential Arab educational tourists. Thus, this research contributes in paving the way to increasing the number of Arab educational tourists in the host country 'Malaysia'.

According to Smith (2009, p.23), "educational tourism seems to contribute to cultural integration and should be assessed as a force fighting xenophobia, ethnocentrism and cultural misunderstandings". Educational tourist's contact and agreement to the values of individualism, social quality and meritocracy experienced in other countries make him a representative of social change in his home country (Smith, 2009). Hence, this study contributes in improving the international understanding and the spirit of cooperation between peoples.

1.9 Organization of Remaining Chapters

This thesis comprises of five chapters. The first chapter provides background of the study, the theoretical framework, the problem statement, objectives of the study, scope of the study, definition of key terms and the potential contributions of this study.

The second chapter focuses on a review of the existing literature of tourism, education and their development internationally as well as on the concepts, types and promotion of educational tourism. It also provides a profound understanding of the context of both the Arab league countries in terms of their population and geographical distribution, climate, economic, cultural and social environment as well as Malaysia in terms of its historical and current development of tourism, types of tourism being promoted and educational tourism in Malaysia. This is followed by a review and summary of the essential tourism motivations (especially the push and pull factors) that influence the tourist decision to travel.

The push and pull motivations and the factors that affect them like the cultural and demographic factors will be discussed. This chapter explains the effect of cultural factors and demographic factors on tourism motivations. Destination choice is also addressed, mainly how it is influenced by tourism motivations, cultural factors and demographic factors.

The third chapter discusses the research methodology proposed to be used in this study. It identifies the best research methodology and approach for this study, followed by the model of the study, study population and sample, questionnaire design, the measurement and operationalization of factors used involving push, pull factors, and cultural factors. Lastly, the chapter reports on pilot tests done for this study. Statistical techniques used for inference of this study are explained at the end of this chapter.

The fourth chapter is devoted to the findings of this study. Response rate, the demographic characteristics of the respondents, goodness of measures, push and pull motivation factors, cultural factors and demographic factors of Arab educational tourists are presented. This chapter provides the results of the relationships between push and pull factors, cultural factors and demographic factors of Arab educational tourists. It also provides the results of the influence of push and pull motivation factors, cultural factors and demographic factors on destination choice. At the end of this chapter, the results of the hypothesis testing and respondents' suggestions are presented.

The fifth chapter recapitulates the study findings followed by their discussion, and link them to the objectives of this study. Implications and contributions of the present research are also discussed. It then goes on to discuss the limitations of this study and to recommend areas for future research.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of tourism, education, their growth internationally as well as the concept, forms, and promotion of educational tourism. The context of the Arab league countries, including their population and geographical distribution, climate, economic, cultural and social environment is also discussed. The profile of Malaysia is then discussed in terms of its historical background in tourism, current rise of tourism, main types of tourism being promoted and educational tourism in Malaysia.

This chapter provides a review on tourism motivation, to understand the most important push factors that drive tourists generally and educational tourists specifically to travel as well as the most important pull factors that draw them to certain destinations.

In more details, the push and pull motivations and the factors that affect them, like the cultural and demographic factors will be discussed in this chapter as well as the influence of tourism motivations, demographic factors, and cultural factors on destination choice (Malaysia).

2.2 Understanding Tourism

Tourism largely concerns people traveling from one place to another for pleasure, business, study, or other purposes. According to Edgell et al. (2008, p.2), “tourism is inherently a complex field difficult to define, resisting comparability within itself and with other industries”. Finding a general definition of tourism is not an easy task, primarily because of the diverse facets of tourism which hold different perspectives (Bogari, 2002).

International organizations, such as the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), the Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), and the World Tourism Organization (WTO) have formulated some technical definitions of tourism. For instance, the United Nations Conference on International Travel and Tourism of 1963 provided the generally accepted definition of tourism as “the activities of persons traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business, and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited” (WTO, 1993). It should be noted that this definition includes the word ‘staying’ which indicates that tourists stay at least one night. However, day visitors make an enormous contribution to the tourism industry, and hence, some destinations and tourist organizations include day visitors in their statistics.

As stated by Smith (1988), numerous legitimate definitions of tourism meet various legitimate needs. He also believes that it is not easy to determine the accurate magnitude of the tourism industry due to the absence of an accepted operational definition of tourism.

Ritchie (2003) claims that there are various elements to define tourism which range from tourists themselves, the tourism industry and even the host community or destination. This has been asserted by Goeldner and Ritchie (2006, p.6) when they defined tourism as “the processes, activities, and outcomes arising from the relationships and the interactions among tourists, tourism suppliers, host governments, host communities, and surrounding environments that are involved in the attracting and hosting of visitors”.

On the other hand, tourism is classified as a service industry, which engages in taking care of people who are away from home (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997). The tourism service nature is highlighted in Goeldner and Ritchie’s (2006, p. xv) definition of tourism as “the science, art, and business of attracting visitors, transporting them, accommodating them, and graciously catering to their needs and wants”.

Tourism is the world industry of travel, transportation, hotels, and all other factors that, including promotion, serve the needs and wants of travelers. It comprises all providers of visitor and visitor-related services. Accordingly, the association between tourists, private agencies, hotel operators, local community

and governments of host countries is decisive for the process of attracting tourists and offering hospitality to them.

Mill and Morrison (1985) analyze tourism as a system that is integrated into four parts. The first part is market, which emphasize the need to comprehend the cultural and social characteristics of consumer behavior. Travel, as the second part in the tourism system, examines the flow of international and domestic tourists and identifies the latest and potential future trends. The third part is destination, which refers to a blend of attractions and services used by travelers. The last part of the tourism system is marketing which is accountable for the progress of the marketing plan, the choice of a suitable marketing mix and the selection of distribution channels.

Moreover, tourism is not only an economic tool but also a means of encouraging international understanding and strengthening solidarity among different cultures. At present, people around the world confront new and diverse challenges. With its close ties to the natural, cultural and social environment, tourism has a chief responsibility in implementing solutions which lead to a better use of our limited resources, brace harmony, and construct peaceful coexistence between peoples.

2.2.1 The Growth of International Tourism

Regardless of wars, disasters, conflicts, deadly diseases and economic recession on a global scale, tourism is nonetheless an industry that seems to have no limits. The fast growth in the movement of people, both domestically and internationally has brought about an industry of huge proportions and diversity.

The tourism industry is universal as its institutions are established in every corner of the globe, but in greatly different qualities and proportions. Hence, a great number of researchers see tourism as the largest and fastest growing industry in both developed and developing countries.

Travel and tourism are employing approximately 238 million people and generating roughly 10 percent of world gross domestic product (WTTC, 2008). The growth of tourism has been boosted by the increase in leisure time together with an increase in discretionary income as well as a desire to escape and take part in holidays both domestically and internationally (Ritchie, 2003).

Consequently, tourism is one of the most important and reliable growth industries internationally. At this time, tourism is the major service industry worldwide (Bansal & Eiselt, 2004; Zhang et al., 2004). It is a key and dynamic factor in the economic growth in many countries. Tourism industry has also a major role in generating income, employment, tax revenue and foreign exchange earnings. For those reasons and others, several countries are currently in a strong

competition to attract international tourists especially the Arab tourists whose expenses and spending power in destinations are the highest among other tourists.

Table 2.1 reveals the arrivals and receipts of world tourism from 1970 to 2009. These figures of international tourism reflect a tremendous growth annually (excluding the challenging year 2009, tourist arrivals fell by 4 percent). The growth averaged no less than 8 percent over the last two decades. Despite the global economic recession, the number of international tourist arrivals of 2009 (880) was close to double that recorded in 1990 (457) and 5 times more than that of 1970 (165) (UNWTO, 2010).

Table 2.1
World Tourism: Arrivals and Receipts (1970-2009)

Year	Arrivals (millions)	Receipts (US\$ billions)
1970	165	18
1980	286	104
1990	457	270
2000	682	482
2003	691	535
2006	847	742
2007	901	856
2008	920	946
2009	880	889
Forecast 2010	907 - 915	916-924

Source: UNWTO (2010, p.1). *Facts and figures: information, analysis and know-how*. Retrieved from <http://www.unwto.org>

Based on the latest trends, receipts for 2009 fell around 6 percent. Nonetheless, seven destinations achieved some growth in exports from tourism in 2009. These include the double growth of Taiwan, Sweden and Australia.

Moreover, Hong Kong (China), Malaysia, Poland and Hungary also managed to resist the overall negative trend. For prospects in 2010, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) noted that the global recovery is advancing faster than expected and the most recent assessments counted on a clear return of economic growth in 2010. As a result, UNWTO forecasts a growth in international tourist arrivals of between 3 and 4 percent in 2010 (UNWTO, 2010).

By region, Asia is likely to maintain its swift recovery, while Europe and Americas are likely to rebound at a more moderate pace. Growth is expected to return to Middle East while Africa will continue its positive trend taking advantage from the additional boost provided by the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa (UNWTO, 2010).

2.3 Understanding Education and Learning

Education is the basis of social and economic development. In a world that values the production and distribution of information and knowledge, human capital growth has become a developmental concern in many societies (Rens, Prabhala & Kawooya, 2006).

Smith (1982, p.37) defines education as “the organized, systematic effort to foster learning, to establish the conditions, and to provide the activities through which learning can occur”. The key word ‘learning’ indicates some form of process. As Kulich (1987, cited in Ritchie, 2003) claims, learning is a natural

process that happens during one's life and is normally incidental, while education is a more conscious, planned and systematic process reliant on learning objectives and learning strategies. Nonetheless, an author like Smith (1982) believes that there is no specific definition of learning, because it refers to a product (where the outcome is vital), a process (which happens during learning) and a function (the real steps to accomplish learning).

Consequently, from such observations, it becomes obvious that educational tourism may be seen in a similar approach, as a product, process, and function. Viewing educational tourism as a product, the value is on the outcome of the learning experience (such as a university degree for international students). When it is a process or a function the concentration is on the means to an end (Kalinowski & Weiler, 1992). For example, if learning is itself derived as an end, then the experience may be focused on enriching knowledge of what has already known about something (such as a trip to a marine biology station to learn about marine biology). Moreover, if learning is defined as a means to an end, then, according to Kalinowski and Weiler (1992), the emphasis is to practice earlier study; for instance, traveling to an ancient monument after studying the monument.

Boud, Cohen and Walker (1993) state that personal learning experiences are an influential power in learning. Study visits or field trips that are integrated into the curriculum of courses or programs are effective tool in gaining the

experiences which lead to a better knowledge of different issues. Such trips are different from day trips of a few hours to international visits of several weeks (Whitfield, 2008).

Educational institutions are required to integrate international experiences into their curriculum whereby it can provide merits to both students and the tourism industry. The rising potential market for the travel and tourism industry amongst schools, universities and further educational institutions is one that needs to be realized and considered by the tourism industry (Ritchie, 2003).

2.3.1 The Importance of Knowledge in Islam

The specific relationship between travel and knowledge is apparent in many Quran verses that urge readers to “travel on the earth and see” (*Surat Al-Omran, 137*). One of the unique features of Islam is its emphasis on knowledge. The Quran and the Islamic tradition (*Sunnah*) ask Muslims to seek and acquire knowledge and wisdom.

“O Allah, give me greater knowledge” (*Surat Taha, 144*). When the Holy Quran was revealed to Prophet Mohammed (pray and peace be upon him) 15 centuries ago, the very first word was ‘*Iqra*’ which means “Read” in the Arabic language. The angel Gabriel commanded Prophet Mohammed (pbuh) to read.

“Read! In the Name of your Lord Who created you. He has created man from a clot of blood. Read! Your Lord is Most Generous. He taught man by the pen. He has taught man what he knew not” (*Surat Al Alaq, 1-5*). Many Quran verses stress the importance of seeking knowledge for the good of humanity.

“A person with knowledge is better than the one without it” (*Surat Al Zumar, 10*).

“People are encouraged to travel in search of knowledge” (*Surat Al Kahf, 66*).

“Allah raises the status of those who possess knowledge” (*Surat AlMujadalah, 11*).

Many Prophet’s sayings also indicate that Islam puts a great value to the attainment of knowledge. Prophet Mohammed (pbuh) said,

“Seeking knowledge is obligatory upon every Muslim”.

“The superiority of the person who has knowledge over the one who merely worships is like the superiority of the moon over every other heavenly body”.

“The ink of the scholar is more precious than the blood of the martyr”.

“Whoever follows a path in the pursuit of knowledge, Allah will make a path to paradise for him”.

“Seek knowledge even if you have to go as far as China”.

The importance of learning in Islam was clear from the advent of *Da’wah* (missionary work for Islam). For instance, when seventy enemy soldiers were captured in the battle of *Badr*, Prophet Mohammed (pbuh) declared that if any

captive taught ten Muslims, until they are able to read and write, he would be set free (Haq, 2008).

2.3.2 The Growth of International Education

The growth of international tourism has a parallel growth trend in international travel for education. Throughout this section, the growth of educational institutions and the relationship between travel and education will be discussed.

Many types of institutionalized learning are available in different cultures and societies. The university has always been an important seat of higher learning. Virtually in the late 1800s, an industrialized Europe took a major role in providing and approving non-religious teaching to children and teenagers of both genders. Labor laws reduced the weekly working hours, hence the decision for the right to be educated and the right to leisure largely took place simultaneously in Europe and their acceptance was then sought and preferred all over the world (Taylor, 2006). However, many countries are not able to provide educational services at any level and millions work at inconvenient conditions with little time for leisure. A shortage of current funds from several governments, frequently shared with demographic constraints, lead hundreds of millions of people go without any type of formal education.

International travel for education (especially for longer term and for a formal degree) may embody a short-lived period in their migration to work at the host country's destination. On the contrary, others see that, overseas travel for education may be due to prestige or better status upon arrival back home with international degree. In fact, a number of studies show that, once this flow is from the less developed countries to the developed countries, participants or educational tourists may not come back, as they enjoy encouraging labor market conditions of the host country (Taylor, 2006).

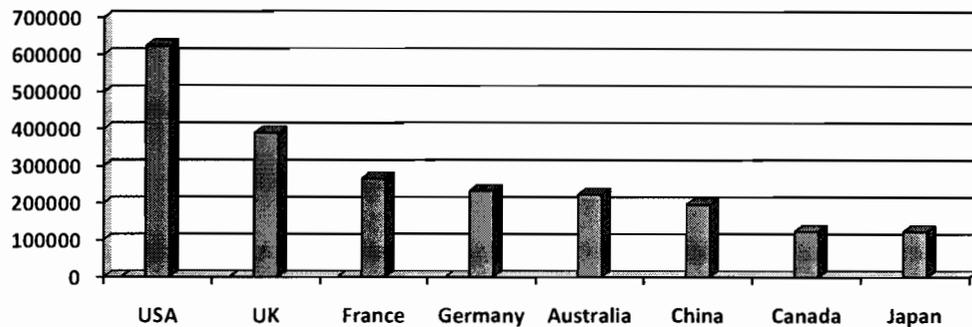
It has been estimated that 33 percent of overseas students studying in the United States do not go back home (Futures Project, 2000), and more than 70 percent of doctoral students remain in the United States. The majority of these international students are from countries relatively poorer than the United States (Bhagwati, 2003).

Over the last few decades, an enormous growth of higher education institutions occurred in the world. Nevertheless, numerous public and private academic institutions have a shortage of financial support. Hence, both public and private universities started driving the quest of alternative resources of funding which led to higher tuition fees for local and overseas students alike. For that reason, higher education is becoming a commodity and students are treated like customers (Doti, 2004). However, such shifts have been confronted almost the world over with much arguments.

These debates are often characterized by concerns about quality and equity. In this regard, many countries have established different regulatory methods of finding a balance between the roles of the state and the private sector in higher education provision. For example, Malaysia which is at a period of brisk growth in its higher education institutions, sees the benefits of establishing a comprehensive and miscellaneous higher education system. The country's support of an effective policy that could facilitate the development of its private academic institutions paved the way for the Malaysian government to control equity of access, accreditation procedures, guide curriculum to retain a Malaysian cultural content and simultaneously avoid regulations such as tuition price control that would weaken the private sector (Tourism Malaysia, 2008).

Currently, the number of international students reached more than 3 million students. In the wake of the global knowledge-based economy, the number of international students may triple by 2025. Therefore, academic institutions across the world can attract foreign students and generate profits provided that they thoroughly guarantee the quality of their courses and create the facilities to cope with additional students (Guruz, 2008). Figure 2.1 shows the top hosting countries of international students in 2008.

Figure 2.1
Top Global Destinations for International Students, at the Post-Secondary (Tertiary) Level, 2008



Source: Data from Atlas (2010). Retrieved from <http://www.atlas.iienetwork.org>

The data demonstrates that wealthier countries receive the largest number of international students and the many benefits (e.g. financial, intellectual, cultural, etc.) that come with them. Many of these countries have changed their approach from an aid to a trade towards international students. Besides, their promotional campaigns target the upper socio-economic segments of developing countries.

The international activities of universities considerably increased in extent, size and scope over the past two decades. These activities range from study abroad programs that permit international students to learn about other cultures to give admission to higher education in countries where local institutions cannot meet the demand. Other activities focus on developing the international perspectives and skills of students, improving foreign languages and providing cross-cultural understanding (Altbach & Knight, 2007).

The institutions of the two industries 'education and tourism' can be formed and organized at different geographical levels. The literature often addresses tourism and education as service or tertiary sectors that play a significant role in the modernized economy. The convergence of the two industries bring about a promising and growing market 'educational tourism'. With its variety of programs, educational tourism has become the tourism trend of the future. University alumni associations, community organizations, and even Walt Disney World currently present educationally oriented vacations for people of all ages (Gibson, 1998). However, who are these educational tourists? In the following sections, the concept and forms of educational tourism will be discussed.

2.4 Understanding Educational Tourism

The common images of tourists still exist in many parts of the world. They are individuals holding expensive cameras, visiting famous attractions or the beach lovers working on their tan. However, in recent years, the options offered to tourists have expanded significantly. One popular type of travel currently is educational tourism. For many people, a trip is a chance to stimulate not disconnect the brain (Gibson, 1998).

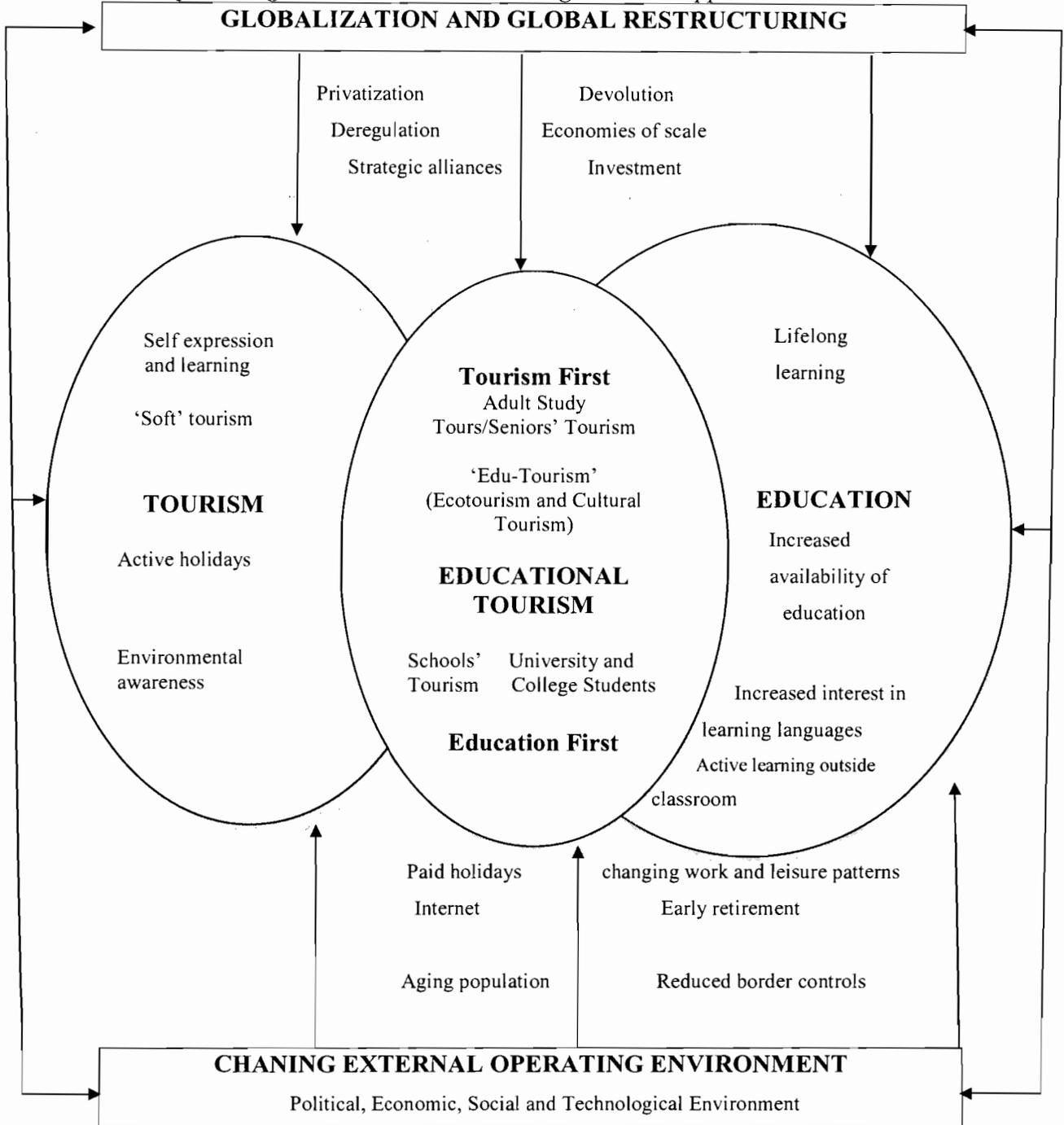
Regardless of the latest attention paid to tourism and education as industries, travel for learning and education is not a new idea. Traveling in search of educational tourism predates our times by several centuries. According to

Canadian Tourism Commission (2001, cited in Ritchie, 2003), the Grand Tour was perceived as the inception of cultural and educational tourism, started initially by scholars and aristocratic British youth as part of their education in the 17th, 18th and much of the nineteenth centuries. The Grand Tour idea was to educate and cultivate participants through a number of study tours long lasting for many years in European destinations. Participants were taught foreign languages, fencing, riding, dancing and foreign affairs. At that time, paying a visit to international universities and other upper class was familiar, especially for emerging English scholars (Ritchie, 2003).

The early travel for education and learning was to meet travelers' interest about the way people lived at home and abroad (Burkart & Madlik, 1981). Later on, the belief of the educational value of travel set the development of study abroad as a legal part of tertiary education in Europe and then the United States (Kalinowski & Weiler, 1992).

Figure 2.2 demonstrates a model that includes several potential educational tourism market segments and the relationship between education, tourism and the changing external environment.

Figure 2.2
Conceptualizing Educational Tourism: A segmentation Approach



Source: Ritchie, B. W. (2003, p.13). *Aspects of tourism: managing educational tourism*. Sydney: Channel View Publications.

According to the figure 2.2, Ritchie (2003) claims the educational tourism may consist of:

- Overall travel for education and adult or seniors' educational tourism, where some form of education or learning is a vital and motivating element of the tourist experience.
- University/college students' and schools' tourism by which tourist experiences may be secondary to the educational aspect or intentions.

On the other hand, several researchers (e.g. Bywater, 1993; Roppolo, 1996) have acknowledged the difficulties of defining educational tourism. The absence of an intuitive association between tourism and formal education is one reason for this lack of attention and consideration, as almost global neglect is paid to the formal educational component of student travel by national, provincial, and municipal tourism institutions and by the tourism industry in most situations (Weaver, 2004).

Furthermore, Smith and Jenner (1997) contend that the concept of travel for education and learning is a broad and difficult area which explains the reasons beyond the current unawareness of this field from tourism academics and industry. They also state that all kinds of tourism can be viewed as educational.

Educational tourism is an international travel where one of the main motivations is to study something in its context, one of the main activities

undertaken is structured study in a formal environment, lasting for a period of between two weeks to one year. This definition builds on formulations put forth by Bodger (1998), Cohen (2003), Holdnak and Holland (1996), and others. According to Bogari (2002, p.135), educational tourism is “a travel in which learning occurs within a structured formal program. A common and popular type of educational tourism is the ‘study abroad’ program, where students attend schools or programs (generally for a semester or academic year) in a different place, frequently in a foreign country”.

It is also argued by Kalinowski and Weiler (1992, p.17) that “educational travel can comprise a diversity of activities and experiences sought by educational tourists, as well as a variety of settings and products supplied to them”. Bodger (1998) also asserted that educational travel could be meaningful as the daily contact to different set of cultural values might lead to profound changes in a participant’s perceptions and attitudes.

Holdnak and Holland (1996, p.73) coin the term ‘Edu-tourism’ and define it as simply, “travel to learn”. They claim that much conference travel is educational as participants travel to share new ideas and learn about trends. They also include museum trips and interpretive programs at state and national parks that make educational vacation experiences available.

Another perspective of viewing educational tourism is as 'special interest tourism'. World Tourism Organization (1985) states that specialized tourism connects group or individual tours by people who desire to improve particular interests and visit destinations linked with a specific subject. Likewise, much of the marketing literature uses the term niche to shed light on smaller groups of people with similar interests. Stebbins (1996, cited in Taylor, p.94) argues that the special interest tourist, "tends to seek durable benefits such as self-actualization, self-enrichment, recreation, renewal of self, self-expression, social interaction, sense of belonging, and also seek lasting physical products of the activity". On the contrary, Read (1980, cited in Ritchie, 2003) claims that the term special interest travel is not needed and should be replaced by the notion of REAL travel,

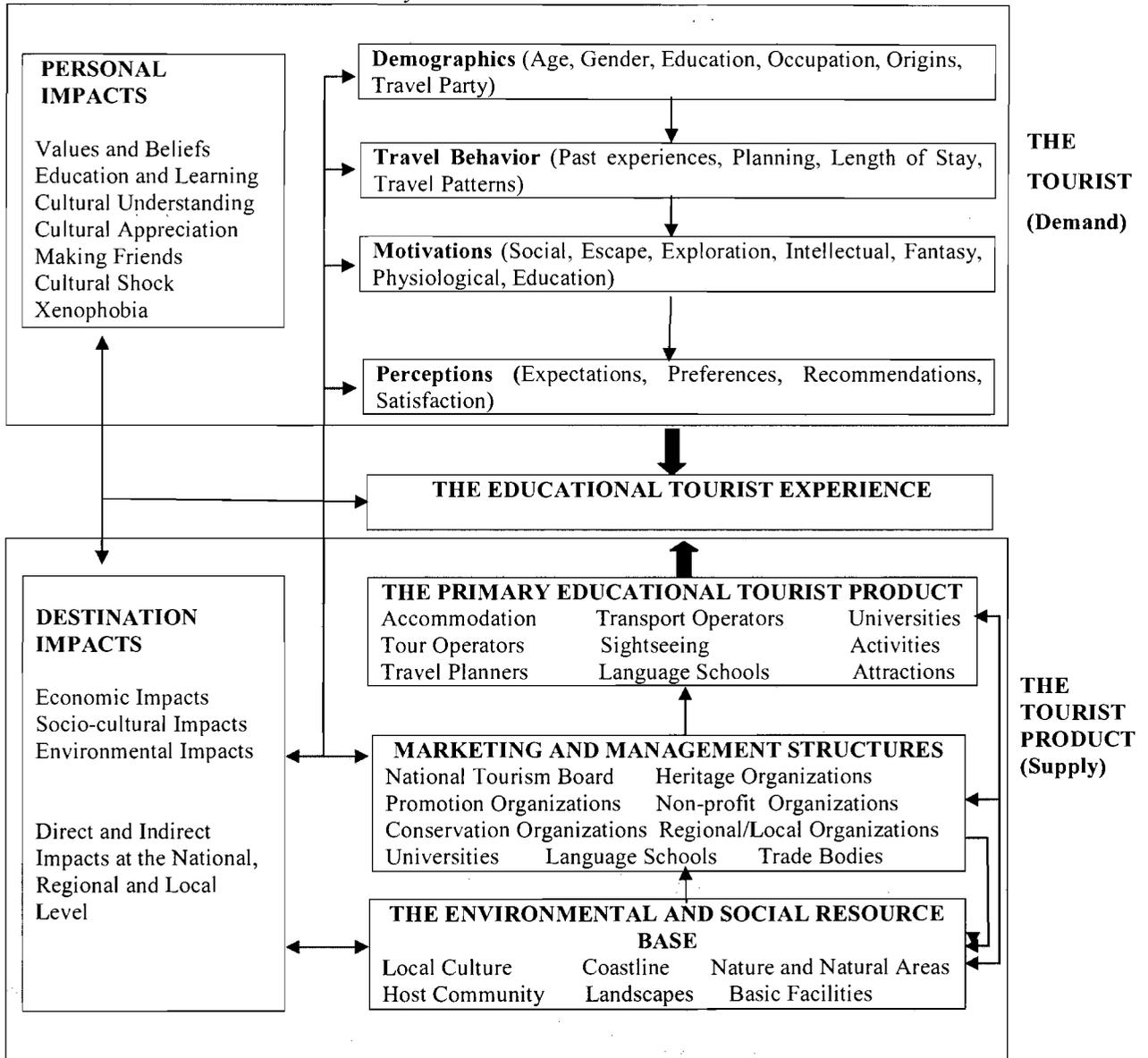
- Rewarding,
- Enriching,
- Adventurous,
- Learning experience.

Latest changes in the demand side of tourism may have led to a rising interest in education and learning as an important part of tourism and travel experiences. For example, there has been a growing interest in heritage tourism, including the natural and cultural environments, which engage education and learning as an essential component (Ritchie, 2003).

Moreover, the changes that took place in the tourist market in the last decades made the rise of what has been termed new tourists or new tourism. The characteristics of the new tourists are perceived to be more educated; more cultivated and culturally aware of the natural environment concerns; inquisitive, analytical; seeking self-knowledge and more vigorous in terms of participating in tourism activities (Poon, 1993). Such social changes were the cornerstone of creating new demand patterns for travel and tourism and changing product needs. Consequently, the rise of new tourism and special interest holidays which encompass education and learning as a significant component have affected the nature of tourism and its impact on the individual traveler and host countries.

Figure 2.3 illustrates the educational tourism market system. It includes the elements and settings that are combined to provide the educational tourist experience and help conceptualize the potential research avenues from the demand side and the supply side.

Figure 2.3
The Educational Tourism Market System



Source: Ritchie, B. W. (2003, p.15). *Aspects of tourism: managing educational tourism*. Sydney: Channel View Publications.

2.4.1 Forms of Educational Tourism

Taylor (2006) presents a typology of the key educational tourism practices with the main sub-types being: language immersion tourism, university study programs, extended scientific and cultural research tours, and volunteer tourism. Due to its comprehensive perspective of educational tourism practices, this typology will be discussed in the following sections.

2.4.1.1 Language Immersion Studies

Travel to absorb oneself in another language can be an influential way of learning and mastering the language. Learning a language involves much more than understanding linguistic methods; it is about studying the culture that a language can exemplify (Freed, 1995).

For different reasons, familiarity with the local language is helpful for a better understanding of the culture. First, language affords easy and quick access to local people who are usually more extrovert in their dealings when contact somebody speaking their tongue. Second, having a good command of a language, allows a person to have valuable interactions with the local community as he can recognize the hints, signals and clues of the societal culture (Rugman & Hodgetts, 2000).

The Grand Tour represents an example of this practice of educational travel, although among elite classes. Aristocrats and the rich embarked on comprehensive trips all over Europe for educational and cultural purposes. Acquiring fluency in foreign languages was one of the main motivations for that prestigious travel (Weaver & Oppermann, 2000). Moreover, such educational trips aimed to improve social status and skills of individuals, strengthen social links with other communities and increase power in the society.

Nowadays, English is the international language as many persons in the world either speak or seek to have a good command of it (Sundaram, 2006). It is not surprising then that the provision of English Language Teaching (ELT) has grown into a global industry (Ling, 2001). This may reflect the economic and political supremacy of the UK and the US for much of the last century in most regions of the world (English UK, 2008).

A small number of countries (UK, US, Canada, Ireland, Australia, Malta, and New Zealand) control the provision of English language learning in immersion contexts. There were about 800,000 students enrolled in English training courses at 400 recognized establishments (at both private schools and private and public universities and colleges) in 2006. As a result, the United Kingdom is the top destination, hosting roughly 40 percent of all immersion English students in the world (English UK, 2008).

Since 1996, English Australia has been teaching ELICOS (Australia's English Language Intensive Courses for Overseas Students) which revealed over 100,000 students in 2006 with 82 percent of students coming from Asia (English Australia, 2008). A large number of these language schools are placed in big cities where they provide essential services for migrants of non-English speaking countries and services sought by tourists (English Australia, 2008).

Some gestures for the significance of this type of educational tourism come from Malta where English is one of the official languages of the Mediterranean island. Although its citizens were not more than 414 thousand, Malta welcomed 56,578 international students who studied English language at 47 EFL schools in 2005 (National Statistics Office, Malta, 2008). The export of English language learning through immersion experiences started in Malta in the beginnings of 1960s, when Italian university students visited the island in the summer seasons. Despite its modest inception, this business flourished and contributed in the growth of the local economy (National Statistics Office, Malta, 2008). These educational tourists stay for comparatively long periods and hence compensate off-season concerns in the Maltese tourism industry. The Maltese Tourism recognized the significant economic impact of this form of tourism by which it created a "learning English" section on its website (www.visitmalta.com). The logo, "you'll have two holidays in one - language learning and a Mediterranean experience".

A good number of destinations teach English in immersion environments. One example is Malaysia, as a former colony of the British Empire, has a rich heritage that includes the English language. English language is now the mode of instruction at most academic institutions in Malaysia. Annually, thousands of students (around 50,000 in 2008) from around the world travel to Malaysia for educational purposes (Tourism Malaysia, 2009b).

English is certainly not the single language sought by educational tourists. Languages like French, German, Italian, Arabic, Japanese, Chinese and Spanish seem to be among the more studied in immersion environments internationally. In the case of Arabic language courses, Jordan is currently promoting this form of educational tourism as the Jordanian government plans towards increasing the number of international students at an annual rate of 11 percent to reach 100,000 by the year 2020 (Baradei, 2006).

Consequently, there are indeed a good number of students all over the world travel for language immersion tourism. Their performance and practices at destinations involve structured classroom language tuition, structured out-of-class tuition and touring, and often semi-structured language use of home stay environments in a full immersion context. This type of educational tourism may have considerable impacts (socially, culturally, economically...etc.) on host countries (Taylor, 2006).

2.4.1.2 University Studies and Exchanges

The globalization of business has been embraced by higher education sector. At present, higher education is seen as a service that can be marketed worldwide. Universities and other institutions of higher education are in strong competition to attract first-class international students and academic staff. Hence, competition in higher education sector is no longer limited within national borders (Melewar & Akel, 2005).

Consumers in higher education are now in positional market, where institutions compete for the best students while the applicants compete for the most preferred institutions. No institution can be excellent at everything, nor can any single institution gratify to needs of all applicants. Universities in the current environment should exert maximum efforts to maintain their strengths whereby will be able to situate themselves around aspects for which they can become excellent (Maringe, 2006).

According to Mazzarol and Hosie (1996), students consider many factors when they choose an overseas institution. These include, host country reputation and lifestyle, safety, availability of scholarships and work, ease of visa processing, cost, geographic proximity, climate, historical or economic ties between host country and home country, recognition of qualifications and good value for money.

Reciprocal relations and common interests between countries have improved university studies and exchanges. The higher value of an international education has encouraged many students to seek international resources for that education. Much of this is either related to educational migrant, a forerunner to ultimate settlement in that host country, or to an educational tourist who is someone motivated to study internationally at a university for a period of between two weeks to one year (Taylor, 2006).

Generally known as study abroad, year abroad, gap year, international student exchanges, or international semesters; these practices became popular over the past few years (Brennan, 1996). Despite students can organize such experiences independently, universities often organize most of the details - the structured study and much of the out-of-class activities (Brennan, 1996).

There are several institutions that design study abroad programs. For example, the Council on International Education Exchange (CIEE) which is a non-government international education association make 60 programs in 30 countries allowing American high school, university students and educators to study, volunteer, work, and teach overseas. It attracts skilled, motivated and qualified applicants. The Council on International Education Exchange stimulates students to seek knowledge, experience different cultures and destinations, horizon their inspiration, find adventure and excitement and respond to the new challenges of the world (CIEE, 2008).

Moreover, one of the leading modern institutions for this kind of flow is the European Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students (ERASMUS) program in Europe (European Commission, 2007). In 1987, the European Commission started providing a mobility program for European students named after the cosmopolitan scholar Erasmus. The main idea was to ease university students' mobility between universities around Europe (European Commission, 2007).

Another model of internationalization in the higher education sector is the grouping of universities that link institutions between the developed and developing world. For instance, the Association of Commonwealth Universities (ACU) is one of the oldest (founded in 1913) and largest (over 500 institutions) consortium. Universities have overseas affiliates by which international exchanges of students happen easily (European Commission, 2007).

Government strategies and those of public bodies, national and international non-profit institutions, as well as private universities set remarkable importance on the escalation of international student mobility (Guruz, 2008). Links between universities in various countries are likely to be based on mutual preparations regarding funding and credit recognition. This could be attributed to the fact that many higher education institutions see educational tourists as a profitable source of revenue particularly after the decrease of financial support from home governments as a consequence of the global economic recession in the late of the year 2008 and 2009. Thus, marketing tactics intended to attract

educational tourists have increasingly been functioning in both the developed and developing countries.

2.4.1.3 Extended Scientific and Cultural Study Tours

Scientific and cultural study tours are often for professionals or amateurs with a dedicated and attentive interest in a scientific or cultural field to undertake a structured study at the right place. Museums, institutions of scientific or cultural research, and academy-affiliated programs such as alumni associations together with interested societies are the most liable institutions to arrange these experiences. Accordingly, these kinds of institutions (museums, galleries, and alumni associations) drive thousands of educational tourists on study tours in various fields and interests from archaeology to zoology (Taylor, 2006).

Another form of scientific study tour is the participant expedition where the tourist pays for being a member of a scientific expedition. Organizations such as Earthwatch in the United States and the Scientific Exploration Society in the United Kingdom promoted this kind of tours a long time ago.

Earthwatch is devoted to creating an environmental heritage through scientific research projects, education and learning opportunities, and engaging people in field research (Earthwatch United States Institute, 2010). Earthwatch invests US\$5.7 million annually to support 100 research projects across 38

countries where thousands of students and classroom tutors are taught on such Earthwatch expeditions (Earthwatch United States Institute, 2010).

Morse (1997) was one of the few theorists to consider the significance of the scientific study tour. He stated that these scientific and cultural tours evolved from fairs and exhibitions in the use of science to explain the world to tourists.

Some destinations employed different approaches to attract educational tourists. Saba is part of the Netherlands Antilles, located in the Caribbean; attract roughly 25,000 tourists annually (sabatourism, 2010). They promoted “Sea and Learn” as an annual event regarding scientific learning and discovery over the previous few years. Every October “Sea and Learn” brings to Saba a range of scientists, naturalists and academics from the natural science fields. Daily multi-media presentations are held and participants join freely in field research projects and help in nature surveys during the month. The aim of the event is to strengthen the significance of protecting nature and to teach the potential safe-keepers to maintain feasibility of Saba’s ecotourism product (sabatourism, 2010). An event of this size and length bring important benefits to the island and the small businesses that cater for these tourists

2.4.1.4 Volunteer Tourism

Another type of educational tourism is volunteer tourism. McGehee and Santos (2005, p.760) defined it as “utilizing discretionary time and income to go out of

the regular sphere of activity to assist others in need". Moreover, Wearing (2001) noted that volunteer tourists as those...who, for different reasons, volunteer in an arranged way to make holidays that might include relieving the material poverty in some societies, the protection of particular environments, or research into issues and aspects of society or environment.

Most conceptualizations of the practice identify some blend of tourism and volunteerism. Tourists hence combine travel and activities usually associated more generally as tourism with volunteer work. While aid workers or development experts are paid for their skills, efforts and expertise, volunteer tourists are often paid for the privilege (Wearing, 2001).

Few studies have been provided on volunteer tourism in the literature. Volunteer tourism is often referred to as an alternative which seeks benefits joint by both participants (the visitors) and the recipients (hosts) at a destination or which highlights the values that the experience instills in the tourists (McGehee & Santos, 2005). According to the findings of some researchers (e.g. Wearing, 2001; McGehee & Santos, 2005), this alternative form of tourism is dedicated to completing many development projects, strengthening regular reports of volunteer tourism organizations, improving global intimacy and actually do change the world for being a better place.

2.4.1.5 Miscellaneous and Hybrid Practices

Some other forms of educational tourism involve a combination of these practices and therefore form a hybrid type. Educationally motivated tourism by school children is one such example that take place in the form of high school exchanges and international field trips. In high school exchanges, children live in homestay and often enroll in a high school course in the host country, usually for a year or so (Australian Education, 2008).

These field trips are precisely connected to curriculum and are an extension of the standard school excursion that may last for a few days. Increasingly, prosperous schools in the developed countries make use of holidays to take longer field trips. They sometimes visit destinations in the developing countries (Australian Education, 2008).

Moreover, groups such as Elderhostel and the University of the Third Age, which are endowed with experiences, can be explained as a combination of some or all of the practices of educational tourism. Elderhostel began in 1975 with five colleges in the North Eastern United States and 220 participants. Since 1981, it has grown to over 200,000 participants, offering 10,000 programs in 90 countries and often involves overseas travel. Elderhostel offers travel experiences for mature people. These trips embrace elements of language study, scientific and cultural learning, and volunteering. They are frequently undertaken in partnership

with universities, museums, cultural centers, theatres, national parks, or a range of other institutions (Elderhostel, 2008).

Elderhostel hires trains and boats for use as traveling classrooms and often use dormitories or homestays to keep costs reasonable. Elderhostel also offers scholarships for some participants with limited financial means. The duration of their tours can be as short as a weekend but longer programs last for a month or more (Elderhostel, 2008).

2.4.2 Promoting Educational Tourism

Promotions are often the initial steps offered to tourist in his decision-making process of whether to take a journey and, if so, to where. Hence, the first concept a tourist has with a destination is not the place itself, but a story or an image about it, usually resulting from various resources (Moscardo & Pearce, 2003). Marketing of any product or service can make the consumers want things that they do not necessarily need and so marketing has become a crucial element in motivating demand for several types of tourism (Moscardo & Pearce, 2003).

Many institutions that market several types of educational tourism - private and public universities, schools, museums, charities, etc. are broadly promoting their experiences and values to prospective participants in different techniques. Destinations at the national and regional levels are also marketed to

tourists who may visit, to business persons who may invest there and possibly to migrants who may desire to stay (Ward, 1998).

Various sectors participate in marketing tourism, and especially educational tourism. For example, National Tourism Ministries, National Tourism Boards, National Tourism Offices, etc. (most commonly known in the tourism literature as destination marketing organizations - DMOs) are officially responsible for marketing a destination among other tasks (Buhalis, 2001).

DMOs operate at local, regional and national levels in different countries. Destinations are usually packaged in connection with a theme, image, or brand, with the purpose of promoting and selling themselves to foreigners and even to encourage locals (Ward, 1998). On the other hand, the reality is sometimes different from what is offered by promotional campaigns.

Although the internet is an effective method for promoting destinations, many DMOs websites present educational tourism in a low profile (Taylor, 2006). It seems to be from the promotions of DMOs websites that some countries (e.g. Sabatourism, Tourism Malaysia) are exerting outstanding efforts for promoting educational tourism. Destination marketing organizations in these countries provide informative websites with suitable links to help educational tourists choose and confirm his/her courses. Internationally, practices of educational tourism appear more important in size than what DMO promotions currently present.

2.5 The Context of the Arab League Countries

This section aims to give the reader some information regarding the general subjects that may be linked to tourism in the Arab countries. It includes the population of the Arab countries, their geographical distribution, geographical environment, economic environment, cultural and social environment and Arabic language.

2.5.1 Population and Geographical Distribution of the Arab Countries

The population of the Arab countries or Arab league countries (also known as Arab world) view themselves and is viewed by others as Arabs. Their sense of Arab nationhood is reliant on what they have in common, namely; language, culture, sociopolitical experiences, economic interests, a collective memory of their area and role in history (Barakat, 1993). According to Alomari (2009), Arabs are those who speak Arabic language and practice Arab culture.

From Ottoman Turks to the European powers, the Arab countries expanded from the Atlantic Ocean in the west to the Arabian Sea in the east, and from the Mediterranean Sea in the north to the Horn of Africa and the Indian Ocean in the southeast (Al-Khatib, 2000). The highest spot in the Arab world is the Morocco Jbel Toubkal, standing 4,165 m tall, making it the 40th highest place on earth. On the other hand, the lowest place on Earth is the Dead Sea in Palestine at 420 meters (1,378 ft) below sea level. It is one of the world's first health

resorts. Thus, it has attracted tourists from around the Mediterranean basin for thousands of years.

The geographical environment of the Arab countries can be divided into three regions: the first region is related to the huge dry deserts which cover most of the Arab land. The second one is the fertile lands in the south and north of the Arab world while the third geographical environment is the high mountains of Ahaggr Zagros in Lebanon and the Hejaz mountains in Saudi Arabia.

The Arab league countries are consisted of 22 countries with a collective population of 340 million people across two continents (10 countries in Africa and 12 countries in Asia). If rated as one country, it will be third after China and India in overall population. No exact figures of the annual population growth, fertility rate, or mortality rate are published. Most of the Arab population is placed in and around major urban zones.

2.5.2 Climate

Most of the Arab countries are located in the dry region of the globe. Roughly 80 percent of the Arab land is deserts, extending from Mauritania and Morocco all the way to Oman and United Arab Emirates. Moderate Mediterranean climate has the maximum population size in the Arab countries. Only two environments

do not span the Arab countries, the dry climate in southern Sudan and Somalia, and the tropical wet climate in Comoros islands.

2.5.3 Economic Environment

The Arab world is rich in resources with huge oil and natural gas reserves. It has fertile lands in the south of Sudan normally named as the food basket of the Arab countries. The region's political instability does not influence Arab tourism industry, as tourism is the fastest growing sector in the region. Telecommunications is another industry that has a great development in many Arab countries. In less than ten years, local companies like Orascom and Etisalat have been able to compete internationally as global power players (Wikipedia, 2010).

Due to the high price of Petroleum resources, the Arab Gulf countries have achieved economic accomplishments more than other Arab states. On the other hand, several major promising economic projects have been emerged in different Arab countries. Among these, the Arab Gas pipeline which is expected to finish by the year 2010. Besides, the Greater Arab Free Trade Area (GAFTA) agreement that concluded in 2008, effectively leaving 95 percent of all the Arab products free of customs tax (Wikipedia, 2010).

The economic growth in the Arab countries is diverse. There is a major distinction between, rich oil states of the Arab Saudi Kingdom, Oman, UAE,

Qatar, Kuwait, Bahrain and poor countries like Comoros, Mauritania, Somalia and Djibouti. The Gross domestic product (GDP) of the Arab countries is US\$ 7,671 per capita, ranging from the highest and number one worldwide 'Qatar' US\$ 87,717 per capita to the lowest 'Comoros' US\$ 1,163 per capita (International Monetary Fund, 2010).

2.5.4 Arab Culture and Social Environment

Arab culture was first spread in the 2nd century as ethnically Arab Christians, such as the Ghassanids, Lakhmids, and Banu Judham. They lived in the Northern Arabia desert and the geographical area of the eastern Mediterranean (Hammond, 2007). Arab culture is a very important reference for public and private behavior.

Arab culture operates with an honor/shame code. People are taught how to behave correctly in public and private according to this code. The code is consisted of a set of rules, when followed, it brings honor to individuals, families, relatives, friends and society as a whole. The word *ai'b* (shame) is used to remind Arabs of the courtesy they need to maintain. Traditions in Arab culture look adversely on abortion, drug use, homosexuality, violence, divorce, individualism, westernization and social freedom.

Arab culture is male centered. Males lead most cultural, political and social institutions. This has a direct influence on the cultural status of women in

both Arab and Islamic countries. While Islam highlights the equality of men and women, Arab culture declines it (Alomari, 2009). A Jewish Arab in Morocco or a Christian Arab in Syria sticks to the same structure and thus have the same opinions on the role and status of women. If there are disagreements between culture and religion over issues, cultural traditions usually come first (Alomari, 2009).

Islam urges followers to practice exogamy (Marriage to a person belonging to a tribe or group other than your own one), but Arab culture encourages endogamy (Marriage within one's own tribe or group as required by custom or law) (Hammond, 2007). According to Arab culture, Arabs honor, respect and depend highly on their families. Besides, friendly relationships are greatly established and valued in the Arab society.

Thanks to Islam, Arabic language reaches all the continents of the globe. The wish to keep both Arabic and Islamic identity is noticeable among many Arab academics, politicians, businessmen, and others.

2.5.4.1 Arabic Language

Until the advent of Islam in the seventh century, Arabic was primarily an oral language. The Qur'an, Islam's holy book, was revealed to the Prophet Muhammad (pbuh) in Arabic, thereby giving the language great religious significance.

To understand the message of the Qur'an, it should be read in its original language, Arabic. Thus, the importance of the Arabic language extends well beyond the borders of the Arab world. Over 1.5 billion Muslims worldwide seek to learn the Arabic language to gain better understanding of their religion.

Teaching Arabic language internationally is considered as an important element in protecting the culture of the Muslim community, known as the *Ummah* (Al-Twaijri, 2004). Currently, Arabic language is spreading as many Muslims aspire to learn the language of Qur'an. The spread of Arabic language has made marketing tourism products to Muslims easier. In a study regarding the travel patterns of Arab tourists in Malaysia, Ibrahim et al. (2009) found that the aptitude to communicate in and understand the Arabic language among the front office personnel in Malaysia had a significant influence on the Arab tourists' fondness, hotel image and sustaining the market.

2.6 Malaysia as Destination and Object of Development

This section aims to give the reader some information about Malaysia in general and tourism in Malaysia in particular. It includes the historical background of tourism, current rise in tourism, main types of tourism being promoted and educational tourism in Malaysia.

2.6.1 An Overview of the Country

Continued industrial development and political stability in Malaysia are the cornerstone of making the country one of South-East Asia's vigorous economies. It is a multi-ethnic and multi-religious society where the Malays, Malaysia's largest ethnic group, form 57 percent of the population while the Chinese, Indian and Bumiputeras and other races make up the rest of the country (Tourism Malaysia, 2010).

There are two parts to Malaysia, 11 states in the peninsula of Malaysia and 2 states on the northern part of Borneo. Malaysia is one of the region's main tourist destinations. It is endowed with outstanding beaches and beautiful scenery. Its dense rainforests in the eastern states of Sarawak and Sabah, on the island of Borneo, are a place for wildlife and traditional customs (Tourism Malaysia, 2010).

Together with other businesses (e.g. computer disk drives, palm oil, rubber, timber) the tourism industry in Malaysia has a remarkable impact on the growth and development of the country (BBC News, 2010).

To avert a deep recession during the global economic recession, a US\$16 billion economic stimulus plan was revealed by the Malaysian government in 2009. Furthermore, there are some difficult challenges that confront Malaysia, mainly the religious differences that may shake its political stability and the ethnic

wealth gap which gets wider, as well as the difficulty in conserving its precious forests (BBC News, 2010).

2.6.2 Tourism in Malaysia

2.6.2.1 Historical Background

Despite the efforts Malaysia has made to attract tourists to the country since the 1960s, tourism in the country was not considered a vital economic power till the 1970s. In 1972, the Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia (TDC) was established as an agency under the Ministry of Trade and Industry. Initially, the tourism industry in Malaysia has not got a priority, and hence, the financial support of Malaysian government to the sector was in short supply. Accordingly, as a tourism destination, Malaysia stayed behind other countries in the region; such as, Singapore, Thailand and Indonesia (Yasak, 1996).

As the tourism sector has been recognized as a crucial factor in the economic and social growth, the Malaysian government embarked on a sequence of constructive measures to motivate the development of the tourism industry. Firstly, the government set up the Ministry of Culture and Tourism (which became the Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism in 1990). Then, the government established special funds to support the development of the tourism industry. These allocations were used to develop the infrastructure, facilities and

services required to stimulate the future progress of the tourism sector in the country (Yasak, 1996).

2.6.2.2 Current Rise of Tourism

The tourism industry in Malaysia sustained its prosperity regardless of economic recessions in 1997 and 2009. Tourism has remained a major foreign exchange earner as it contributed highly to the employment and investment in Malaysia (Ministry of Tourism Malaysia, 2009b). The flexibility of the tourism industry is attributed to the active participation of both the public and private sectors in making effectual promotional campaigns, segmenting target markets, and enhancing competitiveness of tourism products and services to maintain interest among tourists to visit Malaysia (Ministry of Tourism Malaysia, 2009b). Consequently, tourist arrivals to Malaysia in 2008 reached 22.05 million, which exceeded the 21.5 million target set by the government under the Ninth Malaysia Plan. This was an overall increase of 5.1 percent compared to 2007 (Tourism Malaysia, 2009a).

The Tourism Ministry and its marketing arm Tourism Malaysia maintained their hard work to attract more tourists to the country. They boosted their target for 2009 to 22.96 million tourist arrivals. This was a 2.04 percent increase from that of 2008. As a result, tourism receipts for 2009 were estimated to be RM 53.9 billion (Tourism Malaysia, 2009a).

Due to the exceptional efforts from all sectors involved in or connected to tourism in Malaysia, the country amazingly succeeded in meeting its objectives. Malaysia's tourism minister Dr. Ng Yen Yen said that "the number of tourists visiting Malaysia increased by 7.2 percent to 23.6 million last year compared to 22 million in 2008". Dr. Ng also stated that Malaysia and South Korea were the only countries in Asia which maintained their increase in tourist arrivals in 2009 while other countries had a decrease owing to the economic recession and the eruption of Influenza A (H1N1) (Berita Nasional Malaysia, 2010).

Until recently, Malaysia was largely unknown in the Arab countries. However, the events of September 11, 2001 and the maltreatment of the United States and many European countries towards the Arabs made them change their travel destination for Muslim countries. Hence, there was an increase of Arab tourists to Malaysia. In 2008, over 270,000 Arab tourists visited Malaysia and nearly 10 percent of those visitors came to Melaka where the first Arab City established to attract more Arab tourists (Fathi, 2009).

Arab culture is based on Islam, so Arab City and all the following projects will reflect this image. The opening of the first Arab City in Pulau Melaka in 2010 is expected to attract all nationalities as every tourist can enjoy Arab culture and entertainment. There is also a plan to establish an Arab City in every state in Malaysia. The concept of Arab City Melaka is to serve as a bridge between the Arab countries and Malaysia. On a greater level, it is a link from

which to establish and promote tourism opportunities, trade and cultural exchange internationally (Fathi, 2009).

2.6.2.3 Main Types of Tourism Being Promoted

The Malaysian government promotes many types of tourism. Among these, culture and heritage, eco and agro tourism, thematic events, such as traditional festivals and celebrations. Sports and recreation tourism which consists of the F1, the Raja Muda Regatta, Le Tour de Langkawi, golf championships, boat championships along with Meetings, Incentives, Conventions and Exhibitions (MICE) which is the backbone of business tourism in the country (Sivalingam, 2007).

Malaysia strives to make the country a hub for regional excellence in education. Therefore, promotional campaigns regarding educational tourism are increased. Malaysia is expected to attract as many as 80,000 international students by 2010. Regarding Health/Medical tourism, Malaysia is working hard to attract thousands of medical tourists particularly from the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) countries (Sivalingam, 2007).

2.6.2.4 Educational Tourism in Malaysia

International students increasingly see Malaysia as the preferred choice for higher education. The main reasons for the selection of Malaysia are its excellent and

cost-effective education, simple immigration procedures, safe and friendly environment, cosmopolitan culture and high quality of living. Consequently, Malaysian academic institutions have entertained thousands of international students from about 100 countries (Tourism Malaysia, 2009b).

Malaysia's multi-racial structure and welcoming nature pave the way for foreign students to interact with the local community and join their traditions and customs. The country has more than six hundred public and private educational institutions. These include outstanding household institutions with many overseas affiliations and several campuses of illustrious foreign universities (Tourism Malaysia, 2008).

Numerous high-status Malaysian universities have made their mark as centers of academic excellence, such as the International Islamic University and the Multimedia University. There are also dignified institutions such as University Malaya in Kuala Lumpur and Malaysian University of Science in Penang. Moreover, a number of international colleges and universities have launched twinning programs with Malaysian institutions like Monash, Nottingham and other honored universities (Tourism Malaysia, 2008).

Corresponding to the Malaysian government's efforts to promote educational tourism, English language courses are designed to meet the needs and

wants of foreign students who can immerse themselves in the culture, language, lifestyle and beautiful environment of Malaysia (Tourism Malaysia, 2009b).

English courses in Malaysia combined learner-centered classroom instruction, personal consultation and intercultural activities with enriching education opportunities for exploration, inquiry, communication and analysis. Such programs embrace various direct experiences, outdoor activities, field trips and daily interaction with Malaysian students and roughly 100 other nationalities (Tourism Malaysia, 2009b). With its amazing attributes, Malaysia offers a variety of educational tourism programs that can be influential motivations for foreign students to study in the country. These influential tourism motivations will be discussed in the following section.

2.7 Tourism Motivation

This section provides a review on tourism motivation, to understand the most important push factors that drive tourists to travel and the pull factors that draw them to particular destinations. Besides, the researcher will discuss the push and pull motivations and the factors that affect them, like the cultural factors and demographic factors.

2.7.1 Understanding Tourism Motivation

Human motivation is a key element in predicting consumers' attitude and behavior (Chernev, 2004). In social psychology and consumer literature, motivations are effective factors in decision-making.

Motivation is referred to as psychological/biological/social needs and wants, including internal (or emotional) and external forces (Bhatia, 2007). These forces describe how individuals are pushed by motivation variables into making travel decisions and how they are pulled or attracted by destination attributes (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981).

Motivation is a driving force, which is produced because of perceived needs, such as the need to travel and to seek a novel experience (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007). It leads a person to move to do something and hence motives are the foundation of the entire behavior (Fodness, 1994) including traveling and attending cultural events like music festivals (Schofield & Thompson, 2007). Pizam, Neumann and Reichel (1979, p.195) defined tourism motivation as "the set of needs which predisposes a person to participate in a tourist activity".

To understand tourist perceptions and needs, Urry's concept of the 'tourist gaze' has also been significant. Urry (2002) sees 'the gaze' as a motive for traveling to destinations in order to visually consume scenery and peoples who form the 'exotic other'. He also states that tourists learn to look at things in

specific ways and so, to be profitable, the tourism industry must know how to influence the tourist gaze (Urry, 2002). Consequently, among the key motivations of tourists is the desire to gaze at a place and its inhabitants who are different and exotic for pleasure or interest. One issue arising is the extent to which tourists and their own motivations are relatively independent of the tourism industry, thus letting them be the masters of their own experiences, or whether tourism industry predetermines to a great extent the way people travel, the things they see, and the experiences they have (Taylor, 2006).

Can human motivation alone decide who will travel where and what characteristics of a destination are to be gazed upon or experienced? Tourists have been told what to expect, what sights they will see, and what emotions they may have before even visiting the destination. The strategies formulated by destination marketing organizations are the cornerstone of such notions and impressions as they strive to attract as many tourists as they can regardless of what message they inculcate into tourist's mind. Nevertheless, motivation has long been an important topic in tourism research (Mak et al., 2009; Nowacki, 2009; Park & Yoon, 2009). According to Bhatia (2007, p.43), "there would be no tourist industry without peoples' motivation to travel".

One of the most popular typology of tourist motivations is the Crompton's (1979) push and pull model which emphasizes that tourist's choice of a travel destination is influenced by two forces. Push factors that push individuals

from home, and pull factors that pull individuals toward a destination. Accordingly, numerous researchers (e.g. Hsieh & Park, 2008) assert that the push and pull motivation factors provide a simple and intuitive approach of explaining and anticipating individuals' travel decisions. Table 2.2 below summarizes a number of push and pull factors of tourism motivations.

Table 2.2
Number of Items of Tourism Motivations (push and pull) and Number of Factors Extracted from them

Researchers	Number of Items		Number of Factors	
	Push	Pull	Push	Pull
Beard and Ragheb (1983)	48 items	-	4 factors	-
Yuan and McDonald (1990)	29 items	53 items	5 factors	7 factors
Fodness (1994)	65 items	-	7 factors	-
Jamrozy and Uysal (1994)	30 items	53 items	8 factors	11 factors
Uysal and Jurowski (1994)	26 items	29 items	4 factors	4 factors
Oh et al. (1995)	30 items	52 items	6 factors	5 factors
Cha et al. (1995)	30 items	-	6 factors	-
Baloglu and Uysal (1996)	30 items	53 items	4 factors	6 factors
Hanqin and Lam (1999)	22 items	26 items	5 factors	6 factors
Kim and lee (2000)	24 items	-	5 factors	-
Heung et al. (2001)	25 items	-	5 factors	-
Kozak (2002)	14 items	-	4 factors	-
Lee et al. (2002)	17 items	22 items	6 factors	7 factors
Mazzarol and Soutar (2002)	5 items	39 items	5 factor	6 factors
Jang and Cia (2002)	22 items	19 items	6 factors	5 factors
Kim and Jogaratnam (2002)	26 items	-	7 factors	-
Kim and Lee (2002)	12 items	12 items	4 factors	3 factors
Kim et al. (2003)	12 items	12 items	4 factors	4 factors
Bogari et al. (2003)	36 items	40 items	9 factors	9 factors
Yoon and Uysal (2005)	24 items	28 items	8 factors	10 factors
Kim and Prideaux (2005)	21 items	-	5 factors	-
Mehetioglu (2005)	20 items	-	5 factors	-
Kau and Lim (2005)	28 items	48 items	6 factors	9 factors
Chiang and Jogaranam (2006)	20 items	-	5 factors	-
Jang and Wu (2006)	23 items	12 items	5 factors	3 factors
Kim (2006)	31 items	25 items	7 factors	6 factors
Kim et al. (2006)	30 items	25 items	7 factors	6 factors
Beh and Buyere (2007)	49 items	-	8 factors	-
Correia et al. (2007)	15 items	19 items	3 factors	3 factors
Kim et al. (2007)	26 items	-	7 factors	-
Wong (2008)	11 items	11 items	4 factors	4 factors
Tien (2008)	-	16 items	-	5 factors
Hsieh and Park (2008)	14 items	23 items	4 factors	5 factors
Ng (2009)	-	-	5 factors	6 factors

Most of these studies used a quantitative approach (e.g. Ng, 2009), whereas other authors were reliant on a qualitative approach (e.g. Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Oh et al., 1995; Uysal & Jurwski, 1994). In the following sections, the most important push and pull factors that impel tourists to travel will be under critical discussion:

2.7.2 Push Factors

Kim et al. (2003, p.170) defined push factors as “motivational factors or needs that arise due to a disequilibrium or tension in the motivational system”. This indicates that the factors which motivate or create a desire for travel are recognized as the starting point of understanding tourist behavior (Konu & Laukkanen, 2009). Correia et al. (2007) found that push factors were antecedents of the pull factors, implying that push factors were the foundations of travel decision. The literature review proposes that people are firstly pushed by internal desires or motivation factors such as knowledge, escape personal reasons, adventure and excitement, so on. In the next part, these push factors will be discussed in details.

2.7.2.1 Knowledge

Acquiring knowledge and understanding other cultures through travel is not exclusive to our modern era as it can be traced back through the travel narratives of Muslims like Ibn Battuta in the 14th century and the scholarship of ancient

Greek historians and geographers like Herodotus (Hazbun, 2009). Knowledge embraces the wish to gain a profound understanding about other countries through cultural and social activities (Moutinho, 1987).

Researchers classified this factor through several items such as “learning new things and increasing knowledge”, “seeing and experiencing a foreign destination”, “experiencing new and different culture or lifestyles”, “meeting new and different people”, and so on (e.g. Kim et al., 2007).

Regardless of the similarity of the items that represent this factor, researchers gave a number of names to the factor. It was named knowledge (Hsu et al., 2007; Kim et al., 2007; Jang & Wu, 2006; Ng, 2009), novelty (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Lee et al., 2002) knowledge and novelty seeking (Chen, 2004; Teye & Leclerc, 2003) seeing and learning (Kim et al., 2006), exploration (Kau & Lim, 2005) discovery (Hsieh & Park, 2008) and discovery and learning (Kim, 2006).

Various studies show differences in the rank of the importance of this factor in comparison to other factors. For example, knowledge was the most important push factor for Malaysian Chinese tourists who traveled to China (Ng, 2009). It was the vital push factor for Taiwanese tourists who traveled to Thailand (Hsieh & Park, 2008), and the first important factor perceived by British tourists who traveled abroad (Jang & Cai, 2002). Knowledge was also the most important for older Chinese tourists who traveled for tourism (Jang & Wu, 2006)

and a significant factor for American student tourists (Kim et al., 2007). Consequently, many tourists consider the knowledge factor as one of the most important motives that push them to travel.

Since there have not been models of frameworks regarding the motivations of Arab educational tourism, it was important to include this push motivation factor in this study to determine its importance on Arab educational tourists traveling to Malaysia.

2.7.2.2 Personal Reasons

Binsardi and Ekwulugo (2003) argue that students who want to study abroad are not merely buying degrees but the merits and privileges that a degree can grant them in terms of employment, status and style, among others. In this way, employment prospects take a significant impact on their personal motivations. Bourke (2000) also found that improving career prospects and having higher status at work or in society were among the most important personal reasons that motivated individuals to study abroad (Bourke, 2000).

Future employers are true customers because they purchase the product (trained students) (Kotler & Fox, 1995). These prospective employers will judge the strength of the degree and its holders according to their perceptions about the program quality, the institution's prestige, and the international image of the host country (Mazzarol & Hosie, 1996).

Furthermore, Krampf and Heinlein (1981) found that advice from family, friends, or acquaintances had an important influence on the choice of a host country. On the other hand, Ruby (2007) found that family members, friends, and college alumni had an influence on college choice. Olson (1992) also found that domestic graduate students ranked recommendations from family, friends, and peers as important motives in their choice of a university. In a study on the international graduate students, Waters (1992) asserted that friends and relatives in the United States had an influence on college choice.

In their study of international students in Australia, Mazzarol and Soutar (2002) found that alumni played a role in destination choice by creating social links within the home country. They noted that interpersonal influence and recommendation from family members are among the most important sources of information and encouragement for complicated services like international education.

Due to the lengthy stay of educational tourists at host countries, families put great concern over issues like safety and the freedom of religious practices while choosing educational tourism destination. Regarding Arab educational tourists, there has been a profound worry about their safety aftermath of 9/11 attacks in U.S. and many European countries. As a result, many Arab families motivate their sons to study in Muslim countries. Some Arab educational tourists in Malaysia revealed that their family was behind their choice of Malaysia.

Mohamed, “personal communication” (3rd Sept., 2010), stated that: “*my family urges me to complete my Ph.D in a Muslim country. Once I started applying to Malaysian universities, almost all my family agreed upon this decision*”.

Furthermore, the attraction of the experience of living in a different culture, meeting new people, making international contacts and improving language skills were found important personal motives that pushed international students to study overseas (Bourke, 2000).

The majority of international students who studied in Australia from Taiwan, India, China and Indonesia preferred an overseas course than a local one (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002). Other important personal reasons that motivated international students to travel were the difficulty for students to gain entry to particular programs within their own countries or such programs were not available whereby they had to study overseas (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2008). Similarly, many Arab educational tourists traveling to Malaysia for the same reasons as either their government sent them to Malaysia or preferred programs are not available in their home countries. One of these, Sami (3rd Sept., 2010), quoted *verbatim* he said that: “*I came to Malaysia due to two main reasons: firstly, I have been granted a scholarship from my government to study in Malaysia. Secondly, my specialization, which is Ph.D in Finance, is not available in my country*”.

2.7.2.3 Adventure and Excitement

Adventure is a leisure activity and a thrilling experience which usually occurs in abnormal, wild and remote places (Millington, Locke & Locke, 2001). Recently, tourism industry has come up with a new form of adventure called adventure learning. Doering (2008) claims that adventure learning is a hybrid education approach that provides students with opportunities to explore real-world issues through authentic learning experiences within collaborative learning environments.

Some adventuresome have a preference to visit abnormal and foreign destinations to gain new experiences, enjoy the fabulous environment and to test their skills and potentials (Tran & Ralston, 2006). A thrill-seeking Arab student (31st Augt., 2010) commented that: *“on behalf of being awarded a scholarship, my government asked me to choose either Egypt or Malaysia. I selected Malaysia because I want to experience its various adventurous activities which I read about on the internet. I would like to experience a new destination, a different culture with a different environment as well”*.

On the other hand, Weir (2009) claims that adventure for one individual is routine for another; therefore, it is hard to classify adventure by the activity. Most people wish for having adventure without the risks. In other words, most tourists want adventure without the adventure. In the tourism industry, this type of travel is commonly referred to as “soft adventure” (Weir, 2009).

The adventure factor in prior studies was given different names; such as, adventure (Abd Aziz & Ariffin, 2009; Beh & Buyere, 2007), adventure and excitement (Kim, 2006), adventure and thrill (Kim et al., 2006), entertainment (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2002), and fun and excitement (Jang & Cai, 2002).

With reference to the importance of the adventure factor compared to other factors, earlier studies revealed that adventure was the second important factor considered by Korean tourists (Kim et al., 2003), the second vital factor for US student tourists (Kim et al., 2007) and the fourth significant factor for the Malaysian domestic pleasure tourists (Abd Aziz & Ariffin, 2009). For its importance in several studies, it was essential to include the adventure and excitement factor in this study to identify its impact on the decisions of Arab educational tourists' selection of a destination since Arabs tend to adventuresome.

2.7.2.4 Escape

Tourists escape from their daily life and search for new experiences. Some tourists want to escape from routine and responsibility while others escape from stress (Iso-Ahola, 1982). Escape motive usually reflects an individual's desire to escape from his/her personal environment (pressure, stress), and from his/her interpersonal environment (employer, colleagues, family) (Jamrozy & Uysal, 1994).

A number of researchers defined escape motive through items like 'escape from routine and responsibilities', 'escape from the familiar', 'escape from the pressures of urban living', 'escape from a stressful job', 'escape from daily life', and 'getting away from the demands of home' (e.g. Biswas, 2008; Chan & Baum, 2007; Van der Merwe et al., 2009).

The most important elements in escape factor are the physical and social differences between the environments of home and destination. These distinctions push tourists to escape from daily routines and pressure (Crompton, 1979).

Various studies revealed differences with respect to the importance of the escape factor in comparison to other factors. For instance, escape was the most important motive considered by South African tourists who visited the Kruger National Park (Van der Merwe & Saayman, 2008). It also was the most important factor considered by Chinese tourists who visited Singapore (Kau & Lim, 2005), and the second crucial motivation factor for senior Taiwanese tourists (Chen & Wu, 2009). Moreover, escape was the third important factor for US student tourists (Kim et al., 2006) and the fourth push motivation factor for Taiwanese tourists visiting Penghu and Phuket in Thailand (Hsieh & Park, 2008).

Furthermore, some researchers (e.g. Kim & Jogaratnam, 2002; Kim & Lee, 2000) examined the motivations of student tourists. They found that escape factor was one of the motives that pushed students to travel. Likewise, a number

of Arab educational tourists in Malaysia affirmed that the escape factor was their motive to travel. Among these educational tourists, Abdullah (7th Sept., 2010) quoted *verbatim* he said that: “*openly the too much work my father had given me along with the demands of home made me escape in order to change. I chose Malaysia because it is a Muslim, safe and developed country especially in my field which is Information Technology*”. Besides, Ahmed from Iraq (6th Sept., 2010) commented that: “*Actually, I escaped from my country due to several things mainly safety. My family recommended Malaysia as the right place to study and live with my wife. Moreover, Malaysia is one of few countries in the world which issued visa without difficulty*”.

2.7.2.5 Enjoying Natural Resources

Enjoying natural resources signifies the tourists' wish to get pleasure from natural resources such as wilderness and undisturbed areas, national parks/forests, rivers, rural areas, snow/mountains and so on, which make specific destinations attractive and distinguished (e.g. Malaysia).

Researchers see this factor through items like ‘observing nature’, ‘viewing wildlife’, ‘to enjoy good weather’, ‘to enjoy rural countryside’, ‘visiting national parks/forests’ and so on (e.g. Kim, 2006; Konu & Laukkanen, 2009).

European tourists, remarkably tourists from Britain and Germany traveled to fulfill this desire in Mallorca and Turkey (Kozak, 2002); whereas Asian tourists

frequently traveled to neighboring countries to satisfy this motive. For instance, Chinese tourists traveled primarily to Singapore (Kau & Lim, 2005), but Finnish and South Korean tourists traveled frequently to domestic destinations (Kim & Lee, 2002; Konu & Laukkanen, 2009).

On the other hand, Kim and prideaux (2005) found that Japanese tourists preferred traveling abroad specifically to Hong Kong and South Korea to satisfy the desire of this factor. Besides, Hsieh and Park (2008) found that Taiwanese tourists traveled to Thailand to enjoy natural resources factor. Arab educational tourists in Malaysia revealed that the beautiful natural scenery of Malaysia was one of their main motivations to visit the country. For instance, Majed, “personal communication” (6th Sept., 2010), noted that: “*when my brother came back from Malaysia, he showed us very beautiful photos which really attracted me to study in Malaysia as my brother did*”. Kareem (4th Sept., 2010) also stated that: “*the gulf countries really lack such natural heritage that Malaysia is endowed with; therefore, I was definitely attracted by these wonderful attributes*”.

2.7.3 Pull Factors

Pull factors represent the product attributes that attract a person towards a certain destination (Tien, 2008). Travelers’ own understanding of the degree to which a destination may fulfill their exact trip desires are reflected in the attractiveness of the destination. They may be attracted by the knowledge and awareness of

specific host country, its international image, cost or expenditure, cultural and natural attractions and so forth. In the next part, these pull factors will be discussed in details.

2.7.3.1 Knowledge and Awareness

The choice of a specific host country as a study destination seems to be affected by the international profile of the country (Kinnell, 1989). Mazzarol and Soutar (2002) found that the knowledge and awareness of the host country was a critical and decisive motive in the destination choice of international students.

Consequently, this may explain why so many international students from certain source countries choose to study where they do now. For instance, the reputation of the United States as the major host country of international students is primarily due to the knowledge of U.S. all over the world. Its domination of the world's media over the last five decades helped U.S. maintain this influential position.

Moreover, the destination's reputation for quality and the recognition of its qualifications in the student's home country are important features for many international students (Mazzarol et al., 2000). Mazzarol and Soutar's (2002) quantitative study on international students from four different nationalities (China, Indonesia, Taiwan, and India) measured knowledge and awareness of a host country through four items. They found that the easiness to find information

about the host country as a study destination was an important element in the choice of a host country. The level of knowledge a student has of the host country, quality of education and recognition of qualifications were also considered significant by international students. Conversely, some international students studied in countries where education standards were low or from which qualifications were not recognized at home.

Countries such as the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, and New Zealand have become central study destinations for international students due to their quality, flexible entry and qualifications that renowned internationally (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2008).

On the other hand, the events of 9/11 changed the political arena of the world. As a result, Arab tourists directed their travel destination to Muslim countries. Malaysia, as a modern country, has recently emerged as an educational tourism destination for Arab countries. An Arab educational tourist (2nd Sept., 2010) quoted *verbatim* he stated that: “*I have been attracted to Malaysia by my father who visited the country three years ago. When he came back, he was really amazed of Malaysia’s great infrastructure, development, modernization, freedom, safety, good services in travel and accommodation*”.

2.7.3.2 Country Image

The country image refers to the picture, the reputation and the stereotype that consumers connect to products or services of a particular country. The country image can affect positively the customers' needs of obtaining a product or a service (Javalgi, Cutler & Winans, 2001).

The prospective international students ponder various aspects connected to a host country; such as, safety and security, cultural attractions, international background, learning environment, quality of life, and visa and entry requirements, among others (Cubillo et al., 2006). These characteristics which linked to the country image influence the ultimate decision of international students in their study abroad choice.

Furthermore, Harrison-Walker (1995) found that the country image had a significant role in the choice of international students for educational travel choice. Lascu and Giese (1995) also claimed that tourists preferred service providers from developed countries to those from developing countries, excluding when lower costs were considered.

Moreover, one of the factors considered by future international students is the high status implied in studying in countries with good international image (Bourke, 2000). Indeed, the country image may represent one of the most important attributes for Arab tourists. This is due to the Arab culture which values greatly the image of countries from which students graduated other than

the knowledge and skills they received. For the Islamic world, Turkey and Malaysia may be achieve the premium image among other members of the Organization Islamic Countries (OIC includes 57 countries). It should be noted that, up to now, Malaysia is not exploiting its good image in the Arab world as the number of Arab tourists in the country is still few. An Arab student (5th Sept., 2010), quoted *verbatim* he commented that: "*indeed, the good image of Malaysia in my society was a main motive of my choice to travel and study in Malaysia*".

2.7.3.3 Cultural and Natural Attractions

Cultural and natural attractions correspond to the presence of architectural works, works of monumental sculpture and painting, elements of structure of archeological nature, inscriptions, cave dwellings, historically or archaeologically interesting buildings and places, crafts places, local festivals, local food, and natural scenery that attract tourists to some destinations (Chen, 2004; Schofield & Thompson, 2007).

Tourists usually crave to learn about other cultures and see beautiful scenery. However, the question remains how to stimulate them to come and see? Hu and Ritchie (1993) found that the distinctive lifestyle of the local people, their customs and traditions, historical attractions, scenery, and the approach of the local people towards tourists were considered crucial characteristics for attracting student tourists. Some Arab educational tourists in Malaysia also stated that this

factor was important in their selection of a destination. Mustapha, “personal communication” (7th Sept., 2010), noted that: “*since I was at prep. school, I have had a wish to live in a different culture, know the traditions and customs of other people, their heritage, folklore, local food and things like that*”.

Previous studies revealed that the availability of the cultural and natural attractions enabled host countries to draw tourists from different nationalities. Malaysia historical attractions, striking cultural activities, good facilities, learning environment, along with its beautiful nature are sufficient to attract thousands of Arab tourists to its destinations. Hence, this factor is included to examine the significance of its elements on Arab educational tourists traveling to Malaysia.

For its significance in previous literature, many studies show differences in the standing of the importance of this factor compared to other factors. For example, this factor was the most important factor that attracted German tourists who traveled to Mallorca and Turkey (Kozak, 2002). It was the second most important factor for Malaysian pleasure domestic tourists (Abd Aziz & Ariffin, 2009), the third most important factor for Japanese, British, and United States student tourists who traveled to study abroad (Kim et al., 2006) and the fourth most important factor considered by German tourists who traveled abroad (Yuan & McDonald, 1990).

2.7.3.4 Cost

Cost is the monetary value of expenditures for supplies, services, labor, products, equipment and other items. The World Tourism Organization (1993, p.15) defines tourist expenditure as “the total consumption expenditure made by a visitor or on behalf of a visitor for or during his/her trip and stay at a destination and which expenditure is related to that trip and which trip is undertaken outside the usual environment of the tourist”. The cost factor as a pull motivation factor includes items such as travel costs, accommodation budget, cost of fees, and so forth (Hsieh & Park, 2008; Kim et al., 2006; Kau & Lim, 2005; Kozak, 2002).

Several studies revealed that the cost factor attracted tourists to particular destinations. For example, Taiwanese tourists considered cost as an important factor that pulled them to visit Thailand (Hsieh & Park, 2008). Chinese tourists who were attracted by the cost factor traveled primarily to Hong Kong and Singapore (Kau & Lim, 2005). Furthermore, this factor was the third factor that pulled Malaysian Chinese to travel to China (Ng, 2009). Kim and Lee (2000) also found that this factor was the most important for student tourists across international destinations (Mexico, Canada, United Kingdom, Spain, Italy, Germany, France, Ireland and Jamaica). In his study, Mills (2004) found that most international students decided to join universities that best matched their financial conditions. Zstam (2002) also found that students and their parents considered various financial implications, such as their socio-economic status, tuition fees, scholarship possibilities, and financial aid programs when they selected an

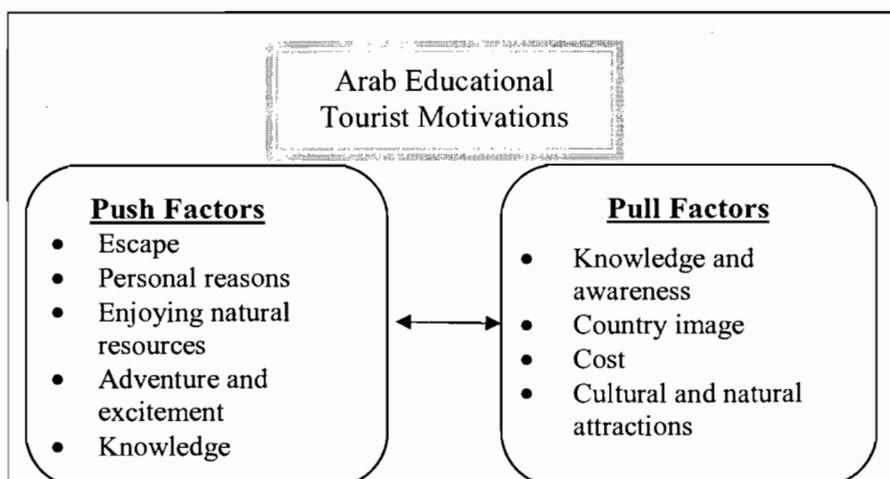
overseas college. In his study, Allen (2007) found that sixty-one percent of students travel overseas was in need for scholarships, loans, or part-time work in order to make study possible. He revealed that, the cost of education was the main concern in over half of participants when choosing a university to study. Students at private universities and colleges were much more likely to consider financial aid than those at public universities (Allen, 2007).

Hence, the cost factor is a significant factor in determining an educational tourism destination choice. For instance, Abu Zaid, (2nd Sept., 2010), commented that: *“candidly, four main reasons were behind my choice of Malaysia. 1) Malaysia is a Muslim country. 2) Lower cost of living and fees than many Arab or foreign countries. 3) Recognition of Malaysia’s qualifications in my country (I mean UUM). 4) English communication.*

The global market for international students has become highly competitive and many institutions, particularly higher education institutions, depend greatly on tuition fees from overseas students (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2008). Consequently, the future of quality in international higher education might be attached directly to financial resources. Nabil (5th Sept., 2010), quoted *verbatim* he stated that: *“in fact, my family and friends advised me to study in Malaysia but without having the scholarship from my government it would be very difficult to complete my study on my own. Alhamdulillah, I was lucky that my government had sent me here”*.

Several researchers discussed the relationship between push and pull factors (e.g. Bogari et al., 2003; Chang, 2007; Hsieh & Park, 2008; Kim et al., 2003; Ng, 2009). The discussions focused on a model included two types of factors (push and pull) that had a reciprocal relationship. Figure 2.4 shows the relationship between push and pull motivations. This model included a convergence of push and pull factors from both tourism and education industries to determine the motivations of Arab educational tourists traveling to Malaysia. This convergence is unique as the researcher has not found any model regarding educational tourist motivations. The model proposed that Arab educational tourists' push factors, such as knowledge, personal reasons, adventure and excitement, escape, enjoying natural resources may have reciprocal relations with pull factors that include, knowledge and awareness, country image, cost, and cultural and natural attractions.

Figure 2.4
Push and Pull Motivations



Based on the above discussion, some hypotheses can be developed:

H1: There is a relationship between push and pull factors.

2.7.4 Culture and Tourist Motivations

Culture has many elements which include religion, attitudes and values, language, social organization, education, technology, political systems and legal systems (Goodenough, 1971). Differences in cultural values affect the ways in which decisions are made, strategies are applied and plans are implemented. The interaction of religion, values, beliefs and attitudes influence the behavior, spoken language and performance of people (Moutinho, 2000). These factors also have an effect on the tourist motivations through different types of experiences people gain during travel (Kim & Lee, 2000; You et al., 2000). Several researchers found that Cultural factors had an effect on tourism (Litvin & Kar, 2003; Pizam & Sussman, 1995; You et al., 2000).

According to Pizam and Sussmann's (1995) study on the influence of national culture on tourist behavior, concerning a group of British tour guides, asking for their views on behavioral differences between tourists from Japan, France, Italy and the US, found that 90 percent of the respondents showed significant differences perceived between the four nationalities. For instance, Japanese tourists were perceived by the British tour guides to keep aloof and to

stay away from socializing with other tourists, while Americans were likely to come together with other nationalities. Pizam and Sussmann (1995) concluded that these differences were as a consequence of the cultural influences.

Sheldon and Fox (1988) also found that for Japanese tourists compared to United States and Canadian tourists, food service had an effective impact on their motivations and in turn on their destination choice. Moreover, Gilbert and Terrata (2001) studied the effect of Japanese culture on travel motivations and found that Japanese tourists were likely to be pushed by acquiring new knowledge and enjoying adventure during overseas travel.

Chinese (Mainland) and Chinese (Hong Kong SAR) tourists were perceived to be motivated by 'social status', compared to United States tourists, who were less likely to be motivated by this factor. Examining the effect of culture on tourist motivations (push and pull factors), Kim and Lee (2000) used cultural orientation of individualism and collectivism to understand the differences in travel motivations between Anglo-American and Japanese visitors. They found that Japanese and American tourists had different cultural and travel preferences.

Kozak (2002) used the concept of push and pull to study the motivations of 1,872 British and German visitors who traveled to Mallorca and Turkey in the summer of 1998. German tourists were perceived to have culture and nature-

oriented motivations, while British visitors tended to have fun. He found that tourists who traveled to Turkey had cultural and physical motivations than those in Mallorca. According to Bansal and Eiselt (2004), tourists from North America traveled in small groups and most of them sought to be involved in adventure. Some of their motivations were climate, relaxation, adventure, personal reasons, educational sites and festivals. In investigating the effect of Arab culture on tourist motivations, Barham (1989) found that the lack of activity preferred '*Raha*' by the Arabs generally affected their tourist decisions.

Very few studies that conducted to find out how Arab tourists' motivations are affected by Arab culture. For educational tourism specifically, the researcher is not aware of any study that determine how Arab educational tourists' motivations are affected by Arab culture despite the increasing number of Arab educational tourists.

To close this gap, this study aims to examine the effect of the Arab societal culture on Arab educational tourists' motivations. Figure 2.5 shows the relationship between cultural factors and push and pull factors of Arab educational tourists. To achieve this objective, Hofstede's model of culture will be used.

2.7.4.1 Hofstede's Model of Culture

In his famous study of culture consequences, Hofstede (1980, 1991) recognized five different factors of culture relied on a study of seventy-two countries. These factors are power distance, individualism and collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, femininity and masculinity, long-term versus short-term orientation.

Power distance represents how cultures handle inequality between individuals. To be precise, understanding the way people are treated in terms of equality/inequality in their family, school, work and society (Hofstede, 1994). For example, a small power distance family behaves toward the children as equals, and they are stimulated to think independently and make their decisions on their own. At schools, they depend to some extent on their own initiatives, and at workplace, they view hierarchy as being an inequality of tasks instituted to run the company. In a small power distance society, lower management is regularly being consulted once the company makes decisions (Hofstede, 1994).

In a large power distance society, children are quite obedient to their parents and elders as a sign of respect. Parents and elders are treated as superiors and make decisions for the children. In this situation, the child considers his teacher as being very wise, and feels uncomfortable or anxious for disapproving his/her ideas even if he/she may have different views. In a large power distance society where hierarchy represents inequality of power, subordinates expect to be

instructed in what to do, not to be consulted in most course of actions, nor requested to help in formulating any strategy or plan (Hofstede, 1994).

The cultural factor individualism and collectivism refers to the integration level between individuals and groups (Hofstede, 2001). In individualistic societies, every person is likely to take care of him/herself and his current family, for example, his children and associates. In a collectivist society, when people are born, they are integrated into a big family which often includes uncles, aunts, grandparents, cousins, nieces, nephews, etc. There is also a respect for elders and other family members; therefore, a group of family members usually takes important decisions. At work, collectivists consider every person's point of view, and workers have an intimate relationship. On the contrary, in individualistic societies, people's individual views are more important than those of the group (Hofstede, 2001).

Uncertainty avoidance refers to norms, values and beliefs regarding tolerance of ambiguity and how cultural impacts make a member of a society feel either comfortable or uncomfortable. A higher uncertainty avoidance culture tries to construct social systems (political, educational, and business) on which order and inevitability are the leading principles. Thus, circumstances that are seemed to be dangerous, intolerable, unidentified, and abnormal should be avoided as fast as possible through strict laws. In a high uncertainty avoidance society, people are ruled by strict rules and tasks of the workplace (Hofstede, 1994).

On the other hand, in a low uncertainty avoidance society, differences are accepted, and simple rules are used to direct people. Freedom of speech is available where issues can be argued openly in this culture. At workplace, people are not ruled by severe rules, written or unwritten (Hofstede, 1994).

The degree of the clear difference between social gender roles is referred to by the cultural factor masculinity and femininity (Hofstede, 2001). This includes differences of emotion between genders, ranging from 'tough' masculine to 'tender' feminine. Masculinity is the degree to which a society's common principles are success, money, and material things. Femininity is the degree to which a society's common principles are considerate for others, the quality of life, or people. In a feminine society, there is harmony in relationships and conflicts are often solved by cooperation and compromise. Quite the opposite in a masculine society, conflicts are solved by force or dispute rather than through compromise (Hofstede, 2001).

Lastly, long-term versus short-term orientation has its foundation in Confucian ideals. The teachings of Confucius emphasizing love for humanity; high value given to learning and to devotion to family (including ancestors); peace and justice. The features of long-term orientation societies are frugality, saving and persistence, while short-term orientation societies are characterized by harmony and social interactions (Hofstede, 1994).

According to Hofstede's findings (1980, 1991), Arab culture generally is a high power distance culture. This may be a feature of Muslim's beliefs and values on authority in Islamic society, where Islam and Arab traditions identify status hierarchy (Bjerke & Al-Meer, 1993).

Collectivism is another important characteristic of Arab culture (Al-Ghamdi, 2007). Arabs live in a society where family and friendship are vital and effective factors in their life and work. Islam is regarded as a crucial source for this high collectivism orientation. Muslims are obliged to help other Muslims and contribute in other's sadness and happiness (Al-Ghamdi, 2007). They are also obliged to provide the non-Muslims the highest social and cultural rights on the foundation of the common bonds of humanity (Al-Twajiri & Al-Muhaiza, 1996).

Critics of Hofstede's work have had an inquiry on its empirical validity. Some emphasized on the inadequacy of collecting data from a sample of a single institution to construct deductions about national culture (Shackleton & Ali, 1990; Smith & Dugan, 1996; Wallace et al., 1999). Some other critics of Hofstede's work asked whether the factors developed from data gathered from 1968 to 1973 were accurate to the time of analysis (Shackleton & Ali, 1990; Wallace et al., 1999). Regardless of this criticism, Hofstede's study is considered as one of the few models which offer understandable factors of studying and examining the effect of culture.

In this research, Hofstede's model of culture will be used for two important reasons. First, among many studies on cultural differences (e.g. Samovar & Porter, 2000) the focus has been on the research of Hofstede (1980) (Reisinger & Turner, 1998). Moreover, in investigating the connection between culture and tourism, the most broadly used factors of culture are the five factors developed by Hofstede (Crotts & Erdmann, 2000).

Tourism studies that made use of Hofstede's cultural factors frequently found encouraging results. For instance, using Hofstede's theoretical framework to study the effect of national culture on consumers' evaluation of travel services, Crotts and Erdmann (2000) found that nation culture had an effect on consumer's readiness to express or report dissatisfaction.

Litvin and Kar (2003) also used one of Hofstede's cultural factors (individualism and collectivism) to examine the effect of culture on a sample of Singapore tourists. They found that the greater the level of agreement between an ideal self-image and destination image, the better the visitor satisfaction. They also revealed that individualists had higher satisfaction than collectivists.

Litvin and Kar (2003) stressed on the importance of Hofstede's model by stating that it is unlikely to apply culture to commerce in general, and to tourism in particular, without considering Hofstede's work.

The second reason for using Hofstede's model in this research is that most replicated studies of Hofstede's work in the Arabic context have significant findings. Table 2.3 below summarizes the results of cultural factors in the Arabic contexts. For example, Al-Twajjri and Al- Muhaiza (1996) applied Hofstede's four cultural factors to six Arab countries. Al-Ghamdi (2007) also applied Hofstede's three cultural factors to Arab Saudi tourists. To examine the effect of Arab societal culture on Arab educational tourists' motivations, three of Hofstede's cultural factors will be used in this study. They are individualism and collectivism, power distance and uncertainty avoidance. The fourth factor (masculinity and femininity) was excluded because of its low score in Hofstede's work. The fifth cultural factor was also excluded (long-term versus short-term orientation) as it was not used by the replicated studies in the Arabic context.

Table 2.3
Summary of the Cultural Factors of the Arab Countries

Cultural Factors	Hofstede's results	Bjerke and Al-Meer's results	Al-Twajjri and Al-Muhaiza's results	Al-Ghamdi's results
Power distance	80	73	61	57
Uncertainty avoidance	68	74	88	74
Individualism	53	43	53	71
Masculinity	38	41	41	-

Sources: Al-Ghamdi (2007); Al-Twajry & Al- Muhaiza (1996); Bjerke & Al-Meer (1993); Hofstede (1980; 1991).

Studying the motivations of domestic tourists in Saudi Arabia, Bogari (2002) noted that the conservative nature of the Arab culture made home holidays preferable to the local people. She found that Saudis as part of Arab culture

preferred domestic tourism to conserve traditions and customs, to keep children away from non-Islamic beliefs and to protect youth from diseases like Aids. Her findings also revealed that Arab Saudi travelers considered domestic holidays more suitable for families than overseas holidays. This may be due to the Arab social environment which helps women to keep the Islamic veil. It was also safer and more suitable to perform Islamic rituals when spending a holiday domestically than traveling overseas especially in non-Islamic countries (Bogari, 2002).

According to Ibrahim et al. (2009), most Arab tourists see Malaysia as a safe destination for travel. As a Muslim country, Malaysia offers some comfort in the wake of 11 September 2001, along with the similarities in food and culture. Ibrahim et al. (2009, p.4) stated, "Malaysia as a Muslim country shares a common Islamic culture and tradition and the Muslim Arabs feel safer in terms of security, food, shopping and religious obligation". These findings can be linked with the high uncertainty avoidance characteristic of Arab culture. Arab traditional customs were found to affect the choice of tourist destinations (Bogari, 2002).

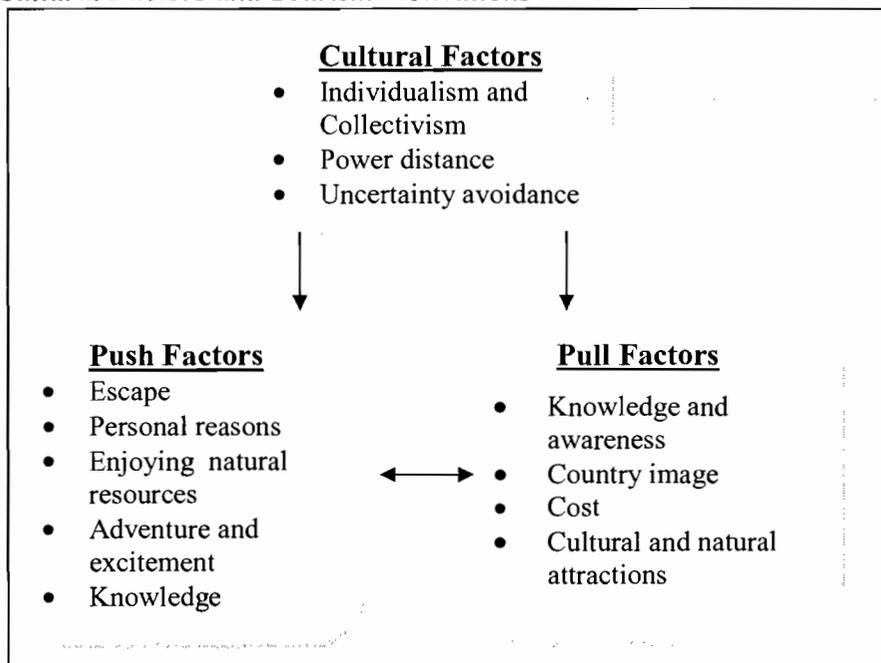
In their study of Arab tourists traveling pattern and preferences in Malaysia, Ibrahim et al. (2009) found that Arab tourists preferred to travel with their family. They also demonstrated that in addition to other types of cuisines, the Arab tourists preferred home cooking (Arab cuisine).

Based on the above review of previous research some hypotheses can be developed:

H2a: Cultural factors are associated with push factors of Arab educational tourists.

H2b: Cultural factors are associated with pull factors of destination.

Figure 2.5
Cultural Factors and Tourism Motivations



2.7.5 Demographic Factors and Tourist Motivations

Several researchers have asserted that demographic factors significantly affected tourist motivations (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Cha et al., 1995; Hanqin & Lam, 1999; Jamrozy & Uysal, 1994; Jang & Cai, 2002; Joˆnsson & Devonish, 2008; Kim et al., 2003; Metwally, 2004; Ng, 2009; Zhang et al., 2004).

Ng (2009) argued that the differences in tourist motivations (push and pull factors) emerged because of differences in their demographic characteristics such as gender, age, income and language. She found significant differences between all the push and pull factors (Malaysian Chinese travel to China) with two or more age groups. For example, age group 36 – 45 showed the highest mean scores on the push factor ‘knowledge’ than other age groups, while the age group of 56 – 65 years old perceived ‘prestige’ and ‘enhancement of human relationship’ as more important than other age groups. The age group 16 – 25 perceived ‘novelty’ as the most important motivation whereas the age group of 26 – 35 years old perceived the pull motivation factor ‘expenditure’ as the most important motivation compared with the other age groups. Moreover, the elderly age groups (66 years and above) perceived cultural links as the most important factor (Ng, 2009).

Joñsson and Devonish (2008) found that age of a tourist had a significant effect on tourist motivations (cultural motivations and relaxation-based motivations) to travel to Barbados. They revealed that the oldest age category (56 years and over) reported significantly stronger cultural motivations to travel to Barbados, compared with tourists in the youngest age category (18 to 35 years). Moreover, tourists in the 36 to 55 age group had significantly stronger relaxation-based motivations to travel to Barbados, compared with those in the youngest age category (18 to 35 years).

Jang and Cai (2002) revealed that British travelers to Canada were likely to be old, whereas the West Indies/Caribbean region was the destination for the comparatively young tourists. Cha et al. (1995) found that age was significantly different among three groups of Japanese tourists (sports seekers, novelty seekers, and family/relaxation seekers). Besides, Kim et al. (2003) revealed that the tourists' age to the national parks in Korea had an important effect on both push and pull factors.

Previous studies also showed that gender was another significant demographic factor. For example, Kim et al. (2003) found that significant differences between males and females in three of the push factors and one of the pull factors. Female respondents considered highly the push factor of 'family togetherness and study', while male respondents put more importance on the factors of 'appreciating natural resources and health', and 'adventure and building friendships'. The pull factor 'key tourist resources' was also considered as more important by the female group at the national parks than the male group.

Likewise, Zhang et al. (2004) found that significant differences between tourists' gender and two destination dimensions, tour features (accommodation, local transportation and food) and exogenous factors (epidemics, natural disaster, safety, political and social environment). Male tourists ranked tour features as more important than female tourists while female tourists considered exogenous factors more essential than male tourists did. However, some researchers (e.g.

Joñsson & Devonish, 2008) revealed that gender did not emerge as an important determinant.

Furthermore, the marital status of tourists was found to have an effect on tourist motivations. In a study to Zhang et al. (2004), they found married tourists considered tour features more than single tourists. Jamrozy and Uysal (1994) also studied the effect of marital status on tourist motivations. They associated five travel groups (families, individuals traveling alone, couples, friends, and organized tour groups) to push and pull motivation factors. They found that Germans tourists showed differences in push motivations. For instance, the first group (individuals traveling alone) sought 'novelty', 'experience', and 'adventure' factors, whereas the second group (family groups) was motivated by 'luxury' and 'doing nothing'.

Income level of tourists was another significant demographic factor which had an effect on tourist motivations (Ng, 2009). She revealed in her study that four of the five push factors were found to be significantly different at the 0.05 level of significance, and all the six pull factors were significant at the 0.05 level of significance among groups with different income.

Malaysian Chinese tourists with higher incomes (RM 10,000 and above) reported that 'knowledge' was important push factor in traveling to China than the tourists with income (RM 5,000 – RM 10,000). On the other hand, the lowest

income group (RM 1000 and below) reported the highest mean score on the 'novelty' factor compared to other income groups.

Zhang et al. (2004) found that income variable had an important effect on tourist motivations as well. They found that high-income respondents viewed the cost factor as less important than those in low-income groups did.

Moreover, the results of Ng's (2009) study suggested that the higher income group (RM 10,000 and above with mean score 4.2) considered traveling to China very prestigious, while the lowest income group reported 'prestige' as not crucial factor (RM 1000 and below with mean score 2.7).

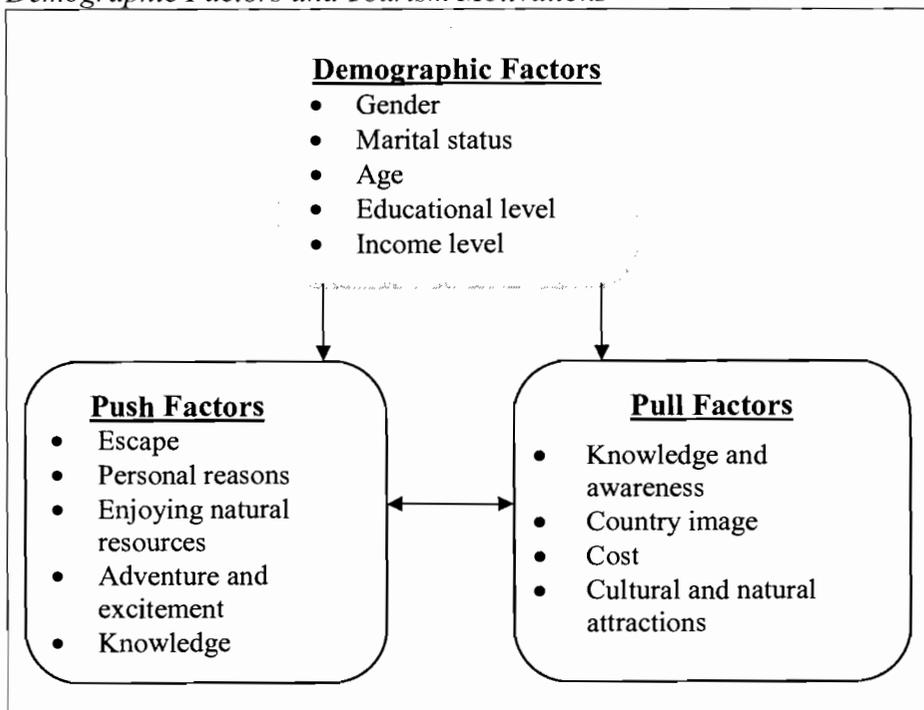
Tourists with different educational levels were found to have different motivations and to choose different destinations. Cha et al. (1995) found that group 1 (sport seekers) and group 3 (family/relaxation seekers) in a study about Japanese tourists had the highest percentage of the tourists with university/postgraduate educational level, whereas group 2 had the large numbers of the senior high school level. Baloglu and Uysal (1996) also found that high school and university graduates were novelty seekers and frequently traveled in summer and stayed more time at the destination. On the other hand, people who were less well-educated tended to be urban-life seekers. They commonly traveled in spring and summer season and stayed longer at the destination.

As previous research did not focus on the motivations of educational tourists, the question that still needs an answer is whether demographic factors have an influence on the motivations of educational tourists. Figure 2.6 shows this relationship between demographic factors and Arab educational tourists. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

H3: There are differences in push factors of tourists in terms of Arab educational tourists' demographic factors (gender, marital status, age, educational level and income level).

H4: There are differences in pull factors of destinations in terms of Arab educational tourists' demographic factors (gender, marital status, age, educational level and income level).

Figure 2.6
Demographic Factors and Tourism Motivations



2.8 Tourists and Destination Choice

This section will discuss the influence of tourism motivations, cultural factors and demographic factors on destination choice.

2.8.1 Tourist Motivations and Destination Choice

Tourist motivations are decisive factors in understanding tourist behavior in relation to destination choice (Chang, 2007). The tourist's decision-making process includes his or her motivations and intentions as well as the motivations that change interest into product or destination choice (Chan & Baum, 2007).

You et al. (2000) indicated that several researchers utilized motivation theory to understand the travel decision-making process. By using a convenience sample of young American and Malaysian Chinese students, Summers and McColl (1998) found that psychographic dimensions such as motivation, perceived risk, and cultural values played a key role in destination choice.

Moreover, Lehto et al. (2002) found that psychographic dimensions like traits, attitudes and preferences had an influence on understanding travel decision-making. Mansfeld (1992) also revealed that positive relationships between travel motivations and destination choice were found. His findings were confirmed by Jang and Cai (2002) who examined travel motivations linked with British outbound pleasure travelers and recommended that it was crucial for destination

marketers to determine a strong relationship between their destination characteristics and the motivations of their target markets through influential marketing and promotional programs. Besides, Zhang et al. (2004) found that safety was the most important theme for Hong Kong residents in choosing a travel destination.

Regarding the role of push and pull factors in destination choice, the tourism literature emphasized the importance of both push and pull factors in determining tourist motivations and so in choosing destinations (Dann, 1977; Jang & Cai, 2002; Ng, 2009; Oh et al., 1995; Yuan & McDonald, 1990; Wong, 2008). Moreover, Crompton (1979) stated that travel motivations (push and pull factors) had an influence on the decision to choose a tourist's destination.

In his study of the influence of push and pull factors in travel decision-making, Dann (1977) revealed that push factors were internal to individuals and stimulated their desires and inner needs to travel. On the other hand, pull factors were external to individuals, and influenced where, when, and how people would travel. The push motivation factors are considered valuable for explaining the desire for travel, whereas the pull motivation factors are helpful for explaining the actual destination choice (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Hsieh & Park, 2008). The push factors are considered socio-psychological motivations which influence the individual to travel (Oh et al., 1995), with the pull factors being those which attract the individual to a specific destination (Tien, 2008).

Furthermore, Yuan and McDonald (1990) used the concept of push and pull factors in studying travel motivations and destination choice. They concluded that even if people may travel for similar reasons, the ones for selecting specific destinations and the degree of importance of each motive might differ. Likewise, Jang and Cai (2002) examined the tourism motivations (push and pull factors) which significantly affected British travelers' destination choice. To achieve this aim, they used three steps:

- Recognizing the underlying push and pull factors of motivation linked with the British tourists traveling overseas;
- Evaluating the degree of importance of the underlying factors across the different destination areas;
- Identifying the motivational factors that have an effect on destination choice by using logistic regression test.

Based on the above review of previous studies some hypotheses can be developed:

H5a: Push factors of Arab educational tourists have an influence on destination choice.

H5b: Pull factors of destination have an influence on destination choice.

2.8.2 Culture and Destination Choice

Many studies identified culture as one of the several factors affecting consumer decision-making (e.g. You et al., 2000) and hence it is critically important to those considering the business of tourism (Litvin and Kar, 2003) generally and

destination choice specifically (Bogari, 2002; Muller, 1991; Yavas, Cavusgil & Tuncalp, 1987).

With reference to international tourism, Muller (1991) claimed that an individual's choice of a destination and other economic behavior relating to travel overseas were decided by cultural values. In their study Richardson and Crompton (1988) examined the similarities and differences between French and English Canadians in terms of six travel characteristics: (1) availability of holiday time and use of that travel time (2) actual amount of vacation time, (3) amount of travel undertaken, (4) length, (5) distance, and (6) cost of the most recent trip. They reported that French Canadians had less chance to travel, and they relatively traveled shorter distances and for shorter time than English Canadians. Richardson and Crompton (1988) also revealed that French Canadians daily expenditure was more than that of their English Canadian travelers in spite of their short time travel. These differences were attributed to both cultural and socio-economic variables.

In a study of the foreign travel behavior of Arab Saudi tourists, Yavas et al. (1987) found that religious leaders had an influence on the young to avoid some countries and tourist destinations where their moral values and principles could be at stake (notably Europe and USA). They were motivated to travel to Islamic countries. These results can be attributed to the effect of the high power distance dimension of the Arab societal culture and the hierarchical status

recognized in Islam (Yavas et al., 1987). Based on the above review of previous studies some hypotheses can be developed:

H6: Cultural factors have an influence on destination choice.

2.8.3 Demographic Factors of Tourists and Destination Choice

Tourism studies have revealed that demographic factors of tourists had an influence on destination choice (Lee et al., 2002; Metwally, 2004; Ng, 2009; Oum & Lemire, 1991; Richardson & Crompton, 1988). As an example, Ng (2009) found in her study regarding Malaysian Chinese travel to china that their decisions were associated to some socio-demographic factors such as age, gender, income, education level and language. Richardson and Crompton (1988) also found that age, education and income were effective factors in distinguishing the travel patterns of French and English Canadian tourists in Canada. Oum and Lemire (1991) found that marital status and gender had an influence on Japanese tourists' destination choice.

Regarding Arab tourism, few researchers studied the effect of demographic factors of Arab tourists on tourist motivations and destination choice. For instance, Metwally (2004) examined the influence of demographic factors of Arab tourists on the selection of tourist resorts. He found a significant relationship between marital status and educational levels and selection of resorts. Highly educated and single Arab tourists were found to have a preference to

travel outside Arab countries (Metwally, 2004). It can be inferred from earlier studies and this discussion that demographic factors have an effect on destination choice. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

H7: Demographic factors of Arab educational tourists (gender, age, marital status, educational level and income level) have an influence on destination choice.

2.9 Summary

The aim of this chapter was to provide a general discussion on tourism, education as well as their international growth. A profound discussion tackled the concept and forms of educational tourism. Arab countries and Malaysia's profiles were also discussed.

Furthermore, this chapter reviewed and discussed the tourism motivations and the choice of destination. It can be viewed from previous research that numerous push factors, such as escape, adventure and excitement, knowledge, personal reasons drive tourists to travel, while various pull factors such as cultural and natural attractions, country image, and cost attract tourists to a particular host country. Yet, researchers have not paid attention to studying the effect of such motivations on Arab educational tourists.

Reviewing the literature in this chapter show that cultural factors and demographic factors have an effect on tourism motivations. The literature also reveal that tourism motivations, cultural factors and demographic factors have an influence on destination choice.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher aims to investigate the most appropriate research methods and methodology to be used in answering the research hypothesis. Amongst others, this chapter will identify the best research approach for this study, followed by the model of the study, study population and sample, questionnaire design, the measurement and operationalization of variables used involving both push and pull factors and cultural factors. Last but not least, this chapter also reports on pilot tests done for this study. This chapter ends with a discussion of the statistical techniques used to analyze the data.

3.2 Selection of Research Approach

This research used both the quantitative and qualitative approaches. The researcher in the first phase used qualitative approach (interviews) mainly for developing the quantitative instrument. In the second phase, the researcher used the quantitative approach (questionnaires). In the third phase, the researcher used qualitative approach (interviews) to enrich the literature of this research as the academic studies on educational tourism are extremely limited. The reasons for using the two approaches are:

- Combining a variety of approaches assists in improving validity and decreasing potential partiality from banking on one-dimension source of information (Randolph, 2007).
- Qualitative and quantitative combination will enable the researcher to get benefit from the two approaches and to compensate the shortcomings of each approach. For instance, the qualitative approach can help to score a high degree of internal validity. On the other hand, the quantitative approach will strengthen the weakness of the qualitative data in terms of external validity and reliability. In short, the combination of the two approaches is important for this study, as an overlooked topic, to enhance accuracy, reliability, validity and generalizability (Randolph, 2007).

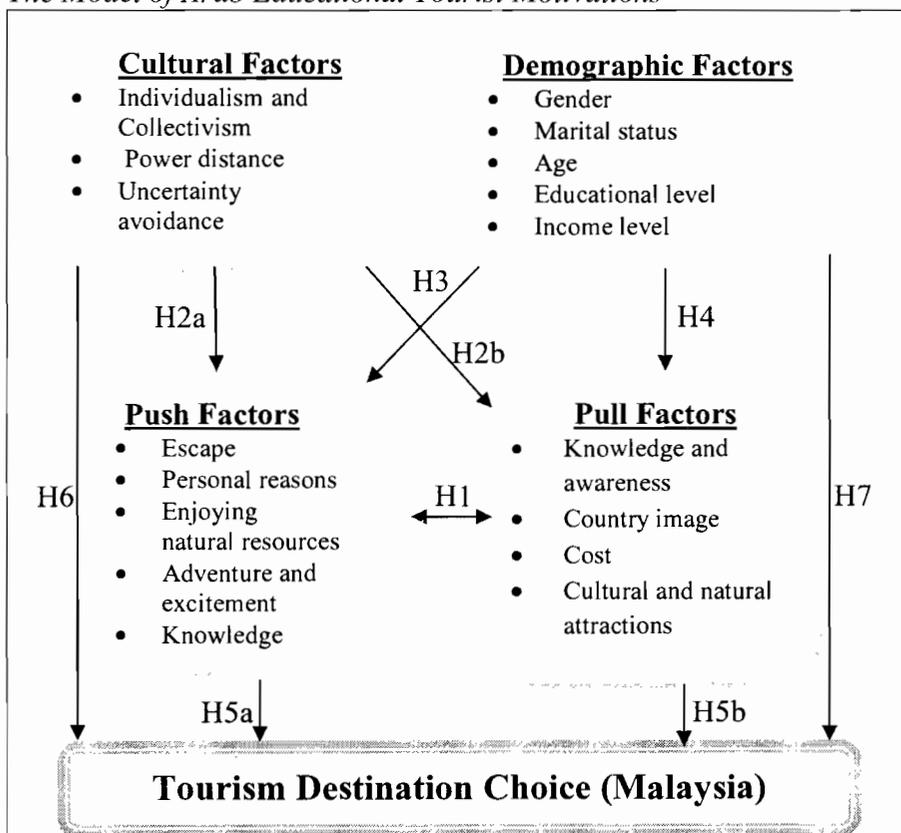
3.3 The Model of the Study

As shown in Figure 3.1, this study develops a model entitled “a model of Arab educational tourist motivations”. The model proposes that the Arab educational tourists’ push factors, such as enjoying natural resources, escape, personal reasons, knowledge, adventure and excitement may have reciprocal relations with pull factors which include, country image, knowledge and awareness, cost, and cultural and natural attractions.

The model will determine the effect of the cultural factors (individualism and collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, power distance) and demographic factors

(gender, marital status, age, educational level and income level) on tourist motivations. The model will additionally identify the influence of tourism motivations, cultural factors and demographic factors of Arab educational tourists on destination choice “Malaysia”.

Figure 3.1
The Model of Arab Educational Tourist Motivations



3.4 Population of the Study

The population of this study consisted of Arab educational tourists in Malaysia. Due to the difficulties in investigating all Arab educational tourists as their figures were in thousands, this study was restricted to the Arab educational tourists

enrolled at the following Malaysian universities; namely, Universiti Malaya (UM), Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM), Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM), Universiti Islam Antarabangsa Malaysia (UIAM),Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM), Universiti Multimedia (MMU),Universiti Tenaga Nasional (UNITEN).

3.5 Identifying the Sample Size

To determine the sample size, some authors (e.g. Hinkin, Tracey, & Enz, 1997; Tanaka, 1987) emphasize that a positive relationship between the number of items and the sample size stands for a ratio of at least 1:4 or 1:5. The present study consisted of 75 items. Therefore, following the rule, the minimum sample size required was 375.

Moreover, Table 3.1 illustrates that the sample size of a population 5000 equals 357 and the sample size of a population 10,000 is 370 (Veal, 2006). The population of this study is 8323 (see Tables 1.1 & 1.2). As the number of population (Arab educational tourists) is invariably changing in our situation, it is safer for this study to consider the maximum number possible of Arab educational tourists. Hence, following the above rules, 375 respondents were considered as the target sample size of the population for this research.

Table 3.1
Sample Size for a Given Population Size

Population Size	Minimum sample size to achieve confidence interval (CI) of $\pm 5\%$ or $\pm 1\%$ on a sample finding of 50%	
	$\pm 5\%$	$\pm 1\%$
Infinite	384	9,602
5 million	384	9,584
1 million	384	9,511
500,000	384	9,422
100,000	383	8,761
50,000	381	8,056
10,000	370	4,899
5000	357	3,288
1000	278	906
100	80	99

Source: Veal, A. J. (2006, p.293). *Research methods for leisure and tourism* (3rd ed.). New York: FT/Prentice Hall.

By using 375 as the target sample size, the true percentage in the whole population could fall within a positive or negative 5 percent range of the percentage obtained from the sample (Veal, 2006). However, to ensure this minimal response number and taking into account that survey method has poor response rate, the researcher distributed 700 questionnaires (for the quantitative phase) to the respondents of the study.

For the qualitative approach, the researcher interviewed 23 participants from different Arab nationalities. All the participants for the qualitative approach were from Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM).

3.6 Identifying the Sampling Technique

The target of this research was Arab educational tourists from seven Malaysian universities. Therefore, it was necessary to make sure that an Arab educational tourist who answered the questionnaire enrolled in any of the mentioned universities. The sample was divided proportionately according to the number of Arab educational tourists enrolled in each university for the academic session 2008/2009. Therefore, a proportionate stratified random sampling was chosen as the appropriate sampling design to represent the population of this study. This sampling technique offered increased possibility of accuracy by ensuring all stratum of the population were represented in the sample in the same proportions as they were in the population (Burns & Burns, 2008).

According to Sekaran (2003, p.280), “stratified random sampling is the most efficient among all probability designs”. Burns and Burns (2008, p.200) also asserted that stratified random sampling technique “reduces sampling error and increases precision without increasing the sample size”.

In this study, the first stage of the sampling was to divide the sample proportionately according to the number of Arab educational tourists received from each of the seven Malaysian universities. The second stage was to count the number of questionnaires that should be distributed in each university.

Table 3.2 illustrates the number of Arab educational tourists who enrolled in the seven Malaysian universities for the academic session 2008/2009 and the number of the distributed questionnaires.

Table 3.2
Number of Questionnaires Distributed at Seven Universities in Malaysia.

Universities in Malaysia	Number of Arab Educational Tourists	(%)	Distributed Questionnaires
Universiti Malaya (UM).	916	19.3%	135
Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM).	640	13.5%	95
Universiti Islam Antarabangsa Malaysia (UIAM).	869	18.3%	128
Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM).	738	15.5%	109
Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM).	612	12.9%	90
Universiti Multimedia (MMU).	519	10.9%	76
Universiti Tenaga Nasional (UNITEN).	455	9.6%	67
Total	4,749	100%	700

In the third stage, the researcher approached the Arab educational tourists from the above-mentioned Malaysian universities. Then, they were asked to participate in the questionnaire survey. Upon agreeing to participate, the Arab educational tourist was given a questionnaire to fill it out.

In the qualitative phases (interviews), the researcher used the convenience sampling technique, in which the most easily accessible members were chosen as subjects. The reasons for choosing this type of sampling in this study are due to the fact that convenience sampling is often used during the exploratory phase of the research and is possibly the best way of getting some basic information quickly and efficiently.

3.7 Data Collection Methods

This research employed both quantitative and qualitative approaches in data collection with more emphasis on quantitative techniques. The study is a cross-sectional as data is gathered once to answer the research hypotheses.

For the qualitative research approach, this study used in-depth interviews to collect data from the participants in order to develop the quantitative instrument and to enrich the literature of this study (academic studies on educational tourism are scarce). Questions have been organized into three categories: tourism motivations, cultural factors and demographic information.

In quantitative research approach, there are two main traditional methods of data collection. They are the interviewer-completion method (sometimes referred to as the structured interview) where the interviewer conducts an interview based on questionnaire, and records answers on the questionnaire and respondent-completion method (sometimes called a self-administered questionnaire) where respondents fill out the questionnaire themselves (Veal, 2006).

Questionnaires play a key role in the data collection process. A well-designed questionnaire collects the required data with a minimum number of errors and helps the coding and capture of data. It also leads to a decrease in the cost and time associated with data collection and processing (Bryman, 2008).

Questionnaires completed by respondents themselves are one of the main instruments for gathering data using a social survey design. Therefore, the respondent-completion method was used as the main data collection instrument of this study as it could enable researchers to examine and explain relationships between constructs.

3.8 Designing the Questionnaire

An important part of good research design is to make sure that the questionnaire design addresses the needs of the study and will collect the accurate data needed to achieve the research objectives (Burgess, 2001). Clear and concise questionnaires can assist in getting the best response; however, several researchers make the same mistake of asking too many questions. Questionnaires for quantitative research are often designed with purpose of being operational definitions of concepts, instruments that reflect attitudes, perceptions, views and opinions (Burgess, 2001).

In this study, the questionnaire was divided into four parts (see Appendix A): part one discussed tourism motivations, part two was on Arab societal culture, part three tackled the destination choice and part four considered the demographic characteristics of the respondents.

Part one consisted of two sections: section (A) was related to internal desires (push factors) that drive individuals to travel for educational tourism. Push factors consisted of 23 items. Section (B) was related to the attributes (pull factors) of destinations that attract individuals to choose a specific destination. Pull factors included 28 items.

The push and pull factors were developed on the basis of a review of the related literature and the results of both pilot study and interviews done for this research. Consequently, the push and pull factors were modified to apply to the research site and target population.

Part two reflected the culture of Arab society in relation to Hofstede's model of culture. The model has five cultural factors, but in this study the researcher considered three cultural factors. They are power distance, individualism and collectivism and uncertainty avoidance. This part which consisted of 18 items was developed on the basis of a review of the related literature and the results of the pilot study and interviews. Part three was related to the dichotomous dependent variable (destination choice factor). The dichotomous dependent variable has one item.

In part four which related to the demographic factors, questions regarding respondents' gender, marital status, age, educational level, income level were included in the analysis of this study while questions from 6-13 were basically

added to enable the researcher provide better suggestions and recommendations about Arab educational tourists traveling to Malaysia. These questions were concerning respondents' source of finance, the means used to get information about educational tourism in Malaysia, period spent in Malaysia, arrival date, favorite destination, recommending Malaysia as a hub of educational tourism and whether the respondent will come again in a 5-year time. This part was concluded with suggestions from the respondents.

3.9 Measurement and Operationalization of Factors

With the exception of demographic factors, all the factors included in this study were measured by using the Mean scores of each factor that consisted of items drawn from previous research and interviews done for this study. However, phrasing of the items was modified to suit the sample setting. To ensure consistency and to avoid confusion among respondents, all the items (exception the demographic items) were measured using one to five-point Likert scale. Most studies in travel motivations used this scale (e.g. Chen & Wu, 2009; Ng, 2009). The Likert scale in this study ranging from 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 2 = disagree, 1 = strongly disagree.

This study specifies destination choice (0 = no, 1 = yes) as the dichotomous dependent variable for the logistic regression, while push and pull motivation factors, cultural factors and demographic factors are the independent

variables. As illustrated in Table 3.3, demographic factors were measured as 0 and 1 for the binary logistic regression test. On the other hand, push, pull, and cultural factors included in this study were measured by using the Mean scores of each factor for the binary logistic regression test.

Table 3.3
Measurement of Dichotomous Demographic Factors

Factors	Dichotomous value
Gender	Female = 0 Male = 1
Age	Under 35 = 0 35 and over =1
Marital Status	Single = 0 Married and Divorced/ widowed = 1
Income Level	Less than US\$ 501= 0 US\$501and more =1
Educational Level	Other = 0 Postgraduate =1

3.9.1 Push Factors

This study included the following push factors:

- **Escape**

On the basis of previous studies (e.g. Jang & Cai, 2002; Kim, 2006; Kim et al., 2006; Oh et al., 1995; Wong, 2008; Yoon & Uysal, 2005), the following most commonly used items have been derived:

- Having a change from a demanding job
- Getting away from the demands of home
- Escaping from everyday life
- Having fun, being entertained.

Different authors included different items for instance, “indulging in luxury” (Kim, 2006), “being physically or emotionally refreshed” (Kim et al., 2006) that were more specific to their research and excluded in this study. A variety of items that make up the escape factor grouping reflect the wish to escape and experience a change from routine (Jamrozy & Uysal, 1994). Significant research papers used the factor of escape as a key factor in identifying motivational dimensions (e.g. Biswas, 2008; Chen & Wu, 2009; Kim et al., 2006). Different researchers, who made use of this factor, recognized a significant reliability alpha (for example, Biswas (2008) had a reliability alpha of 0.66; Chen & Wu (2009) had a reliability alpha of 0.83; Kim (2006) had a reliability alpha of 0.82 and Kim and Lee (2000) had a reliability alpha of 0.60).

- **Enjoying Natural Resources**

This factor has been measured by previous researchers (e.g. Awaritfe, 2004; Heung et al., 2001; Kau & Lim, 2005; Kim, 2006; Kim et al., 2003; Kim et al., 2006; Kim & Lee, 2002; Kim & prideaux, 2005; Konu & Laukkanen, 2009;

Kozak, 2002; Oh et al., 1995) using related factors that included the following items:

- Observing nature
- Viewing wildlife
- Enjoying the good weather
- Enjoying rural countryside
- Visiting national parks/forests.

Many researchers recognized a high reliability alpha for this factor, (for example, Kim et al. (2006) had a reliability alpha of 0.90; Kim (2006) had a reliability alpha of 0.87; Kim and Prideaux (2005) had a reliability alpha of 0.76.

- **Adventure and Excitement**

Items common to several studies (e.g. Abd Aziz & Ariffin, 2009; Jang & Cai, 2002; Kau & Lim, 2005; Kim, 2006; Kim et al., 2006; Oh et al., 1995) and utilized by this study include:

- Finding thrills and excitement
- Being daring and adventuresome
- Meeting new people.

Some authors included a number of items like “rediscovering myself” (Kim et al., 2006) and “meeting some one of the opposite sex” (Kim, 2006). Such

items were found to be central to their particular studies. In the context of this study, these items were excluded because they considered unsuitable for the study of Arab tourism (Bogari, 2002). Different researchers with an acceptable reliability alpha used this factor. For example, Abd Aziz and Ariffin (2009) had a reliability alpha of 0.64; Kim (2006) had a reliability alpha of 0.83 and Kim et al. (2006) had a reliability alpha of 0.79.

- **Personal Reasons**

The items of this factor were adopted from a theoretical research by Cubillo et al. (2006) because they seemed important to the study of the motivations of educational tourists:

- Enhance career prospect
- Future job prospect
- Future earnings prospects
- Higher status
- Live in a different culture
- Make international contacts
- Improve language skills
- Recommendations from family/friends or professors.

- **Knowledge**

This factor was used by earlier research in the study of tourism motivations (e.g. Cha et al., 1995; Chen, 2004; Chen and Wu, 2009; Jang & Cai, 2002; Kim, 2006).

Different researchers with a reasonable and acceptable reliability alpha used this factor. For instance, Chen and Wu (2009) had a reliability alpha of 0.77; Jang and Cai (2002) had a reliability alpha of 0.68, Cha et al. (1995) had a reliability alpha of 0.70; Chen (2004) had a reliability alpha of 0.80 while Kim (2006) had a reliability alpha of 0.87. The items utilized here include:

- Seeing and experiencing a foreign destination
- Learning new things and increasing knowledge.

Some items were excluded due to the uncertainty of their ability to influence tourist motivations. For example “going places I have not visited before” (Jang & Cai, 2002).

3.9.2 Pull Factors

This study included the following pull factors:

- **Cultural and Natural Attractions**

Following previous studies, (e.g. Chen, 2004; Hanqin & Lam, 1999; Jang & Cai, 2002; Oh et al., 1995) the following items were included in this factor:

- Historical attractions
- Cultural attractions
- Natural Scenery
- Appealing local food
- Night life and entertainment
- Availability of outdoor activities
- Friendly local people.

Chen (2004) found that the most important item in this factor was “Cultural attractions”, while Oh et al. (1995) found that, the leading item was “Friendly local people”. There were other items used in some studies such as “museum and arts galleries” (Oh et al., 1995). Such items were excluded as they considered not essential to this research. This factor was used by different researchers with a significant reliability alpha. For example, Chen (2004) had a reliability alpha of 0.85; Jang and Cai (2002) had a reliability alpha of 0.78; Hanqin and Lam (1999) had a reliability alpha of 0.67.

- **Cost**

Previous studies indicated that this factor was mainly measured by the following items (e.g. Abd Aziz & Ariffin, 2009; Hsieh & Park, 2008; Kim et al., 2006; Kozak, 2002; Uysal & Jurovski, 1994; Zhang et al., 2004).

- Cost of trip
- Accommodation budget
- Cost of tourist goods and services
- Availability and cost of public transportation.

These items were widely used by previous researchers; therefore, this study adopted the following items (e.g. “lower cost of living”; “lower travel costs”; “lower fees”; “established population of overseas students”; “entry qualifications accepted”; “low racial discrimination in destination”; “a safe destination”) that believed to be the most appropriate to this research. Mazzarol and Soutar (2002) used these items (set under cost issues factor) to determine the push-pull factors influencing international student destination choice.

- **Knowledge and Awareness**

Following previous studies (e.g. Kinnell, 1989; Mazzarol et al., 2000; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002) the following four items were used to measure this factor:

- Easy to obtain information on host country
- Knowledge of host country
- Quality of education in host country
- Host qualifications recognized.

These items were used to identify the motivations influencing international student destination choice (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002).

- **Country Image**

The items of this factor were adopted from a theoretical research by Cubillo et al. (2006) that seemed important to the study of the motivations of educational tourists:

- Cultural distance
- Development level
- Immigration procedures
- Time to get the degree
- Opportunity of working during the course
- Social reputation
- Academic reputation
- Cost of living.

This study added some items (e.g. “convenient and comfortable transportation”; “availability of hygiene and cleanliness”) that found to be important to this research. These items were used by previous researchers to determine the travel motivations of students (e.g. Chen, 2004; Kim, 2006).

3.9.3 Cultural Factors

Several researchers applied Hofstede's cultural orientation model to understand the differences in travel motivations (Kim & Lee, 2000). Some researchers studied culture associated with society (Sakakida et al., 2004; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998), while others considered only organizational culture (e.g. Lee et al., 2000; Tan & Chong, 2003; Yilmaz, Alpkhan, & Ergun, 2005). Most studies discussed societal culture rather than organizational culture in respect with tourism motivations. For example, Kim and Lee (2000) used tourists' cultural orientation of individualism and collectivism to understand the differences in travel motivations.

Three of Hofstede's cultural factors were used in this study. They are individualism and collectivism, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance. The cultural factor individualism and collectivism was operationalized by using four dimensions namely "individualism", "family relationship" "helping others", and "social interdependence". It refers to the integration level between individuals and groups (Hofstede, 2001).

Family relationship refers to the degree of impact of an Arab family on its members on different aspects in life as a group of family members often takes decisions. Arabs live in a society where family and friendship are very important in their life (Al-Twajri & Al-Muhaiza, 1996). Helping others refers to the intention and tendency of an Arab family to help its members. As Muslims, they

are obliged to help other Muslims (Al-Twajiri & Al-Muhaiza, 1996). Social interdependence refers to the notion that everything a person does properly involves interaction with other people. Social bonds with relatives make individuals reliable on family members (Johnson & Johnson, 2009). According to Johnson and Johnson (1989, cited in Johnson & Johnson, 2009, p.366), “social interdependence exists when the outcomes of individuals are affected by each other’s actions”.

Power distance was operationalized by using two dimensions “inequalities and hierarchy” and “the differences of groups in society”. Inequalities and hierarchy refers to the degree of inequalities and hierarchy in the Arab society, to what extent are the respondents treated in terms of equality/inequality in their family, school, work and society. Arab traditions identify status hierarchy (Bjerke & Al-Meer, 1993). The dimension differences of groups in society refers to the notion that people are identified and respected by their positions. Those in higher positions have more power and respect than those in lower positions.

Moreover, the cultural factor Uncertainty avoidance was operationalized as the degree to which respondents feel either comfortable or uncomfortable in their societies. In a high uncertainty avoidance culture, people are ruled by strict rules. On the other hand, in a low uncertainty avoidance culture, people are ruled by simple rules and differences are accepted (Hofstede, 2001).

This study adopted items that were found to be related to Arab cultural orientation. It should be noted that this research is interested in studying how Arab culture relates to tourism motivations and its influence on destination choice. Therefore, there is a need to apply Hofstede's cultural model to understand the characteristics of Arab culture, and how this culture is related to tourism motivations and affect the choice of destinations. Hence, the selection of the items was based on this assumption. Items were selected based on how they described the society and on how suitable they could be for the study of Arab culture. The following cultural factors were measured by using the Mean of each factor.

- **Individualism and Collectivism**

Many studies used this factor to study different aspects of tourism motivations. Eleven items were chosen based on the study of Al-Ghamdi (2007). Although those items were quite extensive in the literature and may have been argued in other studies, they were evaluated to be suitable for this research.

- One does better working in group than alone.
- When faced with a difficult personal problem, one should consult one's friends and relatives.
- I like to live close to my good friends.
- I would help within my means if a relative told me that he or she was in financial difficulties.

- The most important thing in my life is to make myself happy.
- Aging parents should live at home with their children.
- Children should live at home with parents until they get married
- When faced with difficult personal problems, it is better to decide what to do yourself rather than follow the advice of others.
- I would struggle through a personal problem by myself rather than discuss it with my friends.
- One's should live one's life independently of others as much as possible.
- It does not matter to me how my country is viewed in the eyes of other nations.

- **Power Distance**

The items of this cultural factor were adopted from previous literature (Al-Ghamdi, 2007; Al-Twajiri & Al-Muhaiza, 1996; Bjerke & Al-Meer, 1993). The items linked to the study of power in the Arab cultural context were merely included. Since Hofstede described the Arab culture as a high power distance culture (Hofstede, 1980), the items adopted for this factor were based on the influence of high power distance.

- Inequalities among people should be minimized.
- Hierarchy is something that exists in our society.
- People are identified by their position in the social networks to which they belong.
- People are identified independently of the groups they belong to.

The items adopted were designed to suit the perspective of this research and there was no clear reason to suggest that this could negatively influence the results or their relative interpretation.

- **Uncertainty Avoidance**

The chosen items for this cultural factor were perceived to be related to the study of Arab culture (Al-Ghamdi, 2007; Al-Twajiri & Al-Muhaiza, 1996; Bjerke & Al-Meer, 1993).

- It is very important to follow society's rules even if I sometimes think it is in society's best interests to break these rules.
- It is important to me to work in a well-organized employment situation where the responsibility and requirements are clear.
- It is very important for me to have long-term security of employment.
- Society's rules are very strict and have to be adhered to rigorously.
- Tolerance of differing behaviors and opinions should be adhered to rigorously.

3.10 Translating the Questionnaire

For developing the instrument of this study, some elements were taken into account. One of these was related to the language in the instrument. The

questionnaire was initially designed in the English language and then translated into Arabic to enhance the quality of the respondents' responses as many Arab tourists are not fluent in English. The process of "back translation" suggested by Brislin (1970) was followed. To allow the comparison of the two versions, one Arab bilingual assistant was employed to translate the questionnaire from English to Arabic and from Arabic back to English. Another bilingual checked all the translations, until there were no differences. The bilingual assistants were lecturers from Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM) (see final English and Arabic versions of the questionnaire in Appendix A).

3.11 Pilot Study

Before deciding on the actual instrument to be utilized in this study, a pilot study was conducted using a convenience sample of 30 Arab educational tourists from Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM). The researcher sat with the respondents while they were completing the questionnaire to identify difficulties in wording, to answer respondents' questions and generally to check on the ease of completion. The reliability test for each instrument was calculated using the pilot study data.

One of the criteria for selection of past instruments was internal consistency of the scales using Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficients. The results on measures for the pilot study are shown in Table 3.4. Reliability estimates ranged from .62 to .85 (one variable has .42 reliability was deleted) are

considered sufficient for research purposes (Nunnally, 1978), so the scales are regarded as relatively reliable. The pilot test also identified several problems such as the questionnaire content, understanding of items and time taken. Some vague sentences were noted and corrected.

Each respondent took approximately 25 minutes to complete the entire questionnaire. As expected, there were some confusion on the sentences in the questionnaire, thus some amendments were made to the current version. The current version of questionnaire is 5 pages long (refer to Appendix A).

Table 3.4
Reliability Coefficient for Multiple Items in Pilot Study (n= 30)

Variables	Alpha (a)
Escape	.76
Personal reasons	.85
Enjoying natural resources	.72
Adventure and excitement	.83
Knowledge	.62
Knowledge and awareness	.75
Cultural and natural attractions	.73
Country image	.74
Cost	.79
Social interdependence (collectivism)	.70
Helping others (collectivism)	.71
Family relationship (collectivism)	.72
Individualism	.81
The differences of groups in society (power distance)	.42
Inequalities and hierarchy (power distance)	.70
Uncertainty avoidance	.83

In accordance with the recommendations of the committee held in April, 2009 at Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM), it was decided to make the qualitative approach at first phase in order to develop the quantitative instrument

(questionnaire), relating to the tourism motivations of Arab educational tourists (push and pull factors) and the cultural factors that describe the Arab society. Hence, by using the convenience sample, the researcher interviewed ten Arab educational tourists from Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM). The interviewees were from different Arab nationalities. This kind of sampling was chosen due to several reasons mainly saving time and cost. Some amendments were made on the questionnaire survey as a result of the analysis of the ten pilot interviews relating to push, pull and cultural factors (see Tables 1, 2 and 3 in Appendix C).

3.11.1 Items Added

This research included the item “escaping from unstable political environment”. This item was included within the ‘Escape’ factor due to the unstable political environment in many Arab countries. The results of the pilot study showed that the ‘Escape’ factor (including this item) had a significant reliability alpha of .76 which is meritorious as classified by Hair et al. (2009). “Course/Program not available at home” was also added to the ‘Personal reasons’ factor because of its importance for the study. According to results of the pilot study, ‘Personal reasons’ factor had a significant reliability alpha of .85.

Furthermore, the results of the interviews suggested that the item “Overseas course better than local” was important to be added to the ‘Knowledge’ factor. The findings of pilot interviews also suggested that the items

“multicultural environment” and “English communication” were essential to be added to the ‘Country image’ factor (see Tables 1 and 2 in Appendix D).

3.11.2 Deleting Items

The results of the pilot study suggested the deletion of several items in some parts of the questionnaire: the pilot study of part one (tourism motivations) section A (push items), suggested that the researcher deletes the item of “future earnings prospects” because it is similar to the items of “enhance career prospect” and “future job prospect”. The pilot study of part one (tourism motivations) section B (pull items), suggested that the researcher deletes the item of “academic reputation” because it is similar to the item of “quality of education in the host country” and the item of “cost of living” because it is similar to “lower cost of living”.

The pilot study of part two (cultural factors) suggested the deletion of the dimension “the differences of groups in the society” as its reliability alpha was low .42 (see Table 3.4). A minimum reliability (Cronbach’s Alpha) value of .60 was set for this study; therefore, this variable was deleted.

3.12 Data Analysis Techniques

For the purpose of data analysis and hypotheses testing, several statistics tools and methods were employed from SPSS software, version 17. These included factor and reliability analysis, descriptive analysis, correlation analysis, test of differences and logistic regression. These statistical techniques will be discussed in details in the following sections.

3.12.1 Factor and Reliability Analysis

One important step in data analysis is to understand the dimension of the variables in the proposed model or relationships in empirical research. In other words, factor analysis is conducted to identify the structure of interrelationships among a large number of items. This is done by defining common underlying dimensions, known as factors (Hair et al., 2009). In the present study, the cut-off point chosen for significant factor loading was 0.30, which is suggested by Hair et al. (2009) for a sample of more than 350.

In assessing the appropriateness of factor analysis, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest that it is comforting to have at least 300 cases for factor analysis. To surpass this minimum, 700 copies of the questionnaire were prepared for this survey. Another test to determine the appropriateness of factor analysis is the Bartlett's test of sphericity, which examines the presence of sufficient number of significant correlations among the variables. It provides the statistical probability

that the correlation matrix has significant correlations among at least some of the variables.

The measure of sampling adequacy (MSA) was examined in order to quantify the degree of correlations among the variables and the appropriateness of factor analysis. Hair et al. (2009) indicated that the measure can be interpreted with the following guidelines: .80 or above, meritorious; .70 or above, middling; .60 or above, mediocre; .50 or above, miserable; and below .50, unacceptable. In the present study, the MSA values for each variable were first examined and those values falling to the unacceptable level range were excluded. Once the individual variables achieved an acceptable level, then the overall MSA was evaluated before decision on continuance of the factor analysis was made.

To test the internal consistency of the measurement, reliability analysis was conducted on the factors extracted using the recommendation from Nunnally (1978). In general, the closer the reliability coefficient gets to 1.0, the better it will be. It is also noted that reliability less than .60 is considered to be poor, those in the .70 range are acceptable, and those over .80 are good (Sekaran, 2000).

For the purpose of the present study, a minimum reliability (Cronbach's Alpha) value of .60 was set, which the threshold recommended by Hair et al. (2009) for exploratory research. This research used Cronbach's Alpha to test the

reliability of several factors relating to tourism motivations (push and pull factors) and cultural factors.

3.12.2 Descriptive Statistics

The purpose of descriptive analysis was to present raw data transformed into a form that would make them easy to understand and interpret. Hence, to acquire a feel for the data, descriptive statistics (frequencies and mean values) for all the variables of interest were obtained. These are now described.

The frequencies procedure is an easy and simple form of descriptive analysis. It only presents counts and percentages for individual variables. For instance, the numbers and percentages of respondents enrolled in each student status group (Veal, 2006). The first step in the process of analyzing categorical variables, nominal or ordinal, is to make a frequency count of the number of cases that can react to each of the variable categories (David & Sutton, 2004). In this research, frequencies and percentages were employed with variables (e.g. demographic variables such as gender, marital status, and age) that allowed the researcher to describe the sample.

The mean, or average, is the most frequently-used measure of central tendency (David & Sutton, 2004). The means procedure was applied to comparing averages (means) for different groups. In this research, the mean

scores used to find the relationship between push and pull factors of the motivations of Arab educational tourists and to find the relationship between Arab society culture and demographic factors of Arab educational tourists with tourism motivations (push and pull factors).

3.12.3 Test of Differences

T-test was used to see if there is a statistically significant difference in the mean scores for two groups of variables. In this research, the T-test analysis was employed to identify the differences in the motivations of the Arab educational tourists' demographic variables (that is gender). The assumption of homogeneity of variance was first examined through Levene's test for equality of variance. In the case where the assumptions of equal variances were violated, the t-value reported for equal variances not assumed was used.

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to examine whether there exist any differences in the tourism motivations performed by demographic factors with more than two categories (that is age, marital status, income level, and educational level). A post-hoc analysis with a Tukey method was conducted to identify differences among the push and pull motivation factors of the Arab educational tourists related to their demographic characteristics. As ANOVA test assumed equal variances, the Levene's test for homogeneity of variance was first examined in order to ensure that the assumption of homogeneity of variance have not been violated.

3.12.4 Correlation Analysis

A variety of statistical techniques allow researchers to measure the extent to which two factors are associated by a single summarizing measure. Such measures of relationship often referred to as correlation coefficient. They reflect the strength and the direction of association between the variables and the degree to which one factor can be predicted from the other. It ranges from +1 to -1. A correlation of +1 indicates that there is a perfect positive linear relationship between variables while a correlation of -1 indicates that there is a perfect negative linear relationship between variables.

On the other hand, a correlation of 0 indicates that there is no relationship between variables (Pallant, 2007). In this study, Pearson correlation was used to find the relationship between push and pull motivations of Arab educational tourists as well as the relationship between Arab societal culture and push and pull motivations of Arab educational tourists.

3.12.5 Logistic Regression

Logistic regression is used to predict a binary or dichotomous dependent variable on the basis of continuous and/or categorical independents and to determine the percent of variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables. The impact of predictor variables is usually explained in terms of odds ratios (Garson, 2009). According to Hair et al. (2009, p.333), logistic regression

is “the preferred method for two-group (binary) dependent variable due to its robustness, ease of interpretation, and diagnostics”.

The logistic regression model was used in many disciplines including travel and tourism research (e.g. Chen & Wu, 2009; Jang & Cai, 2002). In this study, a logistic regression model was tested to discover what factors contributed to determining the destination as a travel region. In the questionnaire survey of this study, the respondents were asked whether the tourism motivations (push and pull) and cultural factors had a main effect on their decision in choosing Malaysia. (Yes/no). The value of 1 is used to indicate a Yes answer and 0 is used to code the answer No to the question.

Mathematically, the logistic model is defined by taking the exponent of x_n and dividing by the exponent of one plus x_n . The functional form of the commonly used binary logistic regression model is as follows (Moutinho & Hutcheson, 2008).

$$\Pr(y=1/x_n) = \left[\frac{\exp (b_0 + b_1 x_1 + b_2 x_2 + \dots + b_n x_n)}{1 + \exp (b_0 + b_1 x_1 + b_2 x_2 + \dots + b_n x_n)} \right]$$

$\Pr (y=1/x_n)$ = the probability of the event y occurring given the effects of the independent variable, x_n .

Exp = is the base of the natural logarithms (or the exponent). These values are the odds ratios for each of the independent variables. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007, p.461), the odds ratio represents 'the change in odds of being in one of the categories of outcome when the value of a predictor increases by one unit'. The odds ratios examine the strength of the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables.

b_n = the slope coefficients corresponding to the appropriate independent variable,

x_n

x_n = the independent variables involved in the regression.

Instead of predicting the value of y given the values of the independent variables x_n as is done in multiple regression, logistic regression determines the predicted probability of y occurring given the values of the independent variables x_n (Moutinho & Hutcheson, 2008).

The justification behind using logistic regression, compared to both multiple regression and discriminant analysis, is due to the fact that when the dependent variable has only two groups, then the logistic regression is preferred for two reasons: First, discriminant analysis relies on strictly meeting the assumptions of multivariate normality and equal variance-covariance matrices across groups – assumptions that are not met in many situations. Logistic regression does not face these strict assumptions and is much more robust when these assumptions are not met, making its applications appropriate in many situations (Hair et al., 2009). Second, even if the assumptions are met, logistic

regression is preferable because it is similar to multiple regression. As such, it has straightforward statistical tests, similar approaches to incorporating metric and non metric variables and nonlinear effects, and a wide range of diagnostics and may be more suitable in many situations (Hair et al., 2009).

With a categorical dependent variable, discriminant function analysis is usually employed if all of the predictors are continuous and nicely distributed. logit analysis is usually employed if all of the predictors are categorical and logistic regression is often chosen if the predictor variables are a mix of continuous and categorical variables (that is the case of this study) and/or if they are not nicely distributed (logistic regression makes no assumptions about the distributions of the predictor variables) (Wuensch, 2009).

3.13 Summary

After investigating the qualities of the qualitative and quantitative approaches, the researcher decided to use the two approaches. The reasons for using the two approaches are diverse.

The population of the study consisted of Arab educational tourists from seven Malaysian academic institutions. The sample size was 375. However, to ensure this minimal response number the researcher distributed 700 questionnaires. The number of cases for qualitative phase was twenty three participants from different Arab nationalities. The proportionate stratified random

sampling was employed to represent the population of the research in quantitative phase and convenience sampling technique was used to collect data in qualitative phases (interviews).

The questionnaires were divided into four parts: part one was on tourism motivations, part two tackled Arab societal culture, part three was on destination choice and part four considered the demographic characteristics. The measurement variables and the pilot tests were used to build the final version of the questionnaire survey. For the analysis of the interviews, the researcher used Content analysis of transcripts of the interviews to identify the motivations of Arab educational tourists and their opinions about Arab society.

Factor and reliability analysis and other useful techniques like descriptive analysis, correlation analysis, test of differences and logistic regression were employed to investigate different issues and answer specific research hypotheses.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of data analysis. Firstly, this chapter describes the response rate. Secondly, it presents the demographic characteristics of the respondents. It follows with analysis on goodness of measures to test validity and reliability of the variables. Then, this chapter investigates the push and pull motivations, cultural factors and demographic factors of Arab educational tourists. It also provides the results of the relationships between push and pull motivations, cultural factors and demographic factors of Arab educational tourists traveling to Malaysia. Furthermore, the chapter provides the results of the influence of push and pull motivations, cultural factors and demographic factors on destination choice. Finally, the results of the hypothesis testing and respondents' suggestions are presented.

4.2 Response Rate

For data collection purposes, 700 questionnaires were distributed to Arab educational tourists in seven academic institutions in Malaysia. Out of this number, 528 were returned, 104 of which were excluded because the questionnaires were incomplete. Thus, a total of 424 responses were usable and used for subsequent analysis, giving a response rate of 60.5 percent. It was with tremendous effort, hard work and extra financial cost that this response rate was

obtained. Saunders et al. (2007) suggest that an average response rate of 30-40 percent is a reasonable rate for a delivered and collected method. The sample size appears to be adequate and response rate obtained was comparable to several studies in marketing.

4.3 Demographic Factors of the Respondents

Several studies of the decision process in the choice of tourist destination (e.g. Bogari, 2002; Chen & Wu, 2009; Heung et al., 2001; Metwally, 2004) showed that demographic factors, such as gender, age, marital status, occupation, education and social class were internal inputs that had an influence on the perceptions of destinations. Table 4.1 summarizes the results of demographic factors of the respondents. These results will be discussed in the following sections in details.

4.3.1 Gender

Gender is among the main segmentation factors frequently used in market segmentation. It is a significant factor that affects marketing strategies as the needs of males are different from those of females. This study shows that the majority of the respondents are males (86.6 percent) while females present 13.4 percent of the sample.

4.3.2 Age

Different products and services are often targeted at different age groups by tourism marketers. The age of the majority of the respondents in this study is concentrated in the 25 to 34 years old (56.6 percent). This is followed by those in the youngest group (under 25 years old, 36.8 percent), and then those in the group aged 35 to 44 (5.9 percent). The last group is aged 45 and over (0.7 percent). Similar results in previous studies revealed that the age of the majority of tourists was concentrated in the 25 to 34 year old group (Heung et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2004).

4.3.3 Marital Status

Several studies reveal that the desires of the single tourists are different from those of married, widowed or divorced tourists. With regard to the distribution of respondents in terms of marital status, roughly two-thirds of the sample were single (73.4 percent), married (25.9 percent) and divorced /widowed (0.7 percent).

4.3.4 Educational Level

Education is a socioeconomic feature that has an enormous effect on an individual's behavior. The behavior of educated tourists is different from those of low education level in a number of ways. The educational level of the sample was grouped into four categories: 42.9 percent of respondents had university level of education, followed by tourists with postgraduate level (32.5 percent), 16.3

percent of the respondents had a high-school education and 8.3 percent of them had certificate or diploma.

4.3.5 Monthly Income

The consumer's income is among the key factors that affect the demand for products or services. According to the monthly income of the respondents received from their own countries, they were classified into four categories. Those with monthly income level of US\$ 200-500 constituted the highest percentage (55.4 percent), followed by those with monthly income of less than US\$ 200 (22.4 percent). In the third rank came those with monthly income level of US\$ 501-1000 with a percentage of 17.5 percent while the group with the highest income level (US\$ 1001 and more) made up the smallest part of the respondents with a percentage of 4.7 percent.

Educational tourists with an income of US\$ 200 to \$500 formed the largest group in this study (55.4 percent). Similar results were found in Taylor's (2006, p.220) study which found that "most educational tourists in Ecuador had a monthly income between US\$200 to \$600 per month and few spend more than US\$ 1000 monthly". Different results were found in Richie's (2003) study which found that most educational tourists in Canberra, Australia had a monthly income of US\$924.

Table 4.1
Demographic Factors of the Respondents (N=424)

Factors	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	367	86.6
	Female	57	13.4
Age	Under 25	156	36.8
	25-34	240	56.6
	35-44	25	5.6
	> 45	3	0.7
Marital Status	Single	311	73.4
	Married	110	25.9
	Divorced/Widowed	3	0.7
Educational Level	Secondary School	69	16.3
	Certificate/Diploma	35	8.3
	Bachelor's degree	182	42.9
	Postgraduate	138	32.5
Monthly Income	Less than US\$ 200	95	22.4
	US\$200 - US\$ 500	235	55.4
	US\$501 – US\$ 1000	74	17.5
	>US\$ 1001	20	4.7

4.4 Goodness of Measures

4.4.1 Construct Validity

As mentioned in chapter 3, most of the items used to measure the variables were borrowed from the literature. Even though most of the borrowed measurements have been confirmed of its discriminant and convergent validity, it is felt necessary to re-examine the validity of these measures (some factors have not been examined before). This is because this study is undertaken on Arab educational tourists in Malaysia, which maybe different from that of America or any other countries. The existing literature on tourism motivations has been done in other countries where the environment and the culture were different from the

Arab culture. In order to ascertain whether the measurements used in this study have construct validity, that is, measure what they are supposed to measure, exploratory factor analysis was conducted on all items measuring the constructs of push factors, pull factors and cultural factors.

4.4.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis

For factor analysis purposes, the items in the questionnaire are grouped into two components. The first component was tourism motivations, consisted of items in Part One of the questionnaire. The second component comprised of cultural factors which contained Part Two of the questionnaire. Factor analysis was based on principle component method with varimax rotation for all components. Because no compelling analytical reason suggests favoring one rotational method over the other, and orthogonal rotation methods are the most widely used rotational methods (Hair et al., 2009), varimax rotation was used to refine the original factors matrix. Rotation of the initial solutions maximizes variance loading within each factor. Rotating of the original matrix assists in the recognition of the variables that best define the factor (Hair et al., 2009). The results for each factor analysis conducted are summarized in Table 4.3, Table 4.9 and Table 4.17.

For testing adequacy of factor analysis, it was necessary to determine whether it was appropriate to conduct factor analysis on the push motivation

factors (23 items), pull motivation factors (28 items), and cultural factors (18 items). The decision was made by examining the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett’s test of sphericity. As shown in Table 4.2, the values from the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measure of sampling adequacy test on the push, pull, and cultural items were greater than 0.70, exceeded the recommended value of 0.60 for good factor analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The Bartlett’s test of sphericity on the push, pull and cultural items were highly significant ($p= 0.00$), supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. These results indicated that the assumptions of factor analysis were met.

Table 4.2
Results of Testing for Adequacy of Factor Analysis

Test	Push Motivations	Pull Motivations	Cultural Factors
Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	0.83	0.88	0.77
Bartlett’s test of Sphericity: Sig	0.00	0.00	0.00

4.5 Tourism Motivations

This study aims to determine the push and pull motivations that drive Arab educational tourists to Malaysia, and to determine the nature of the relationship between push and pull factors. As mentioned in chapter one that there has been lack of attention among the researchers to investigate the motivations of educational tourists. Therefore, this section aims to fill this gap and to contribute to the educational tourism literature by investigating the push and pull motivation factors of Arab educational tourists.

4.5.1 Push Motivation Factors

Principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation was first performed on the 23 push motivation items. As illustrated in Table 4.3, five factors with eigenvalues of 1.0 or above were extracted from the data. These five push factors accounted for 54.4 percent of the total variance. Based on the Kaiser's criterion or eigenvalue rule above, the scree test plot also suggested and supported the existence of five reliable factors among all the possible factors (see Table 1 and Figure 1 in Appendix B).

The factor loadings of the push motivation items were between 0.61 and 0.80, indicating a good correlation between the items and the factor grouping. The reliability values (Cronbach's alpha coefficient) for the five factors ranged from 0.68 to 0.82, indicating acceptable internal consistency.

Three items from the 'Personal reasons' factor had cross loadings, a common practice was to delete these items which might reduce the inconsistent correlations among the factors and consequently, could improve the scale reliability (Hair et al., 2009).

Based on higher factor loadings and the uniqueness of each item, the five push motivation factors were accepted and labeled as "Enjoying natural resources" (Factor 1), "Personal reasons" (Factor 2), "Escape" (Factor 3), "Knowledge" (Factor 4), and "Adventure and excitement" (Factor 5). Table 4.3

presents the results of the factor analysis on push motivation factors of Arab educational tourists.

Table 4.3
Results of Factor and Reliability Analysis Performed on Push Factors

Push Factors	Factor Loadings	Eigen-Values	Variance Explained	Reliability
Factor 1: Enjoying natural resources		5.2	22.8%	0.82
Observing beautiful natural scenery	.71			
Viewing the wildlife	.74			
Enjoying good weather	.63			
Enjoying rural countryside	.75			
Visiting national parks/forests	.64			
Having fun, being entertained	.62			
Factor 2: Personal reasons		3.0	13.2%	0.71
Enhancing my career prospects	.72			
Future job prospect	.75			
Improving language skills	.64			
Gaining higher status	.72			
Factor 3: Escape		1.6	7.1%	0.68
Having a change from a demanding job	.61			
Getting away from the demands of home	.72			
Escaping from everyday life	.73			
Escaping from unstable political environment	.68			
Factor 4: Knowledge		1.4	6.4 %	0.72
Seeing and experiencing a foreign destination	.76			
The desire to learn new things and increasing knowledge	.78			
Overseas course better than local	.80			
Factor 5: Adventure and excitement		1.0	4.6%	0.70
Meeting new people	.74			
Being daring and adventuresome	.70			
Finding thrills and excitement	.65			
Total variance explained			54.4%	

Factor 1, Enjoying natural resources factor, explains 22.8 percent of the variance with an eigenvalue of 5.2. This factor includes six items that are related

to the natural resources of a destination. The six items of the factor are as follows: ‘observing beautiful natural scenery’, ‘viewing the wildlife’, ‘enjoying good weather’ ‘visiting national parks/ forests’, ‘enjoying rural countryside’ and ‘having fun, being entertained’.

The values in the column labeled ‘Alpha if Item Deleted’ indicate that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted except the item “enjoying good weather”. Table 4.4 shows that deleting this item will increase the value from 0.82 to 0.83. Despite this increase, it was decided to keep it for two reasons. First, the increase was not dramatic and both values reflected a reasonable degree of reliability. Second, the item reflected a desire to enjoy good weather which considered important for many Arab tourists (Bogari, 2002).

Table 4.4
Confirming the Reliability of Enjoying Natural Resources Factor

Statements	Corrected item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Pearson Correlation			
Observing beautiful natural scenery	.63	.78				
Viewing the wildlife	.68	.77	.53			
Enjoying good weather	.40	.83	.31	.32		
Enjoying rural countryside	.65	.78	.50	.58	.36	
Visiting national parks/forests	.56	.80	.39	.48	.27	.49
Having fun, being entertained	.60	.79	.56	.53	.26	.43 .43

Factor 2, the Personal reasons factor, accounts for 13.2 percent of the variance in the data, with an eigenvalue of 3.0. The items associated with this factor are ‘enhancing my career prospects’, ‘future job prospect’, ‘improving language skills’ and ‘gaining higher status’.

As illustrated in Table 4.5, the values in the column labeled ‘Alpha if Item Deleted’ indicate that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted because all the values in this column were less than the overall reliability (0.71).

Table 4.5
Confirming the Reliability of Personal Reasons Factor

Statements	Corrected item-Total Correlation	Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted	Pearson Correlation		
Enhancing my career prospects	.54	.62			
Future job prospect	.51	.64	.45		
Improving language skills	.47	.66	.44	.31	
Gaining higher status	.47	.66	.35	.40	.35

Factor 3, Escape factor, accounts for 7.1 percent of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.6. All motives that make up this factor grouping reflect the desire to get away and experience a change from routine. This factor is composed of four items. They are as follows: ‘having a change from a demanding job’, ‘getting away from the demands of home’, ‘escaping from everyday life’ and ‘escaping from unstable political environment’.

The reliability alpha of this factor is 0.68. As shown in Table 4.6, the values in the column labeled ‘Alpha if Item Deleted’ demonstrate that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. This indicates that all the items of the factor contribute positively to the overall reliability.

Table 4.6
Confirming the Reliability of Escape Factor

Statements	Corrected item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Pearson Correlation		
Having a change from a demanding job	.42	.64			
Getting away from the demands of home	.56	.56	.40		
Escaping from everyday life	.49	.59	.31	.51	
Escaping from unstable political environment	.39	.67	.27	.32	.30

Factor 4, Knowledge factor, explains 6.4 percent of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.4. This factor includes three motives, which reflect the desire to increase knowledge and discover destinations. They are as follows: ‘seeing and experiencing a foreign destination’, ‘learning new things and increasing knowledge’ and ‘overseas course better than local’.

The reliability alpha of this factor is 0.72. To confirm the reliability of this factor, the Pearson inter-correlation of this factor was conducted. As illustrated in Table 4.7, all the items were higher .50. The overall correlation among items was also higher than .30, which was statistically acceptable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The values in the column labeled ‘Alpha if Item Deleted’ indicate that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted, because all values in this column were less than the overall reliability (0.72).

Table 4.7
Confirming the Reliability of Knowledge Factor

Statements	Corrected item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Pearson Correlation	
Seeing and experiencing a foreign destination	.53	.65		
The desire to learn new things and increasing knowledge.	.58	.60	.50	
Overseas course better than local	.52	.66	.43	.48

Factor 5, Adventure and excitement factor, is loaded with three items and explains 4.6 percent of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.0. The three items of the factor are 'meeting new people', 'Being daring and adventuresome' and 'finding thrills and excitement'.

The reliability alpha of this factor is 0.70. To further examine the internal consistency, the reliability of this factor was confirmed by the Pearson inter-correlation of the items included in this factor, which indicated that all the items were higher than .50 and the correlations among items were also higher than .30 that was statistically good. As illustrated in Table 4.8, the values in the column labeled 'Alpha if Item Deleted' demonstrate that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted because all the values in the column were less than the overall reliability (0.70).

Table 4.8

Confirming the Reliability of Adventure and Excitement Factor

Statements	Corrected item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Pearson Correlation	
Meeting new people	.52	.63		
Being daring and adventuresome	.57	.56	.49	
Finding thrills and excitement	.50	.65	.40	.46

4.5.2 Pull Motivation Factors

Principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation was also performed on the 28 pull motivation items. As shown in Table 4.9, six pull motivation factors with eigenvalues equal to or greater than 1.0 were extracted. These six pull factors accounted for 55.9 percent of the total variance. Based on the eigenvalue rule above, the scree test plot also suggested and supported the existence of six reliable factors among all the possible factors (see Table 2 and Figure 2 in Appendix B).

The factor loadings of the pull motivation items were between 0.36 and 0.82. These loadings were greater than .30 which was the minimum level required for a sample of size 350 and above (Hair et al., 2009). For internal consistency between items representing each factor, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was also estimated if its values were equal to or greater than 0.60. The reliability values for the six factors ranged from 0.62 to 0.81, indicating acceptable internal consistency. To reduce the inconsistent correlations among the factors and consequently, enhanced the scale reliability (Hair et al., 2009), two items (from

Cost factor and Cultural and natural attractions factor) which had cross loadings were deleted.

The factors were labeled according to the commonality of the items loading on each factor. Table 4.9 provides a summary of the factor loadings and corresponding pull motivation items which emerged after the varimax rotation. The items were the attractiveness of the “Cultural and natural attractions” (Factor 1), “Country image” (Factor 2), “Cost” (Factor 3), “Knowledge and awareness” (Factor 4), “Social environment” (Factor 5), and “Safe environment” (Factor 6).

Table 4.9

Results of Factor and Reliability Analysis Performed on Pull Factors

Pull Factors	Factor Loadings	Eigen-Values	Explained Variance	Reliability
Factor 1: Cultural and natural attractions		7.5	27.1 %	0.75
Historical attractions	.42			
Cultural attractions	.65			
Natural scenery	.73			
Appealing local food	.36			
Nightlife and entertainment	.65			
Outdoor activities are available	.82			
Factor 2: Country image		2.5	9.2%	0.76
Social reputation	.76			
Comfortable public transportation	.71			
Opportunity of working during the course	.62			
Hygiene and cleanliness	.54			
Immigration procedures	.40			
Time to get the degree	.36			
Factor 3: Cost		1.7	6.3%	0.81
Lower cost of living	.82			
Lower travel costs	.72			
Lower fees	.75			
Factor 4: Knowledge and awareness		1.3	4.8%	0.72
Easy to obtain information on host country	.53			
Knowledge of host country	.67			
Quality of education in host country	.75			
Host qualifications recognized	.66			
English communication	.36			
Factor 5: Social environment		1.2	4.4%	0.65
Cultural distance	.71			
Multicultural environment	.66			
Development level	.70			
Factor 6: Safe environment		1.1	4.2%	0.62
A safe (low crime) environment	.71			
Low racial discrimination	.79			
Established population of overseas students	.51			
Total variance explained			56.1%	

Factor1, Cultural and natural attractions factor, contains six items and explains 27.3 percent of the variance with an eigenvalue of 7.5. The six items are ‘historical attractions’, ‘cultural attractions’, ‘natural scenery’, ‘appealing local food’, ‘night life and entertainment’ and ‘outdoor activities are available’.

As illustrated in Table 4.10, the values in the column labeled ‘Alpha if Item Deleted’ indicate that none of the items here would increase the reliability if they were deleted because all the values in this column were less than the overall reliability of 0.75.

Table 4.10
Confirming the Reliability of Cultural and Natural Attractions Factor

Statements	Corrected item-Total Correlation	Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted	Pearson Correlation			
Historical attractions	.46	.72				
Cultural attractions	.56	.69	.46			
Natural scenery	.56	.69	.30	.49		
Appealing local food	.34	.75	.31	.28	.25	
Nightlife and entertainment	.37	.75	.20	.22	.32	.07
Outdoor activities are available	.67	.66	.36	.47	.53	.33 .47

Factor 2, Country image factor, contains six items and explains 9.2 percent of the variance with an eigenvalue of 2.5. The items of the factor are ‘social reputation’, ‘comfortable public transportation’, ‘opportunity of working during the course’, ‘hygiene and cleanliness’, ‘immigration procedures’ and ‘time to get the degree’.

As demonstrated in Table 4.11, none of the items in the column labeled ‘Alpha if Item Deleted’ could improve the reliability if they were deleted because all values in this column were less than the overall reliability of 0.76.

Table 4.11
Confirming the Reliability of Country Image Factor

Statements	Corrected item-Total Correlation	Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted	Pearson Correlation					
Social reputation	.59	.71						
Comfortable public transportation	.47	.74	.36					
Opportunity of working during course	.60	.71	.53	.40				
Hygiene and cleanliness	.51	.73	.42	.27	.49			
Immigration procedures	.48	.74	.36	.35	.37	.30		
Time to get the degree	.43	.75	.37	.26	.27	.31	.31	

Factor 3 is related to the costs of traveling overseas such as, the lower cost of living, lower travel costs and lower fees. This factor explains 6.3 percent of the variance in the data set with an eigenvalue of 1.7.

The reliability alpha of this factor is 0.81. To further examine the internal consistency, the reliability of this factor was confirmed by the Pearson inter-correlation of the items included in this factor, which was higher than .50, and the correlations among items exceeded .30 that was statistically acceptable as shown in Table 4.12. Moreover, the values in the column labeled ‘Alpha if Item Deleted’ indicate that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted because all values in this column were less than the overall reliability (0.81).

Table 4.12
Confirming the Reliability of Cost Factor

Statements	Corrected item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Pearson Correlation	
Lower cost of living	.71	.69		
Lower travel costs	.65	.74	.64	
Lower fees	.62	.78	.59	.52

Factor 4, Knowledge and awareness factor, accounts for 4.8 percent of the variance in the data set with an eigenvalue of 1.3. This factor includes five items related to the knowledge of host country and its attractiveness as a destination for educational tourism. The five items are 'easy to obtain information on host country', 'knowledge of host country', 'quality of education in host country', 'host qualifications recognized' and 'English communication'.

The reliability alpha of this factor is 0.72. As illustrated in Table 4.13, none of the items in the column labeled 'Alpha if Item deleted' would improve the reliability if they were deleted. This indicates that all the items contribute positively to the overall reliability.

Table 4.13
Confirming the Reliability of Knowledge and Awareness Factor

Statements	Corrected item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Pearson Correlation			
Easy to obtain information on host country	.47	.69				
Knowledge of host country	.52	.66	.45			
Quality of education in host country	.54	.66	.35	.39		
Host qualifications recognized	.50	.67	.27	.33	.49	
English communication	.41	.71	.27	.30	.29	.35

Factor 5, Social environment factor, is loaded with three items. This factor accounts for 4.4 percent of the variance in the data with an eigenvalue of 1.2. The three items of the factor are ‘cultural distance’, ‘multicultural environment’ and ‘development level’.

To confirm the reliability of this factor, the total correlation among items was higher than .30 that was statistically acceptable as demonstrated in Table 4.14. Furthermore, the values in the column labeled ‘Alpha if Item Deleted’ indicate that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted because all values in this column were less than the overall reliability of 0.65.

Table 4.14
Confirming the Reliability of Social Environment Factor

Statements	Corrected item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Pearson Correlation
Cultural distance	.43	.58	
Multicultural environment	.46	.54	.35
Development level	.47	.52	.37

Factor 6, Safe environment, contains three items and explains 4.2 percent of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.1. The three items of the factor are ‘a safe environment’, ‘low racial discrimination’ and ‘established population of overseas students’.

The reliability alpha of this factor is 0.62. To examine further the internal consistency, the total correlation among items was higher than .30, which was statistically satisfactory as shown in Table 4.15. Furthermore, the values in the

column labeled 'Alpha if Item Deleted' demonstrated that none of the items could augment the reliability if they were deleted, because all the values in this column were less than the overall reliability of 0.62.

Table 4.15
Confirming the Reliability of Safe Environment Factor

Statements	Corrected item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Pearson Correlation
A safe (low crime) environment	.39	.57	
Low racial discrimination	.47	.47	.35
Established population of overseas students	.43	.52	.30

4.5.3 Relationship between Push and Pull Factors

Table 4.16 presents the results of the Pearson correlation analysis between the push and pull factors. Pearson correlation technique was conducted to determine the relationship between push and pull factors. The push and pull factors were measured by using the Mean scores of each factor involved in this analysis (Pearson correlation test). The results indicate that statistically significant correlations exist between push and pull factors in most factors. For example, the pull factors 'Cultural and natural attractions' and 'Country image' have positive correlations with all the five push factors 'Enjoying natural resources', 'Personal reasons', 'Escape', 'Knowledge' and 'Adventure and excitement' at the 0.01 level of significance. The correlation values ranged from 0.633 to 0.186. These are logical results as Malaysia has a good social and academic reputation along with its many different cultural attractions.

Furthermore, the pull factors ‘Knowledge and awareness’, ‘Cost’, ‘Social environment’ and ‘Safe environment’ have positive significant correlations with the four push factors ‘Enjoying natural resources’, ‘Personal reasons’, ‘Knowledge’ and ‘Adventure and excitement’ at the 0.01 and 0.05 level of significance. The correlation values ranged from 0.360 to 0.108. This outcome is attributed to the social and environmental differences between Malaysia and Arab countries.

Generally, these results of relationship between push and pull factors are congruent with the results suggested in previous studies which found relationship between push and pull factors (e.g. Correia et al., 2007; Kim, 2006; Hsieh & Park, 2008; Ng, 2009).

Table 4.16
Pearson Correlation between Push and Pull Factors

	Pull Factors					
	F1: Cultural and natural attractions	F2 : Country image	F3: Cost	F4: Knowledge and awareness	F5: Social environment	F6: Safe environment
Push Factors						
F1: Enjoying natural resources	.633**	.294**	.161**	.321**	.360**	.232**
F2: Personal reasons	.186**	.352**	.330**	.319**	.262**	.302**
F3: Escape	.273**	.195**	.051	.023	.049	.062
F4: Knowledge	.236**	.192**	.187**	.211**	.172**	.198**
F5: Adventure and excitement	.535**	.225**	.108*	.184**	.265**	.178**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

4.6. Cultural Factors

Principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation method was performed on the 18 cultural items. As revealed in Table 4.17, six factors with eigenvalues of 1.0 or above were extracted. These six factors accounted for 65.3 percent of the total variance. Based on the eigenvalue rule, the scree test plot also suggested and supported the existence of six reliable factors among all the possible factors (see Table 3 and Figure 3 in Appendix B). The factor loadings of the cultural items were between 0.43 and 0.88. These loadings were greater than 0.30 that was the minimum level required for a sample of size 350 and above (Hair et al., 2009). For internal consistency between items representing each factor, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was also estimated if its values were equal to or greater than 0.60 (Hair et al., 2009). The reliability values for the six factors ranged from 0.64 to 0.75, indicating acceptable internal consistency.

To reduce the inconsistent correlations among the factors and consequently, improved the scale reliability, one item that had cross loadings (Uncertainty avoidance factor) was deleted. Based on higher factor loadings and the uniqueness of each item, the six cultural factors were accepted and labeled as "Uncertainty avoidance", "Individualism", "Helping others", (collectivism), "Inequalities and hierarchy" (power distance), "Social interdependence" (collectivism), and "Family relationship" (collectivism). Table 4.17 presents the results of the factor analysis of the cultural characteristic.

Table 4.17
Results of Factor Analysis Performed on Cultural Factors

Cultural Factors	Factor Loadings	Eigen-Values	Explained Variance	Reliability
Factor 1: Individualism		4.1	23.2%	.73
When faced with difficult personal problems, it is better to decide what to do yourself rather than follow the advice of others.	.83			
I would struggle through a personal problem by myself rather than discuss it with my friends.	.86			
One's should live one's life independently of others as much as possible.	.78			
It does not matter to me how my country is viewed in the eyes of other nations.	.42			
Factor 2: Helping others (collectivism)		2.4	13.3%	.71
I like to live close to my good friends.	.73			
I would help within my means if a relative told me that he or she was in financial difficulties.	.79			
The most important thing in my life is to make myself happy.	.74			
Factor 3: Uncertainty avoidance		1.4	8.1%	.64
It is very important to follow society's rules even if I think it is in society's best interest if I break the rules.	.71			
It is important for me to work in a well-designed job situation where the responsibility and requirements are clear.	.52			
Tolerance of different behaviors and opinions should be adhered to rigorously.	.64			
Within society there exist clear instructions which have to be followed.	.73			
Factor 4: Inequalities and hierarchy (power distance)		1.3	7.4%	.70
Inequalities among people should be minimized.	.83			
Hierarchy is something that exists in our society.	.82			
Factor 5: Family relationship (collectivism)		1.2	7.0%	.75
Aging parents should live at home with their children.	.88			
Children should live at home with parents until they get married.	.87			
Factor 6: Social interdependence (collectivism)		1.1	6.1%	.73
One does better working in a group than alone	.82			
When faced with a difficult personal problem, one should consult one's friends and relatives widely	.81			
Total variance explained			65.3 %	

Factor 1: Individualism factor explains 23.2 percent of the variance with an eigenvalue of 4.1. The four items of the factor are as follows: ‘when faced with difficult personal problems, it is better to decide what to do yourself rather than follow the advice of others’, ‘I would struggle through a personal problem by myself rather than discuss it with my friends’, ‘one’s should live one’s life independently of others as much as possible’ and ‘it does not matter to me how my country is viewed in the eyes of other nations’. The reliability of this factor is 0.73.

As shown in Table 4.18, the values in the column labeled ‘Alpha if Item Deleted’ indicated that the item ‘it does not matter to me how my country is viewed in the eyes of other nations.’ would increase the reliability from 0.73 to 0.79 if it is deleted. Therefore, has been recognized that it is essential to drop this item.

Table 4.18
Confirming the Reliability of Individualism Factor

Statements	Corrected item-Total Correlation	Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted	Pearson Correlation		
When faced with difficult personal problems, it is better to decide what to do yourself rather than follow the advice of others.	.61	.61			
I would struggle through a personal problem myself rather than discuss it with my friends.	.68	.56	.67		
One’s should live one’s life independently of others as much as possible.	.54	.65	.49	.54	
It does not matter to me how my country is viewed in the eyes of other nations.	.28	.79	.20	.29	.21

Factor 2: Helping others (collectivism) factor explains 13.3 percent of the variance with an eigenvalue of 2.4. It contains three items: ‘I like to live close to my good friends’, ‘I would help within my means if a relative told me that he or she was in financial difficulties’ and ‘the most important thing in my life is to make myself happy’.

This factor has a reliability alpha of 0.71. The reliability of this factor was confirmed by the Pearson inter-correlation of the overall items included in this factor. It was higher than .50 and the correlations among items exceeded .30, which was statistically acceptable as shown in Table 4.19. Besides, the values in the column labeled ‘Alpha if Item Deleted’ illustrate that none of the items would enhance the reliability if they were deleted. This indicates that all items contribute positively to the overall reliability.

Table 4.19
Confirming the Reliability of Helping Others Factor

Statements	Corrected item-Total Correlation	Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted	Pearson Correlation	
I like to live close to my good friends.	.52	.63		
I would help within my means if a relative told me that he or she was in financial difficulties.	.58	.55	.51	
The most important thing in my life is to make myself happy.	.48	.67	.38	.46

Factor 3, Uncertainty avoidance factor, explains 8.1 percent of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.4. This factor contains four items: ‘it is very

important to follow society's rules even if I think it is in society's best interest to break the rules', 'it is important for me to work in a well-organized employment situation where the responsibility and requirements are clear', 'society's rules are very strict and have to be adhered to rigorously' and 'tolerance of different behaviors and opinions should be followed'.

The reliability alpha of this factor is 0.64. Table 4.20 presents that none of the items in the column labeled 'Alpha if Item Deleted' would increase the reliability. This indicates that all the items are positively contributing to the overall reliability.

Table 4.20
Confirming the Reliability of Uncertainty Avoidance Factor

Statements	Corrected item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Pearson Correlation		
It is very important to follow society's rules even if I think it is in society's best interest if I break the rules.	.35	.62			
It is important for me to work in a well-designed job situation where the responsibility and requirements are clear.	.45	.56	.27		
Tolerance of different behaviors and opinions should be adhered to rigorously.	.54	.50	.27	.53	
Society's rules are very strict and have to be followed.	.38	.61	.27	.23	.38

Factor 4: Inequalities and hierarchy (power distance) factor explains 7.4 percent of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.3. The factor contains two items: 'inequalities among people should be minimized' and 'hierarchy is something that

exists in our society'. The reliability alpha of this factor is 0.70, which is statistically significant.

Factor 5: Family relationship (collectivism) factor explains 7.0 percent of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.2. The two items of this factor are 'ageing parents should live at home with their children' and 'children should live at home with parents until they get married'. The reliability alpha of this factor is 0.75, which is statistically significant.

Factor 6: Social interdependence (collectivism) factor explains 6.1 percent of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.1. This factor contains two items: 'one does better working in a group than alone' and 'when faced with a difficult personal problem, one should consult one's friends and relatives widely'. The reliability alpha of this factor is 0.73, which is statistically significant.

To obtain the importance of each cultural factor, the mean score was calculated. It can be recognized from Table 4.21 that the 'Helping others' factor is the most important cultural factor as perceived by Arab educational tourists traveling to Malaysia. It has a mean of 4.24, which asserts that the Arab culture is generally a collectivist culture. The results revealed that certain values have not changed in Arab countries since the 1970s (Al-Twajiri & Al-Muhaiza, 1996). Among these values is the unification of an individual to a group, family or other type of connection or relationship. Moreover, the concept of unity is stressed in

Islam, which is the prevalent religion in the Arab world. Arabs are encouraged to help one another on the premise that they will be rewarded for doing so.

Table 4.21

Importance Ranking of Cultural Factors

Cultural Factors	Mean	Rank
Helping others (collectivism)	4.24	1
Inequalities and hierarchy (power distance)	4.18	2
Family relationship (collectivism)	4.11	3
Uncertainty avoidance	4.06	4
Social interdependence (collectivism)	4.01	5
Individualism	3.35	6

The second most important factor perceived by Arab educational tourists was ‘Inequalities and hierarchy’ (power distance) factor with a mean of 4.18. This means, Arab educational tourists agree that, power distance is something that exists in the Arab society. On the other hand, ‘Individualism’ factor was the least important factor perceived by Arab educational tourists with a mean of 3.35.

4.7 Relationship between Tourism Motivations and Cultural Factors

As mentioned in chapter one that there has been a lack of attention among the researchers to study the relationship between tourism motivations and Arab cultural factors. In this study, Pearson correlation technique was conducted to identify the relationship between tourism motivations and cultural factors and contribute to literature of tourism motivations by studying the effect of cultural factors on tourism motivations. Tourism motivations (push and pull factors) and

cultural factors were measured by using the Mean scores of each factor involved in this analysis (Pearson correlation test).

4.7.1 Cultural Factors and Push Factors

The results of Pearson correlation between cultural factors and push factors reveal that there are relationships between the majority of cultural factors and push factors at the 0.01 and 0.05 level of significance. As illustrated in Table 4.22, the correlation values ranged from 0.252 to 0.118. It should be noted that most of these correlations are relatively low.

The cultural factor 'Social interdependence' (collectivism) has significant positive correlations with four push factors, 'Enjoying natural resources', 'Personal reasons', 'Knowledge' and 'Adventure and excitement' at the 0.01 level of significance. The correlations values ranged from 0.130 to 0.247. These findings show that the more collectivism (social interdependence) in the Arab society, the more likely these motivations 'Enjoying natural resources', 'Personal reasons', 'Knowledge' and 'Adventure and excitement' will drive Arab educational tourists to Malaysia. Malaysia has different attributes from that prevail in many Arab countries; therefore, it is expected to attract Arab educational tourists who seek to achieve their personal interests, enjoy natural resources, get more experience and knowledge and live in more open social life.

The cultural factor 'Helping others' (collectivism) has a significant positive correlation with three push factors, 'Enjoying natural resources', 'Personal reasons' and 'Knowledge' at the 0.01 and 0.05 level of significance. These results indicate that the more collectivism (helping others) in the Arab society, the more likely the Arab educational tourists will visit Malaysia to satisfy the push factors of 'Enjoying natural resources', 'Personal reasons' and 'Knowledge'.

The cultural factor 'Uncertainty avoidance' is significantly related to the push factor, 'Personal reasons' at the 0.01 level of significance with a correlation coefficient of 0.213. This finding suggests that, the more of uncertainty avoidance in the Arab society, the more likely the Arab educational tourists will travel to Malaysia to satisfy the push factor of 'Personal reasons'.

The cultural factor 'Individualism' has significant positive correlations with three push factors, 'Enjoying natural resources' (0.127), 'Escape' (0.112) and 'Adventure and excitement' (0.126) at the 0.01 and 0.05 level of significance. This result illustrates that the more 'Individualism' in the Arab society, the more likely the Arab educational tourists will travel to Malaysia to satisfy the push factors of 'Enjoying natural resources', 'Escape' and 'Adventure and excitement'.

A significant positive correlation between the cultural factor 'Inequalities and hierarchy' (power distance) with two push factors 'Personal reasons' (0.131)

and ‘Knowledge’ (0.228) are found at the 0.01 level of significance. These results reveal that the more power distance (Inequalities and hierarchy) in the Arab society, the more likely the Arab educational tourists will visit Malaysia to satisfy the push factors of ‘Personal reasons’ and ‘Knowledge’. The Arab educational tourists who do not feel comfortable with their cultural traits may be attracted to Malaysia as it has different social structure and lifestyle.

The cultural factor ‘Family relationship’ (collectivism) is related positively to one push factor ‘Personal reasons’ at the 0.01 level of significance with a correlation coefficient of 0.185. This outcome suggests that the stronger ‘family relationship’ (collectivism) in the Arab society, the more likely the Arab educational tourists will travel to Malaysia to satisfy the push factor of ‘Personal reasons’.

Table 4.22
Relationship between Cultural Factors and Push Factors

Cultural Factors	Push Factors				
	F1: Enjoying natural resources	F2: Personal reasons	F3: Escape	F4: Knowledge	F 5: Adventure and excitement
F1: Individualism	.127**	.047	.112*	.001	.126**
F2: Helping others	.118*	.252**	-.007	.143**	.067
F3: Uncertainty avoidance	.084	.213**	-.023	.064	.016
F4: Inequalities and Hierarchy	.042	.131**	-.050	.228**	.059
F5: Family relationship	.052	.185**	-.022	.009	-.038
F6: Social interdependence	.184**	.247**	.028	.198**	.130**

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

4.7.2 Cultural Factors and Pull Factors

Table 4.23 presents the results of the Pearson correlation between cultural factors and pull factors. This relationship was measured by using the Mean scores of each factor included in this analysis. The results indicate that there are relationships between the majority of cultural factors and pull factors at the 0.01 level of significance. The correlation values ranged from 0.374 to 0.111.

Cultural factors of 'Helping others' (collectivism), 'Uncertainty avoidance', 'Inequalities and hierarchy' (power distance), 'Family relationship' (collectivism) and 'Social interdependence' (collectivism) are positively correlated with all pull factors, 'Cultural and natural attractions', 'Cost', 'Country image', 'Knowledge and awareness', 'Social environment' and 'Safe environment' at the 0.01 level of significance. These results indicate that the more 'collectivism', 'uncertainty avoidance' and 'power distance' in the Arab society, the more likely the Arab educational tourists will be drawn to Malaysia by the pull factors of 'Cultural and natural attractions', 'Cost', 'Country image', 'Knowledge and awareness', 'Social environment' and 'Safe environment'.

The cultural factor 'Collectivism', reflected in social interdependence, strong family relationships and helping others, is almost shared and agreed upon by all Arabs whether they are tourists or not and regardless of the pushing or pulling factors for traveling outside or inside their countries. This explains why

there are significant correlations between the Arab collectivist culture and most of tourists' pushing and pulling factors.

The cultural factor 'Individualism' is positively related to one pull factor, 'Cultural and natural attractions' at the 0.01 level of significance with a correlation coefficient of 0.140. This finding suggests that the more 'Individualism' in the Arab society, the more likely the Arab educational tourists will be attracted to visit Malaysia by the pull factor of 'Cultural and natural attractions'. This may be due to the possibility that Arab educational tourists with an individualistic attitude have more interests in experiencing cultural and natural attractions, which are diverse in Malaysia. Indeed, these results show the profound interactions between several cultural factors and push and pull motivations which in turn prove the difficulty of tourist destination choice.

Table 4.23
Relationship between Cultural Factors and Pull Factors

Cultural Factors	Pull Factors					
	F1: Cultural and natural attractions	F2: Country image	F3: Cost	F4: Knowledge and awareness	F5: Social environment	F6: Safe environment
F1: Individualism	.140**	-.005	.037	.004	.072	-.040
F2: Helping others	.151**	.284**	.300**	.341**	.154**	.374**
F3: Uncertainty avoidance	.129**	.300**	.299**	.258**	.236**	.297**
F4: Inequalities and hierarchy	.138**	.199**	.238**	.286**	.146**	.334**
F5: Family relationship	.111**	.205**	.211**	.244**	.222**	.230**
F6: Social interdependence	.273**	.326**	.270**	.258**	.300**	.367**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

4.8 Relationship between Tourism Motivations and Demographic Factors of Tourists

Previous studies investigated the differences in tourist motivations with regard to demographic factors in different countries and cultural context. Nevertheless, there has been a lack of attention among the researchers to identify the demographic characteristics of educational tourists on their tourism motivations. Therefore, the objective of this section is to determine the effect of demographic factors on tourist motivations, and to contribute to the literature of tourism motivation by identifying the effect of demographic factors of Arab educational tourists on the push and pull motivations.

Test of differences like T-tests and One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were employed to determine the differences in Arab educational tourists' motivations according to their demographic factors. Tourism motivations (push and pull factors) were measured by using the Mean scores of each factor involved in this analysis (ANOVA and T-test).

4.8.1. Tourism Motivations and Gender of Tourists

An independent sample T-test was carried out to determine whether significant differences existed between the Mean scores assigned to the pull and push factors by males and females. The results of the T-test are shown in Tables 4.24 and 4.25.

Table 4.24 shows that there is no significant correlation between push motivation factors and gender except the 'Escape' factor (sig. = .003). Females with a mean of 2.75 are more interested in the 'Escape' factor than males (mean= 2.36), and hence are likely to be motivated by this factor than males. This may be due to the firm restrictions placed on the Arab women mobility and way of life. Generally, both tourist groups (males and females) have similar motivations (Enjoying natural resources, Personal reasons, Knowledge, Adventure and excitement) to visit Malaysia.

Table 4.24
(T-test): The Differences between Arab Educational Tourists' Gender on Push Factors

Push Factors	Gender				t value	Sig
	Male		Female			
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
F1: Enjoying natural resources	3.13	.843	3.17	.868	-.346	.729
F2 : Personal reasons	4.01	.723	4.02	.775	-.145	.884
F 3: Escape	2.36	.941	2.75	.917	-2.949	.003
F 4: Knowledge	4.32	.587	4.33	.740	-.209	.834
F 5: Adventure and excitement	3.04	.961	3.00	.976	.325	.746

According to the analysis of the T-test illustrated in Table 4.25, there are no significant differences between the two groups. This indicates that tourism attractions of Malaysia (Cultural and natural attractions, Country image, Cost, Knowledge and awareness, Social environment, Safe environment) seem to attract both Arab educational tourist groups (males and females).

Table 4.25
(T-test): The Differences between Arab Educational Tourists' Gender on Pull Factors

Pull Factors	Gender				t value	Sig
	Male		Female			
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
F1: Cultural and natural attractions	3.43	.720	3.48	.747	-.529	.597
F2 : Country image	3.89	.676	3.88	.787	.107	.915
F 3: Cost	4.02	.827	3.98	.923	.324	.746
F 4: Knowledge and awareness	4.01	.638	4.04	.616	-.335	.738
F 5: Social environment	3.75	.779	3.83	.696	-.691	.490
F6: Safe environment	3.97	.755	3.91	.825	.539	.590

4.8.2 Tourism Motivations and Age of Tourists

The results of ANOVA tests in Table 4.26 reveal that significant differences are observed between the Arab educational tourists from different age groups regarding one push motivation factor, 'Personal reasons' (sig. = 0.008). The Tukey multiple range test was conducted to investigate the source of differences across the three groups. The results of the Tukey tests on the push factor 'Personal reasons' indicate that significant differences (sig. = 0.008) are found between group (3) and other age groups (groups 1 and 2). Educational tourists aged from 35 to 44 (group3) (mean = 3.54) are less likely to be motivated by the 'Personal reasons' factor to travel to Malaysia than educational tourists aged under 25 (group 1) with a mean of 4.07, and educational tourists aged from 25 to 34 (group 2) with a mean of 4.01.

Table 4.26

ANOVA: The Differences in Arab Educational Tourists' Push Factors According to their Age

Push Factors	Age				Total	F	Sig.
	Under 25	From 25 to 34	From 35 to 44	From 45 and over			
F1: Enjoying natural resources	3.24	3.10	2.88	2.83	3.14	1.824	.142
F2 : Personal reasons	4.07*	4.01*	3.54*	4.25	4.01	4.013	.008
F 3: Escape	2.44	2.37	2.57	2.42	2.41	.448	.719
F 4: Knowledge	4.32	4.33	4.15	4.56	4.32	.838	.473
F 5: Adventure and Excitement	3.11	3.01	2.85	3.11	3.04	.634	.593

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) in Table 4.27 demonstrate that no significant differences between Arab educational tourists with different age groups exist with regard to pull motivations.

Table 4.27

ANOVA: The Differences in Arab Educational Tourists' Pull Factors According to their Age

Pull Factors	Age				Total	F	Sig.
	Under 25	From 25 to 34	From 35 to 44	From 45 and over			
F1: Cultural and natural attractions	3.48	3.41	3.33	3.22	3.43	.557	.644
F2 : Country image	3.84	3.92	3.85	4.00	3.89	.554	.646
F 3: Cost	3.98	4.03	4.01	4.44	4.01	.364	.779
F 4: Knowledge and awareness	4.03	4.00	4.03	4.25	4.02	.211	.889
F 5: Social environment	3.79	3.75	3.75	3.67	3.76	.103	.958
F6: Safe environment	3.95	3.97	3.92	4.11	3.96	.084	.969

4.8.3 Tourism Motivations and Tourists' Marital Status

The results of ANOVA tests in Table 4.28 indicate that significant differences are observed between Arab educational tourists with different marital status regarding

three push factors, 'Enjoying natural resources' (sig. = 0.021), 'Personal reasons' (sig. = 0.015) and 'Adventure and excitement' (sig. = 0.004). The Tukey multiple range test is conducted to investigate the source of differences across the three groups. The results of the Tukey test on the push factor, 'Enjoying natural resources' show statistically significant differences (sig. = 0.021) between group 3 and groups 1 and 2. Divorced/ widowed tourists put more emphasis on the push factor of 'Enjoying natural resources' (mean = 3.94) than single (mean = 2.98) and married tourists (mean = 3.18).

The results of the Tukey test also show that statistically significant differences (sig. = 0.015) exist between group 3 and groups 1 and 2 on the push factor, 'Personal reasons'. Respondents who are single (group 1) with a mean of 4.05 and married (group 2) with a mean of 3.90 have greater interests in the factor 'Personal reasons' than divorced/widowed persons (group 3) with a mean of 3.08.

The findings of the Tukey test illustrate significant differences (sig. = 0.004) between group (1) and group (2) on the push factor, 'Adventure and excitement'. Single tourists (mean = 3.12) are more likely to be motivated by the 'Adventure and excitement' factor to travel to Malaysia than married tourists (mean= 2.80). No significant differences exist with respect to 'Escape' factor and 'Knowledge' factor. This indicates that tourist groups (single, married, divorced/widowed) have similar motivations (Escape and Knowledge) to visit Malaysia.

Table 4.28

ANOVA: The Differences between Arab Educational Tourists' Marital Status on Push Factors

Push Factors	Marital Status			Total	F	Sig.
	Single	Married	Divorced/ Widowed			
F1: Enjoying natural resources	3.18*	2.98*	3.94*	3.14	3.882	.021
F2 : Personal reasons	4.05*	3.90*	3.08*	4.01	4.217	.015
F 3: Escape	2.42	2.37	2.50	2.41	.164	.848
F 4: Knowledge	4.31	4.35	4.00	4.32	.574	.563
F 5: Adventure and excitement	3.12*	2.80*	3.78	3.04	5.501	.004

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Regarding the pull factors, the results of ANOVA tests in Table 4.29 indicate that significant differences are found among single, married and divorced/widowed educational tourists with respect to four pull factors, 'Cultural and natural attractions'(sig. = 0.007), 'Country image' (sig. 0.003), 'Cost' (sig. = 0.020) and 'Safe environment'(sig. = 0.005). Divorced /widowed tourists (mean = 4.28) are more likely to be pulled by the 'Cultural and natural attractions' factor than married tourists (mean= 3.28). The findings also show that the single tourists (mean = 3.48) are more likely to be attracted by the 'Cultural and natural attractions' factor than the married tourists (mean = 3.28). Moreover, the single and married tourists (mean = 3.90), (mean = 3.91) respectively are more likely to be pulled by the 'Country image' factor than the divorced/widowed tourists (mean 2.56). On the other hand, no significant differences for the 'Country image' factor exist between the single and married tourists. This demonstrates that the tourism attractions of the country image seem to attract both Arab educational tourist groups (single and married).

The results of 'Cost' factor are similar to that of 'Country image' factor, where no significant differences exist between the single and married tourists (mean = 4.03), (mean = 4.00) but both have differences with divorced/widowed tourists (mean = 2.67). This indicates that both single and married tourist groups are more likely to be attracted by the 'Cost' factor to travel to Malaysia than the divorced/widowed tourists.

Both the single and married tourists (mean = 4.01), (mean = 3.86) respectively are more likely to be motivated by the 'Safe environment' factor to travel to Malaysia than divorced/widowed tourists (mean= 2.78). The Tukey test also reveals that no significant differences for 'Safe environment' factor between the single and married tourist groups. Furthermore, no significant differences exist with respect to the rest of factors. This indicates that Arab educational tourist groups (single, married and divorced/ widowed) have similar motivations (Knowledge and awareness, Social environment) to study in Malaysia.

Table 4.29
ANOVA: *The Differences between Arab Educational Tourists' Marital Status on Pull Factors*

Pull Factors	Marital Status			Total	F	Sig.
	Single	Married	Divorced/ Widowed			
F1: Cultural and natural attractions	3.48*	3.28*	4.28*	3.43	5.078	.007
F2 : Country image	3.90*	3.91*	2.56*	3.89	5.767	.003
F 3: Cost	4.03*	4.00*	2.67*	4.01	3.963	.020
F 4: Knowledge and awareness	4.01	4.06	3.33	4.02	2.082	.126
F 5: Social environment	3.76	3.78	3.33	3.76	.512	.600
F6: Safe environment	4.01*	3.86*	2.78*	3.96	5.407	.005

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

4.8.4 Tourism Motivations and Educational Level of Tourists

The results of ANOVA tests in Table 4.30 show that no significant differences are observed between Arab educational tourists from different educational level groups regarding the push motivations. This demonstrates that tourism attractions of Malaysia, ‘Enjoying natural resources’, ‘Personal reasons’, ‘Escape’, ‘Knowledge’ and ‘Adventure and excitement’ seem to equally attract Arab educational tourist groups with different educational level (secondary school, diploma, bachelor’s degree, postgraduate).

Table 4.30
ANOVA : The Differences in Arab Educational Tourists’ Push Factors According to their Educational Level

Push Factors	Educational Level				Total	F	Sig.
	Secondary School	Diploma	Bachelor’s degree	Post graduate			
F1:Enjoying natural resources	3.11	3.22	3.22	3.02	3.14	1.582	.193
F2 : Personal reasons	4.05	4.04	4.08	3.89	4.01	1.956	.120
F 3: Escape	2.30	2.49	2.45	2.39	2.41	.517	.671
F 4: Knowledge	4.36	4.17	4.38	4.26	4.32	1.836	.140
F 5: Adventure and excitement	2.93	3.06	3.18	2.90	3.04	2.550	.055

The result of ANOVA tests in Table 4.31 reveal that significant differences exist between tourists with different educational level with regard to one pull factor, ‘Cost’ (sig. = 0.027). The Tukey multiple range test is used to investigate the source of differences across the four educational level groups. The outcome of the Tukey test on the pull factor ‘Cost’ found statistically significant differences (sig. = 0.027) between group (3) and group (4). Individuals who have

a bachelor's degree (group 3) (mean = 4.15) set a slight agreement on the 'Cost' factor than individuals who hold postgraduate degree (group 4) (mean = 3.88).

No significant differences exist concerning the rest motivation factors. This indicates that tourism attractions of Malaysia, 'Cultural and natural attractions', 'Country image', 'Knowledge and awareness', 'Social environment' and 'Safe environment' seem to equally attract Arab educational tourist groups with different educational level (secondary school, diploma, bachelor's degree, postgraduate).

Table 4.31

ANOVA: The Differences in Arab Educational Tourists' Pull Factors According to their Educational Level

Pull Factors	Educational Level				Total	F	Sig.
	Secondary School	Diploma	Bachelor's degree	Post graduate			
F1: Cultural and natural attractions	3.46	3.34	3.49	3.37	3.43	.893	.445
F2 : Country image	3.91	3.85	3.94	3.82	3.89	.902	.440
F 3: Cost	3.93	3.95	4.15*	3.88*	4.01	.3.103	.027
F 4: Knowledge and awareness	4.01	3.92	4.06	3.99	4.02	.701	.552
F5: Social environment	3.88	3.60	3.80	3.70	3.76	1.630	.182
F6: Safe environment	3.95	3.84	4.02	3.93	3.96	.760	.517

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

4.8.5 Tourism Motivations and Income of Tourists

The results of ANOVA tests in Tables 4.32 and 4.33 reveal no significant differences between Arab educational tourists with different income levels regarding the push and pull motivations except the pull motivation factor, 'Cost'

(sig. = 0.028). To investigate the source of differences across the four income level groups, the Tukey multiple range test was conducted.

The 'Cost' factor in this study specified the lower cost of Malaysia in terms of tuition fees, travel and living for Arab educational tourists. The results of the Tukey test found significant differences (sig. = 0.018, 0.031) between group (4) and groups (1 and 2). Respondents with monthly income US\$1001 and more (group 4) (mean = 3.50) are less likely to be attracted by the 'Cost' factor to travel to Malaysia, while respondents with a monthly income of less than US\$200 (group 1) (mean = 4.10), US\$ 200 to 500 (group 2) (mean = 4.03) are more likely to be attracted by this factor.

These results are logical as Malaysia provides educational tourism services with lower costs than many Arab countries whereby it attracts low and medium income educational tourists more than high income groups. Moreover, the findings of this study show that the respondents agree to the lower cost in Malaysia as 77.8 percent of Arab educational tourists have monthly income of less than US\$500 while 22.2 percent of the respondents have a monthly income of more than US\$500.

Table 4.32

ANOVA: The Differences in Arab Educational Tourists' Push Factors According to their Income Level

Push Factors	Income Level (US\$)				Total	F	Sig.
	Less than 200	From 200 to 500	From 501 to 1000	1001 and more			
F1: Enjoying natural resources	3.11	3.10	3.17	3.57	3.14	1.972	.117
F2 : Personal reasons	4.03	4.05	3.95	3.65	4.01	2.035	.108
F 3: Escape	2.38	2.46	2.26	2.45	2.41	.897	.443
F 4: Knowledge	4.24	4.30	4.42	4.55	4.32	2.367	.070
F 5: Adventure and excitement	3.02	3.04	3.06	3.08	3.04	.036	.991

Table 4.33

ANOVA: The Differences in Arab Educational Tourists' Pull Factors according to their Income Level

Pull Factors	Income Level (US\$)				Total	F	Sig.
	Less than 200	From 200 to 500	From 501 to 1000	1001 and more			
F1: Cultural and natural attractions	3.27	3.47	3.48	3.55	3.43	2.142	.094
F2 : Country image	3.94	3.88	3.93	3.57	3.89	1.766	.153
F 3: Cost	4.10*	4.03*	3.95	3.50*	4.01	3.051	.028
F 4: Knowledge and awareness	3.92	4.02	4.09	4.14	4.02	1.287	.278
F5: Social environment	3.75	3.78	3.78	3.58	3.76	.416	.741
F6: Safe environment	3.92	3.97	4.09	3.58	3.96	2.430	.065

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

4.9 Destination Choice

This section will identify the influence of tourism motivations, Arab cultural factors and demographic factors of Arab educational tourists on destination choice. Logistic regression is a suitable technique to predict the likelihood of an event to occur and uses a dichotomous dependent variable. It can accommodate independent variables that are measured on either a continuous or a categorical

scale (Chen & Wu, 2009). In this study, the dichotomous dependent variable (destination choice factor) was coded 0 and 1 in order to be measured in logistic regression test while the continuous independent variables (push, pull, and cultural factors) were measured by using the Mean scores of each factor involved in the analysis of the logistic regression test. The categorical independent variables (demographic factors) were also coded 0 and 1 as a measurement for logistic regression analysis. Consequently, a logistic regression model was used in determining an individual's destination choice as it could find and describe the relationship between the dichotomous dependent variable and a set of independent variables.

Logistic regression is a useful analysis technique for the modeling and discrimination problems in marketing. It is more robust to violations of assumptions of multivariate normality and equal variance-covariance matrices across groups as it is similar to multiple regression with its easy interpretation. Logistic regression has alternative data distribution assumptions, and hence, it generates more appropriate and correct findings in terms of model fit and correctness of the analysis (Akinci et al., 2005).

4.9.1 Determinants of Destination Choice

Frequent initial regressions were run on the sub-categories of independent variables, such as push, pull, cultural and demographic factors in order to reduce the number of variables entering into the specific regression. From the four initial

regression models, variables were excluded from the analysis based on its significance level (see Tables 7, 8, 9 & 10 in Appendix B). Variables which had the significance level greater than .05 were excluded from the model one by one, then re-running the regression with the remaining variables and undertaking the same procedure until all the variables included in the model hold the desired level (or below the desired level) of statistical significance.

The β values provided in the model are equivalent to the β values obtained in a multiple regression analysis. It is important to check whether the β values are positive or negative by which the direction of the relationship will be determined (which factors increase the likelihood of a yes answer and which factors decrease it). Positive coefficients associated with some factors suggest that Arab educational tourists are more likely to travel to the modeled destination, whereas the negative coefficients indicate that they are less likely to visit the specific destination. The other useful piece of information provided in the model is the Exp (B). These values are the odds ratios for each of the independent variables. The odds ratios examine the strength of the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables.

As a result of the general regressions outcome, variables established as significant from the categories were joined together to determine a particular model of best fit. The results in Table 4.34 illustrate that one push motivation factor, five pull motivation factors, three cultural factors and one demographic

factor are significant in the destination choice model. The following sections will discuss these results in details.

One of the five push factors 'Knowledge' was found to be significant whereas the other factors, 'Enjoying natural resources', 'Personal reasons', 'Escape' and 'Adventure and excitement' were not significant in the model. This indicates that the four push factors are not critical determinants in choosing the travel destination.

The push factor 'Knowledge' has a positive influence on the odds of an educational tourist being motivated into traveling to Malaysia ($\beta = 1.127$), with the odds of traveling to Malaysia being 3.088 times larger, as the mean of the 'Knowledge' factor increases, all other factors being equal. The significance level of this factor is $p = 0.000 < 0.05$. This is statistically significant within the analysis and for this reason is included in the regression. The positive impact of the 'Knowledge' factor on choosing Malaysia as an educational destination may be attributed to the fact that many Arab educational tourists seek to study in a new environment, experience new destinations, learn new things and increase self-knowledge. Moreover, Malaysia as a modern country with excellent educational facilities and outstanding educational environment is likely to attract Arab educational tourists who seek knowledge and novelty.

Regarding the pull factors, there are five factors, 'Social environment', 'Country image', 'Cultural and natural attractions', 'Cost' and 'Safe environment' that have significant influence on destination choice. Initially, the pull factor 'Social environment' produced a negative effect on the odds of an educational tourist being motivated into traveling to Malaysia ($\beta = -1.129$), with the odds of traveling to Malaysia being 0.323 times smaller as the mean of the 'Social environment' factor increases, all other factors being equal. The significance value of this factor is $p = 0.000 < 0.05$ and hence it is statistically significant within the analysis.

The negative impact of the 'Social environment' factor on choosing Malaysia as an educational tourism destination may be due to the fact that Malaysia as a Muslim country has several cultural traits that are similar to those prevailing in the Arab society. In fact, Arab culture is based on Islamic values and ethics. Therefore, Arab educational tourists who are motivated by the 'Social environment' factor are less likely to travel to destinations with somewhat similar culture such as Malaysia.

The pull factor 'Country image' produced a positive effect on the odds of an educational tourist being motivated into traveling to Malaysia ($\beta = 2.222$). The odds of traveling to Malaysia is 9.224 times larger as the mean of the 'Country image' factor increases, all other factors being equal. The significance level of this factor was $p = 0.000 < 0.05$.

This positive impact of the 'Country image' factor on destination choice could be attributed to the fact that Malaysia has a good infrastructure, social and academic reputation and simple immigration procedures. Hence, these important attributes are more likely to attract Arab educational tourists to Malaysia. Furthermore, Malaysia has recently become a prominent country among the Organization Islamic Countries (OIC) due to its successive accomplishments whereby this leads the governments of OIC to send their students to study and enjoy the experience of Malaysia.

The pull factor 'Cultural and natural attractions' is also a significant predictor, according to the significance level ($p= 0.000$). The odds ratio for this variable, however, is 0.312, a value less than 1. This indicates that the 'Cultural and natural attractions' factor produced a negative effect on the odds of an educational tourist being motivated into traveling to Malaysia ($\beta = -1.165$), with the odds of traveling to Malaysia being 0.312 times smaller as the mean of the 'Cultural and natural attractions' factor increases, all other factors being equal.

This negative impact on the destination choice may be attributed to the fact that some Arab educational tourists are used to the desert environment and barren regions whereby they put slight interest on natural scenery. Moreover, many Arab countries have outstanding historical and cultural attractions whereby they are less likely to be attracted by these attributes to Malaysia.

The pull factor 'Cost' which reveal the lower costs of Malaysia as educational tourism destination produced a negative effect on the odds of an educational tourist being motivated into traveling to Malaysia ($\beta = -1.869$), with the odds of traveling to Malaysia being 0.154 times smaller as the mean of the 'Cost' factor increases, all other factors being equal. The significance level of this factor is $p = 0.000 < 0.05$.

The negative impact of the 'Cost' factor on the destination choice is due to two main reasons. First, the exchange rates in the Arab states are much different from each other. Second, the respondents are from different Arab countries so a different gross domestic product (GDP) is estimated. The Gross domestic product (GDP) of the 22 Arab league countries based on purchasing power parity (PPP) is US\$ 7,671 per capita, ranging from the highest 'Qatar' at roughly US\$ 87,717 per capita to the lowest Arab country 'Comoros' at roughly US\$ 1,163 per capita (International Monetary Fund, 2010). As a result, some Arab countries regard Malaysia as a low-cost destination while others do not share this perceptive. For instance, rich countries like Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) members regard Malaysia as a cheap destination. Moreover, this result is due to that fact that a good number of the respondents are not from the gulf countries as the number of Arab educational tourists in Malaysia from Kuwait, United Arab Emirates, Bahrain and Qatar are very few (see Tables 1.1 and 1.2).

The pull factor 'Safe environment' produced a positive effect on the odds of an educational tourist being motivated into traveling to Malaysia ($\beta = .734$), with the odds of traveling to Malaysia being 2.083 times larger as the mean of the 'Safe environment' factor increases, all other factors being equal. The significance level of this factor is $p = 0.003 < 0.05$, and hence, it is statistically significant within the analysis.

This positive impact on selecting Malaysia as an educational tourism destination is due to the fact that Malaysia is a safe and stable country. Besides, Malaysia possesses a great educational environment in its academic institutions which encourage Arab educational tourists to study in the country. Conversely, some Arab countries lack these crucial attributes in their societies and academic institutions.

These results are consistent with previous studies (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Jang & Cai, 2002; Jo'nsson & Devonish, 2008; Van der Merwe & Saayman, 2008; Van der Merwe et al., 2009) which found that tourist motivations have an influence on destination choice.

Regarding the cultural factors, 'Helping others' (collectivism), 'Family relationship' (collectivism) and 'Inequalities and hierarchy' (power distance) were found to have a significant influence on destination choice, while the rest three factors, 'Individualism', 'Uncertainty avoidance' and 'Social interdependence'

were not significant in the selection of a destination. Firstly, the cultural factor 'Helping others' produced a negative effect on the odds of a tourist being motivated into traveling to Malaysia ($\beta = -1.181$), with the odds of traveling to Malaysia being 0.307 times smaller as the mean of the 'Helping others' factor increases, all other factors being equal. The significance level of this factor is $p = 0.000 < 0.05$. The negative impact of this factor on the destination choice is due to the collectivist cultural characteristics that prevail in the Arab society where it may be perceived by some educational tourists as limiting their privacy and personal freedom.

The cultural factor 'Family relationship' is also a significant predictor, according to the significance level ($p = 0.005$). The odds ratio for this variable is 1.582, a value more than 1. This indicates that the 'Family relationship' factor produced a positive effect on the odds of an educational tourist being motivated into traveling to Malaysia ($\beta = .459$), with the odds of traveling to Malaysia being 1.582 times larger as the mean of the 'Family relationship' factor increases, all other factors being equal.

The positive impact of the 'Family relationship' factor on the destination choice is due to the fact that the Arab family is effectual, influential and authoritative in respect with travel destination choice in the Arab society. Arab families encourage their sons to travel and study in Muslim countries where mosques, Halal food, Islamic teachings and Islamic rituals are existed. Hence, the

stronger the family relationship in the Arab world, the more likely the Arab educational tourists will travel to Malaysia.

The cultural factor 'Inequalities and hierarchy' produced a negative effect on the odds of an educational tourist being motivated into traveling to Malaysia ($\beta = -.631$), with the odds of traveling to Malaysia being 0.532 times smaller as the mean of the 'Inequalities and hierarchy' factor increases, all other factors being equal. The significance level of this factor was $p = 0.003 < 0.05$ and this is statistically significant within the analysis.

The negative impact of this factor on the destination choice may be due to the perception of Arab educational tourists that the Malaysian and Arab societies are similar with regard to their differentiation between different social groups. Thus, those educational tourists who like to see less inequalities and hierarchy between different social groups are less likely to visit Malaysia. The findings of this study are consistent with prior studies (e.g. Al-Ghamdi, 2007; Bogari, 2002) which found that cultural factors have an influence on destination choice.

For demographic factors, one factor 'Educational level' was found to have a significant influence on destination choice, whereas the other factors, 'age', 'gender', 'marital status' and 'income level' were not significant. This demonstrates that the four demographic factors are not critical determinants in choosing the destination. The demographic factor 'Educational level' produced a

positive effect on the odds of an educational tourist being motivated into traveling to Malaysia ($\beta = 2.376$), with the odds of postgraduate educational tourists for traveling to Malaysia being 10.767 times larger than other educational tourists. The significance level of this factor is $p = 0.000 < 0.05$, and hence, it is statistically significant within the analysis.

The positive impact of this factor on choosing Malaysia as an educational tourism destination may be due to the relatively low cost of living, travel and fees in Malaysia, as many postgraduate are married and have their families with them; therefore, they are much concerned with the everyday expenditure.

The results of this research are in agreement with previous studies (e.g. Bogari, 2002; Metwally, 2004; Oum & Lemire, 1991) which found that demographic factors have an influence on destination choice. On the other hand, other studies such as Lehto et al. (2002) and Sirakaya, Sonmez and Choi (2001) revealed that demographic factors did not have any effect on destination choice.

Table 4.34
Results of Binary Logistic Regression on Destination Choice (Malaysia)

Factors	β value	S.E	Wald value	Sig.	Exp (B)
Knowledge	1.127	.266	18.023	.000	3.088
Social environment	-1.129	.233	23.424	.000	.323
Country image	2.222	.320	48.290	.000	9.224
Cultural and natural attractions	-1.165	.237	24.092	.000	.312
Cost	-1.869	.275	46.231	.000	.154
Safe environment	.734	.244	9.026	.003	2.083
Helping others (collectivism)	-1.181	.280	17.841	.000	.307
Family relationship (collectivism)	.459	.162	8.003	.005	1.582
Inequalities and hierarchy (power distance)	-.631	.210	9.015	.003	.532
Educational level	2.376	.359	43.937	.000	10.767
Constant values	5.332	1.569	11.548	.001	-
Goodness-of-Fit					
Hosmer & Lemeshow Test: 8.301 (p = 0.405)					
Omnibus Test: 215.372 (p = 0.000)					

4.9.2 Evaluation of Binary Logistic Regression Model

The recommended test for overall fit of a binary logistic regression model is the Hosmer and Lemeshow test, also called the chi-square test. This test is considered more robust than the traditional chi-square test, particularly if continuous covariates are in the model. For the Hosmer and Lemeshow Goodness of Fit Test, poor fit is indicated by a significance value less than .05, so to support a model, a value greater than .05 is needed. Table 4.34 shows that the chi-square value for the Hosmer and Lemeshow Test is 8.301 with a significance level of .405. This value is greater than .05, which demonstrates a support for the model.

The Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients provides an overall indication of how well the model performs, over and above the results obtained for Block 0,

with none of the predictors entered into the model. Hence, it tests if the model with the predictors is significantly different from the model with only the intercept. The omnibus test may be interpreted as a test of the capability of all predictors in the model jointly to predict the dependent variable. For this set of results a highly significance level is needed (the significance level should be less than .05) as a finding of significance corresponds to a research conclusion that there is adequate fit of the data to the model, indicating that at least one of the predictors is significantly related to the dependent variable. As shown in Table 4.34, the significant value is 0.000 (which really means $p < 0.05$) and the chi-square value is 215.372, demonstrating that the model fits well.

The Model Summary gives another piece of information about the usefulness of the model. The Cox & Snell R Square and the Nagelkerke R Square values provide an indication of the amount of variation in the dependent variable explained by the model. The findings illustrate that, the two values are .399 and .543, which suggest between 39.9 percent and 54.3 percent of the variability is explained by this set of variables (see Table 4 in Appendix B).

It is also important to consider the Classification Table as it provides an indication of how well the model is able to predict the category (which factor contributes in choosing/not choosing the destination) for each case. It is done by comparing classification table block 1 with the classification table shown for block 0, to see how much improvement there is when the independent variables

are included in the model. The model correctly classified 81.8 percent of cases overall, an improvement over the 62.2 percent in Block 0 which indicates roughly 20 percent improvement in the model (see Table 5 and Table 6 in Appendix B).

4.10 Hypotheses Testing

The combination of the findings provides the basis for supporting or not supporting the research hypotheses. Table 4.35 provides a summary of the results of the tests of the hypothesized associations among push motivations, pull motivations, cultural factors and demographic characteristics of Arab educational tourists traveling to Malaysia.

Table 4.35

Results of the Tests of Research Hypotheses

	Hypothesis Statement	Remarks	Significant Values
H1	There is a relationship between push and pull factors.	Supported	The correlation values ranged from 0.6333 to 0.186
H2.a	Cultural factors are associated with push factors of Arab educational tourists.	Supported	The correlation values ranged from 0.252 to 0.118
H2.b	Cultural factors are associated with pull factors of destination.	Supported	The correlation values ranged from 0.374 to 0.111
H3.a	There are differences in push factors of Arab educational tourists in terms of tourists' gender.	Supported	Escape factor (sig = 0.003)
H3.b	There are differences in push factors of Arab educational tourists in terms of tourists' age.	Supported	Personal reasons factor (sig = 0.008)
H3.c	There are differences in push factors of Arab educational tourists in terms of tourists' marital status.	Supported	Enjoying natural resources factor (sig = 0.021) Personal reasons factor (sig = 0.015) Adventure and excitement factor (sig = 0.004)
H3.d	There are differences in push factors of Arab educational tourists in terms of tourists' educational level.	Not Supported	
H3.e	There are differences in push factors of Arab educational tourists in terms of tourists' income level.	Not Supported	
H4.a	There are differences in pull factors of destination in terms of Arab educational tourists' gender.	Not Supported	
H4.b	There are differences in pull factors of destination in terms of Arab educational tourists' age.	Not Supported	
H4.c	There are differences in pull factors of destination in terms of Arab educational tourists' marital status.	Supported	Cultural and natural attractions factor (sig = 0.007) Country image factor (sig = 0.003) Cost factor (sig = 0.020) Safe environment (sig = 0.005)
H4.d	There are differences in pull factors of destination in terms of Arab educational tourists' educational level.	Supported	Cost factor (sig = 0.027)

H4.e	There are differences in pull factors of destination in terms of Arab educational tourists' income level.	Supported	Cost factor (sig = 0.028)
H5.a	Push factors of Arab educational tourists have an influence on destination choice.	Supported	Knowledge factor (sig = 0.000)
H5.b	Pull factors of destination have an influence on destination choice.	Supported	Social environment factor (sig = 0.000) Country image factor (sig = 0.000) Cultural and natural attractions factor (sig = 0.000) Cost factor (sig = 0.000) Safe environment factor (sig = 0.003)
H6	Cultural factors have an influence on destination choice.	Supported	Helping others factor (collectivism) (sig = 0.000) Family relationship factor (collectivism) (sig = 0.005) Inequalities and hierarchy factor (power distance) (sig = 0.003)
H7a.	The gender of Arab educational tourists has an influence on destination choice.	Not Supported	
H7b.	The age of Arab educational tourists has an influence on destination choice.	Not Supported	
H7c.	The marital status of Arab educational tourists has an influence on destination choice.	Not Supported	
H7d.	The educational level of Arab educational tourists has an influence on destination choice.	Supported	Educational level (sig = 0.000)
H7e.	The income level of Arab educational tourists has an influence on destination choice.	Not Supported	

4.11 Respondents' Suggestions

To enhance the image of Malaysia as a hub of educational tourism, a number of Arab educational tourists suggested by saying that:

- Raising and maintain professional services depend on lifelong learning and the continual development of new skills. This approach should be taken into account as a number of staff in the studied academic institutions are not proficient in English language and public relations.
- Tourism planners should increase the joint programs which include the locals and internationals to enable many educational tourists to strengthen their socialization and acculturation.
- Promotional campaigns, particularly for educational tourism in the Arab countries should be increased. Many Arab educational tourists suggested using media for promoting educational tourism in the Arab world.
- Tour operators in Malaysia should generate the appropriate package tour (especially the destinations that are not easily reached alone) for educational tourists particularly at semester breaks and holidays.
- The number of international students who have their families with them is increased, so there is a need for international schools to be available in all states of Malaysia.
- Offer Letters from all academic institutions in Malaysia should be presented and available all the yearlong.
- As tourism is a succession of service encounters, staff professionalism is most important in all sectors of the tourism industry. There are great

expectations of many Arab tourists due to the rapid, outstanding and successive development in Malaysia. Hence, tourist organizations should make the appropriate training programs for their employees to make sure that high quality services are presented.

- Adopting a low-priced approach for international students who have their families with them in Malaysia is important, as the costs of visiting some tourist attractions are relatively high for some of them. This in turn will reflect a good image of Malaysia among educational tourists.
- International reputation is an undeniable component of today's world-class academic institutions and thus there is a suggestion that financial aid factors included the average gift aid (grants and scholarships, or free money) awarded to foreign students to be increased. This may play an important role in attracting qualified international students and researchers to Malaysia.
- To be able to increase the number of foreign students in Malaysia, it is important to enlarge marketing activity abroad and to increase capacities of foreign language courses in Malaysian higher education sector. Some Arab educational tourists suggested that establishing several international centers for different foreign languages in most states of Malaysia (e.g. English, French, Spanish languages, etc.) would enhance the image of Malaysia as a hub of educational tourism in the region. Such centers may attract many educational tourists to the country.

- Appointing high-qualified international lecturers to enrich the potentials of educational tourism in Malaysia is also a suggestion made by many Arab students.
- Due to their overstay in destination Arab educational tourists suggested establishing more tourism products as well as developing and updating range of products by destination marketers. This will increase repeat visits to the destinations in Malaysia.
- Since Malaysia has a developed infrastructure and a wealth of cultural and natural heritage, there has been a suggestion that upcoming courses and programs could be with much practical contacts.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter recapitulates the findings and arguments mentioned in the previous chapters, and link them to the objectives of this study. It further considers the implications of the research findings, contributions, limitations and recommendations for future studies.

5.2 Summary of Findings and Objectives of the Study

The main objective of this study is to explore the motivations of Arab educational tourism that relate to the push and pull factors. The study determines the nature of the relationship between push and pull factors. It also determines the relationship between Arab culture and tourism motivations. Furthermore, it identifies the differences in motivations of Arab educational tourists according to their demographic factors (gender, age, marital status, educational level and income level). Finally, it identifies the influence of Arab educational tourists' motivations, Arab culture and demographic factors on destination choice. The following sections will discuss the objectives and findings of the study in details.

The first research objective was to determine the push and pull motivations that drive Arab educational tourists to Malaysia. This study found

that Arab educational tourists are motivated to travel to Malaysia for educational tourism by both push and pull factors. A summary of these findings are listed below.

Regarding push motivations, factor analysis identified five push motivation factors (Enjoying natural resources, Personal reasons, Escape, Knowledge, Adventure and excitement). The results indicate that these push factors are crucial for Arab educational tourists. With respect to pull motivations, factor analysis identified six pull motivation factors (Cultural and natural attractions, Country image, Cost, Knowledge and awareness, Social environment, Safe environment). These findings illustrate that these pull factors are very important for Arab educational tourists.

The second research objective was to determine the nature of the relationship between push and pull factors. The results of Pearson correlation test revealed that there are significant positive correlations between the majority of push and pull factors. The findings of this study found that the pull factors 'Cultural and natural attractions' and 'Country image' have positive correlations with all the five push factors, 'Enjoying natural resources', 'Personal reasons', 'Escape', 'Knowledge' and 'Adventure and excitement'. Furthermore, the pull factors of 'Knowledge and awareness', 'Cost', 'Social environment' and 'Safe environment' have significant positive correlations with four push factors, 'Enjoying natural resources', 'Personal reasons', 'Knowledge' and 'Adventure and excitement'.

The findings of this study are consistent with the results of previous studies, which found a relationship between push and pull factors (e.g. Bogari et al., 2003; Correia et al., 2007; Kim & Lee, 2000; Kim et al., 2003; Hsieh & Park, 2008; Ng, 2009; Wong, 2008).

The third research objective was to determine the relationship between Arab culture and tourism motivations. The research employed Hofstede's factors of culture to describe the Arab society. A factor analysis of 18 cultural items resulted in six underlying domains: Individualism, Helping others (collectivism), Uncertainty avoidance, Inequalities and hierarchy (power distance), Family relationship (collectivism) and Social interdependence (collectivism).

The results of Pearson correlation analysis technique between cultural factors and push factors found that there are significant correlations between push factors and cultural factors in most factors. The cultural factor of 'Social interdependence' (collectivism) has significant positive correlations with four push factors, 'Enjoying natural resources', 'Personal reasons', 'Knowledge' and 'Adventure and excitement'. The cultural factor of 'Helping others' (collectivism) has a significant positive correlation with three push factors, 'Enjoying natural resources', 'Personal reasons' and 'Knowledge'. The cultural factor of 'Individualism' has significant positive correlations with three push factors, 'Enjoying natural resources', 'Escape' and 'Adventure and excitement'. Significant positive correlations between the cultural factor 'Inequalities and

hierarchy' (power distance) with two push factors 'Personal reasons' and 'Knowledge' are found. Moreover, the cultural factors of 'Uncertainty avoidance' and 'Family relationship' (collectivism) are related positively to one pull factor, 'Personal reasons'.

For pull factors, the present study found significant relationships between the majority of cultural factors and pull factors. Cultural factors of 'Helping others' (collectivism), 'Uncertainty avoidance', 'Inequalities and hierarchy' (power distance), 'Family relationship' (collectivism), and 'Social interdependence' (collectivism) are correlated positively with all pull factors, 'Cultural and natural attractions', 'Cost', 'Country image', 'Knowledge and awareness', 'Social environment' and 'Safe environment'. The cultural factor of 'Individualism' is positively related to one pull factor, 'Cultural and natural attractions'.

The results of this study are in agreement with the findings of prior studies which found a relationship between tourism motivations and cultural factors (e.g. Al-Ghamdi, 2007; Bansal & Eiselt, 2004; Kim & Lee, 2000; Kozak, 2002; Sakakida et al., 2004).

The fourth research objective was to identify the differences of Arab educational tourists' motivations according to their demographic factors (gender, age, marital status, educational level and income level). The analysis of

differences in educational tourists' motivations for different demographic factors revealed a number of important differences in both push and pull factors.

The results of this study found that the gender of the respondents has an effect on only one pull factor, 'Escape'. In relation to tourists' age, the results showed that the age of tourists has an effect on one push factor, 'Personal reasons'. Moreover, the findings of this study found that the marital status of the Arab educational tourists has an effect on three push factors, 'Enjoying natural resources', 'Personal reasons' and 'Adventure and excitement' as well as on four pull factors, 'Cultural and natural attractions', 'Country image', 'Cost' and 'Safe environment'. With regard to the education and income of tourists, the results of the study found that the educational level and income level of Arab educational tourists have an effect on only one pull factor, 'Cost'.

The findings of this study are consistent with the results of previous studies which found that demographic factors of tourists have an effect on tourism motivations (e.g. Bogari, 2002; Jo'nsson & Devonish, 2008; Kim et al., 2003; Mok & Armstrong, 1995; Ng, 2009).

The fifth research objective was to identify the influence of Arab educational tourists' motivations, cultural factors and demographic factors of Arab educational tourists on destination choice 'Malaysia'. The results of the binary logistic regression test in this study revealed that one push motivation

factor 'Knowledge' and five pull motivation factors, 'Social environment', 'Country image', 'Cultural and natural attractions', 'Cost', 'Safe environment' have a significant influence on destination choice. These results are consistent with the results of previous studies which found that tourism motivations have an influence on destination choice (e.g. Jang & Cai 2002; Jo'nsson & Devonish, 2008; Van der Merwe & Saayman, 2008; Van der Merwe et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2004).

The findings of the binary logistic regression test in this research found three cultural factors, 'Helping others' (collectivism), 'Family relationship' (collectivism) and 'Inequalities and hierarchy' (power distance) have a significant effect on destination choice. These results are in agreement with prior studies which found that cultural factors have an influence on destination choice (e.g. Al-Ghamdi, 2007; Bogari, 2002).

This study also found that one demographic factor, 'Educational level' has an influence on destination choice. The findings of this research confirmed the results of previous studies which found that demographic factors have an influence on destination choice (e.g. Bogari, 2002; Metwally, 2004; Oum & Lemire, 1991).

5.3 Implications

This study provides an insight of the motivations that drive Arab educational tourists to Malaysia and addresses how these motivations are affected by cultural and demographic factors. It further explains how tourism motivations, cultural factors and demographic factors have an influence on the choice of a destination.

Tourism motivation is one of the most important fields of tourism research. Studying tourism motivation is not an easy task partly due to the complex nature of tourist behavior. Understanding tourist motivations to engage in specific activities or to go to certain places assist in producing new tourist products, targeting new consumers and generating new businesses.

Knowledge of people's travel motivations and its association with destination choice plays a key role in predicting future travel patterns and opens a window of opportunity for destination marketers to develop proper marketing strategies and tactics. Hence, tourism marketers need to understand what drive people to undertake certain kinds of travel if they want to increase the number of visitors. Tourist organizations interested in developing or expanding their market benefit from understanding the decisive tourism motivations of their customers. As such an understanding offers a better explanation of the motives behind tourists' behavior and thus allows tourist organizations to expect tourists' actions which will enable destination marketers to tailor their products more closely to their customers' needs.

The findings of this study found that the Arab educational tourists traveling to Malaysia are motivated by various motivations which are 'Enjoying natural resources', 'Escape', 'Personal reasons', 'Knowledge', 'Adventure and excitement', 'Cost', 'Knowledge and awareness', 'Safe environment', 'Country image', 'Cultural and natural attractions', and 'Social environment'. These findings can help Malaysia Education Promotion Centers meet the needs and wants of many current and potential Arab educational tourists. Moreover, these findings are specifically crucial for the promotion centers in Dubai and Jeddah to design effective promotional campaigns in the Arab countries.

This study found that 38.9 percent of respondents perceived Langkawi as the best destination in Malaysia while the capital Kuala Lumpur came second with 15.6 percent, 11.8 percent preferred Penang, 10.4 percent favored Gentling Highlands, 7.1 percent stated that Melaka was Malaysia best destination and 6.8 percent of respondents considered Cameron Highlands as the best place to visit in Malaysia (see Table 11 in Appendix B). Consequently, creating and arranging tourism programs that shed the light on the attributes of Langkawi and Kuala Lumpur as preferable destinations for Arab educational tourists are highly advisable.

Since a good number of Arab educational tourists do consider the 'Escape' factor as important, Malaysia should reflect on that in developing its tourism attraction plans. This might be related to the disputes, political instability, stress

that prevail in several places in the Arab countries, and to the routine which creates the need to spend a special time in a different place and enjoy the excitement of a change. Add to that, the nature of the social environment of the Arab world which is considered as quite closed and strict. Although there are a number of people who are satisfied with such an environment, still they appreciate a glimpse of freedom, where they are allowed to act freely and comfortably without the worries of being watched or criticized by others. Malaysia is a large, safe and stable country where many places that fit in this category are available whereby it could satisfy the desire to escape for many Arab tourists.

The findings of the study showed that Arab educational tourists perceived the 'Knowledge and awareness' factor as an important pull motivation factor. This study found that 66.7 percent of respondents knew about educational tourism in Malaysia from their friends, 51.1 percent from the internet, and 20.9 percent from their family, indicating that the role of several other sources of information in promoting Malaysia as an educational tourism destination in the Arab countries are quite insufficient.

Moreover, the present study found that only 12.2 percent of Arab educational tourists in Malaysia were attracted by Education/Tourism Fair; however, Malaysia (Ministry of Tourism & Ministry of Higher Education)

focused heavily on this source of information to promote Malaysia in the Arab world (see Table12 in Appendix B).

Effective and efficient promotional campaigns should be done to ensure that the required knowledge about Malaysia educational tourism in the Arab countries is presented. Malaysia has a broad range of high-quality yet affordable educational programs that are recognized internationally. Arab educational tourists should know about these high standard of services offered in educational tourism sector in Malaysia along with its consecutive achievements in different fields which may reflect a good image of Malaysia. This in turn may contribute in increasing the number of Arab tourists to the country.

To attract more Arab educational tourists, it is important to use the right time and tool for such promotional campaigns. It is worth mentioning that media may be considered as one of the most effective sources of information in the Arab countries. It is highly advisable that such promotional campaigns to be promoted on TV channels, which are being watched, by great number of viewers like Aljazeera news channel. According to Conte (2008), this network reaches an average audience of 50 million viewers and with very high percentages in all the Arab countries. Moreover, July and August may be the appropriate time for making such promotional campaigns for educational tourism in the Arab world.

The findings of this study also revealed that 46.9 percent of respondents were financed by their families where scholarships from governments held second presenting 28.1 percent of the sample (see Table 13 in Appendix B). This indicates that the focus of Malaysian tourism policy-makers should be expanded from making agreements with Arab governments to promoting educational tourism to the Arab families. Hence, promotional schemes need to be more family oriented as the Arab society, in general, tends to be collective (Dwairy et al., 2006) where decisions are taken by a group of family members.

The results of this study suggested that tourism motivations are related to different Arab cultural factors. Therefore, tourist organizations in Malaysia should take into account the cultural values of Arab tourists as this may develop better communications and interactions with them in various activities designed for tourists in Malaysian destinations. This in turn may lead to the satisfaction of Arab tourists which make them revisit Malaysian destinations.

To develop a potential market, it is important to develop suitable promotion and planning to create effective positioning strategies that raise tourists' awareness of the attributes of the destination country. This indicates that when Malaysia Ministry of Tourism and Ministry of Higher Education design promotional campaigns to attract Arab educational tourists to the country, they had better pay full attention to all five broad sectors of a destination namely, attractions, transport, accommodation, facilities and infrastructure. This will

minimize possible worries of prospective Arab educational tourists and may play a key role in attracting them to Malaysia.

The results of the study found that the 'Family relationship' factor has an influence on destination choice. Arabs are habitually like to be in a group as they depend on others or expect others to rely on them. In this regard, increasing the cultural and social activities for Arab educational tourists and creating new places that could reflect the family environment are important. As such sense of togetherness will provide Arab educational tourists with the needed social warmth that may assuage their discomfort of possible cultural shock or homesickness. Furthermore, this will reflect a positive word-of-mouth about Malaysia and its educational tourism services whereby it could be a good approach for increasing the number of Arab educational tourists in the country.

Additionally, this study found that 71.9 percent of the respondents are intended to revisit Malaysia within the next five years. This percentage is very high, so tourism policy-makers along with tourist organizations in Malaysia should take this result into consideration (see Table 14 in Appendix B). Consequently, a strong relationship between government, local authorities, private agencies, tour operators, travel agents should be fostered to ensure that Arab educational tourists' needs are fulfilled. All these bodies should support one other to improve all types of services provided to Arab educational tourists in order to

enhance their satisfaction and maintain their intentions to repeat visits to Malaysia.

One of numerous procedures that may increase the number of Arab tourists as a whole is to establish alumni associations in each country of the Arab world as friends, family and word-of-mouth are effective components in the Arab culture especially in travel decisions. This study also found that 73.6 percent of the respondents would recommend Malaysia as a hub of educational tourism (see Table 15 in Appendix B). Therefore, it is not difficult to find alumni willing to assist Malaysia in establishing successful alumni associations which help Malaysia instill a positive image of the country among Arabs thereby meet its target numbers of Arab tourists.

5.4 Contributions of the Study

This study has made several important contributions to the existing literature on tourism motivation. More specifically, it addresses the motivations of Arab educational tourists and provides generalized discussions of educational tourism market.

Firstly, this research contributes to the literature of tourism motivation, using push and pull factors, by investigating the unique context of the Arab countries. Most previous literature studied the tourism motivations of outbound

tourism in non-Muslim countries while this research focused on Muslim countries.

The second most important contribution to the literature relates to an investigation of the Arab educational tourism market as the researcher is not aware of any research paper or dissertation that discusses the motivations of Arab educational tourism.

Previous research investigated the effect of demographic factors on tourism motivations in different countries and cultural context while the studies that determined the effect of demographic factors on tourism motivations in Muslim countries are limited. Therefore, this study filled this gap and contributed to the literature of tourism motivation by investigating the effect of demographic factors of Arab educational tourists on their tourism motivations.

Throughout previous literature, there has been a lack of attention among the researchers to study the effect of Arab culture on tourism motivations. Therefore, this study filled this gap and contributed to the literature by investigating the effect of Arab culture on tourism motivations.

Moreover, previous studies indentified the influence of tourism motivations, cultural factors and demographic factors separately on destination choice in different countries and cultural context, whereas the studies that looked

on the influence of these factors in the Arabic context are limited. Therefore, this research filled these gaps and contributed to the literature by identifying the influence of Arab culture, demographic factors of Arab educational tourists and tourism motivations of Arab educational tourists on destination choice separately and in combination.

Attracting more Arab educational tourists to Malaysia will generate a variety of positive impacts on the host country generally and its academic institutions specifically. As a result, the contribution of this study not only fill the identified gaps in relation to the motivations of Arab educational tourism, but also provide Malaysia Ministry of Tourism and Ministry of Higher Education with considerable information which may enable them to work out an effective strategy to attract more Arab educational tourists to the country.

Finally, this research employs a model developed by the researcher entitled “model of Arab educational tourist motivations” involving a convergence of push and pull factors from both “tourism and education” industries to determine the motivations of Arab educational tourists traveling to Malaysia. This convergence of the push and pull motivation factors is a unique contribution as the researcher has not found any model or framework regarding educational tourism motivations.

The study employs Malaysia as a destination and explicates the model and analytical methods that can be reproduced to other educational tourism motivation studies. Furthermore, this study also offers approaches and analytical methods that can be reproduced and expanded in educational tourism segmentation studies.

5.5 Research Limitations and Recommendations for Future Studies

Academic studies on educational tourism are still scarce. This study has made an important start, but there is long way to go. The main objective of this research is to explore the motivations of Arab educational tourism. Hence, it is recommended that further exploration of the motivations of Arab educational tourists traveling to other destinations and further breaking down the segments of Arab educational tourism market will be useful to advance the knowledge of the Arab educational tourism generally and Arab educational tourists' motivations specifically. Moreover, this study can be replicated in a different country, especially in a Muslim country as there is a lack of tourism motivations research, mainly on educational tourism, in Muslim countries.

This study is exploratory in nature given the fact that is based on data obtained from Arab educational tourists enrolled in seven Malaysian universities. There are no previous academic studies to indicate whether the educational tourists from such academic institutions are representatives of Arab educational tourism market. As a result, it is not easy to confirm if the hypothesized model is

generalizable to Arab educational tourism in general. It is recommended that future studies verify the existence of the model constructs and the structural relationships between the model constructs using data obtained from other Arab educational tourists.

Due to financial constraints, this study was limited to interview only twenty-three Arab students from one university (UUM). It is recommended that future studies make interviews with a good number of Arab educational tourists (40 or more) from different academic institutions in Malaysia. It is also recommended for future studies to sample on larger basis in order to get more representative data on push and pull motivations of educational tourists (different answers might come out) particularly from women as female educational tourists in this study only represent 13.4 percent of the respondents.

To gain more insight into the motivations of the Arab educational tourism market, a more extensive list of motivational items that have not been used in this study could be used in future studies.

The results of this study found that the demographic factors of Arab educational tourists have an effect on tourism motivations. Hence, future research can be done in different Muslim countries to find out whether these factors have an effect on the motivations of educational tourists.

The Arab culture proves to be a factor that has an effect on Arab educational tourists. Therefore, to generalize these findings in Muslim countries, it is recommended that future studies should be done in other Muslim countries. Hofstede's model is used in this study for discussing travel motivations and the implication of Arab societal values. Nevertheless, Hofstede's model has its own limitations as it may be unrealistic in capturing all the factors involved in cultural studies. Future studies may employ other cultural factors like Iverson's (1997) cultural factors which use different items from the ones employed in Hofstede's model and may affect travel behavior of tourists.

The researcher of this study is an Arab educational tourist. Hence, it is recommended that other researchers do future studies regarding the motivations of Arab educational tourism.

The coding of the binary logistic regression test of both the demographic factors (0 and 1) as categorical independent variables and the destination choice (0 and 1) as a dichotomous dependent variable has its impact on the results of the analysis which reveals that only one factor 'Educational level' factor has an influence on the destination choice.

Furthermore, the decisions of Arab educational tourists are affected by tourism motivations, cultural factors and demographic factors, which is why future research in other Muslims countries can be suggested to make these findings more generalized.

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**Appendix A:
Arabic Questionnaire and English Questionnaire**

Arabic Questionnaire



أخي السائح / أختي السائحة

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

أنا أحد الطلاب الفلسطينيين من جامعة أوتارا الماليزية، أدرس للحصول إن شاء الله على درجة الدكتوراة في التسويق السياحي. وأقوم حالياً بدراسة علمية تهدف إلى معرفة دوافع وأسباب سفر السياح التعليميين العرب. وحيث أنكم أحد الطلاب الذين وقع اختيار الدراسة عليهم، فإننا نرجو أن تخصصوا لنا 10 دقائق من وقتكم للإجابة على هذه الإستبانة المرفقة لما في ذلك من أهمية كبيرة في إنجاز هذه الدراسة. الأسئلة المرفقة غاية في السهولة والبساطة لذلك يرجى التعبير عن رأيكم بصراحة وموضوعية وذلك بوضع دائرة حول الإجابة المناسبة.

علماً بأن المعلومات التي يتم الحصول عليها ستعامل بسرية تامة وستستخدم للأغراض الإحصائية وأغراض البحث العلمي فقط.

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الجزء الأول (أسباب السفر)

أ) الجمل التالية ربما تفسر أسباب سفرك للسياحة التعليمية في ماليزيا ، الرجاء تحديد مدى موافقتك أو عدم موافقتك على هذه الجمل وذلك بوضع دائرة على الإجابة المناسبة كما هو موضح في المثال التالي:
مثال : لو كنت توافق بشدة على العبارة التالية (أحد أسباب سفري للسياحة التعليمية هو التعرف على ثقافة جديدة) فإن عليك القيام بإحاطة العدد 5 بدائرة حسب التوضيح التالي :

أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق على الإطلاق	العبارة
5	4	3	2	1	أحد أسباب سفري للسياحة التعليمية هو التعرف على ثقافة جديدة

5	4	3	2	1	1 مشاهدة وتجربة المناطق السياحية الأجنبية أحد أسباب سفري .
5	4	3	2	1	2 الرغبة في تعلم أشياء جديدة و زيادة المعرفة دفعني للسفر .
5	4	3	2	1	3 دراسة برنامجي/ تخصصي في الخارج أفضل من دراسته في بلدي .
5	4	3	2	1	4 تحسين حياتي المهنية دافع مهم يدفعني للسفر .
5	4	3	2	1	5 الحصول على وظيفة في المستقبل أحد أسباب سفري .
5	4	3	2	1	6 العيش في ثقافة مختلفة مهم بالنسبة لي .
5	4	3	2	1	7 تحسين مهاراتي اللغوية من أسباب سفري للسياحة التعليمية.
5	4	3	2	1	8 أحد أسباب سفري للسياحة التعليمية هو إكتساب مكانة عالية وهيبه في مجتمعي.
5	4	3	2	1	9 البرنامج/ التخصص الذي أريد غير متوفر في بلدي مما دفعني للسفر لماليزيا .
5	4	3	2	1	10 العائلة أو الأصدقاء أو الأساتذة نصحوني بالسفر لماليزيا.
5	4	3	2	1	11 الرغبة في مقابلة أناس جدد دافع مهم يدفعني للسفر .
5	4	3	2	1	12 البحث عن المغامرة أحد أسباب سفري
5	4	3	2	1	13 البحث عن الإثارة أحد الدوافع لسفري لماليزيا .
5	4	3	2	1	14 الهروب من ضغط العمل دفعني للسفر
5	4	3	2	1	15 أفضل السفر للسياحة التعليمية وذلك للإبتعاد عن متطلبات المنزل اليومية.
5	4	3	2	1	16 الهروب من الحياة العادية (الروتين) دفعني للسفر .

5	4	3	2	1	الهروب من بيئة سياسية غير مستقرة/ غير آمنة دافع مهم لسفري للخارج.	17
5	4	3	2	1	قضاء وقتنا "ممتعاً" ومسلية"يفسر لماذا أنا أفضل السفر .	18
5	4	3	2	1	رؤية المناظر الطبيعية الخلابة تدفعني للسفر لماليزيا.	19
5	4	3	2	1	مشاهدة الحياة البرية مهم بالنسبة لي .	20
5	4	3	2	1	الطقس المعتدل مهم بالنسبة لي.	21
5	4	3	2	1	التمتع بالمناطق الريفية أحد أسباب سفري.	22
5	4	3	2	1	زيارة الحدائق العامة والمنتزهات مهم بالنسبة لي .	23

ب) الجمل التالية ربما توضح عوامل الجذب السياحي التي تجذبك للسياحة التعليمية ، الرجاء تحديد مدى موافقتك أو عدم موافقتك على هذه الجمل وذلك بوضع دائرة على الإجابة المناسبة.

أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق على الإطلاق	العبارات	
5	4	3	2	1	سهولة الحصول على معلومات عن الدولة المضيفة يجذبني للسفر لها.	1
5	4	3	2	1	أحد العوامل التي تجذبني للسياحة التعليمية هي مدى معرفة و شهرة الدولة المضيفة في بلدي.	2
5	4	3	2	1	جودة التعليم في الدولة المضيفة مهم بالنسبة لي.	3
5	4	3	2	1	أحد أسباب جذبني للسياحة التعليمية في ماليزيا هو أن شهاداتها معترف بها في بلدي.	4
5	4	3	2	1	البعد الثقافي (ماليزيا دولة إسلامية) يجذبني كسائح تعليمي.	5
5	4	3	2	1	البيئة متعددة الثقافات في ماليزيا تجذبني .	6
5	4	3	2	1	مستوى التطور المرتفع في ماليزيا يجذبني .	7
5	4	3	2	1	أفضل السفر للأماكن التي فيها إجراءات الهجرة (فيزا ، إقامة...الخ) سهلة.	8
5	4	3	2	1	إمكانية عمل بحث علمي أو تحسين اللغة الإنجليزية أو الحصول على درجة علمية في فترة قصيرة يجذبني للسفر للخارج.	9
5	4	3	2	1	فرصة العمل أثناء إقامتي كسائح تعليمي مهمة بالنسبة لي .	10
5	4	3	2	1	السمعة الإجتماعية لماليزيا جذبني .	11
5	4	3	2	1	عند إختياري بلد للسياحة التعليمية فإن من المهم أن تكون وسائل المواصلات العامة مريحة.	12

5	4	3	2	1	البلد الذي تنتشر به اللغة الإنجليزية يجذبني.	13
5	4	3	2	1	توفر المستوى الصحي والنظافة عامل مهم بالنسبة لي .	14
5	4	3	2	1	المواقع التاريخية في ماليزيا تجذبني للسفر لها .	15
5	4	3	2	1	الأنشطة والفاعليات الثقافية في ماليزيا تجذبني لها .	16
5	4	3	2	1	الجمال الطبيعي في ماليزيا يجذبني.	17
5	4	3	2	1	الدولة التي توفر طعام حلال ومتنوع تجذبني للسفر لها .	18
5	4	3	2	1	أفضل السفر حيث الحياة الليلية الصاخبة والتسلية متوفرة .	19
5	4	3	2	1	أفضل السفر إلى المناطق التي تتوفر بها نشاطات في الهواء الطلق.	20
5	4	3	2	1	الشعب المحلي الودود يجذبني للسفر.	21
5	4	3	2	1	تكلفة المعيشة المنخفضة شئ مهم بالنسبة لي.	22
5	4	3	2	1	توفر وتكلفة النقل العام شئ مهم بالنسبة لي.	23
5	4	3	2	1	رسوم المؤسسات الأكاديمية والبحث العلمي المنخفضة في ماليزيا تجذبني.	24
5	4	3	2	1	أفضل السفر للسياحة التعليمية في ماليزيا حيث تتوفر البيئة الآمنة.	25
5	4	3	2	1	أفضل السفر إلى الأماكن التي بها التمييز العنصري منخفض .	26
5	4	3	2	1	وجود عدد من السياح التعليميين الدوليين مهم بالنسبة لي.	27
5	4	3	2	1	متطلبات الحصول على القبول من المؤسسات الأكاديمية في ماليزيا تجذبني .	28

الجزء الثاني (العوامل الثقافية)

الجملة التالية ربما تصف ثقافة المجتمع العربي. الرجاء تحديد مدى موافقتك أو عدم موافقتك على هذه الجملة بوضع دائرة على الإجابة المناسبة.

أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق على الإطلاق	العبارات	
5	4	3	2	1	الشخص يعمل بشكل أفضل في المجموعة أكثر منه عندما يعمل منفرداً	1
5	4	3	2	1	عندما يواجه الشخص مشكلة شخصية صعبة، يستشير أصدقاءه وأقرباءه على نحو واسع .	2
5	4	3	2	1	أحب أن أعيش قريباً من أصدقائي .	3

5	4	3	2	1	4 أنا أساعد حسب إمكانياتي إذا كان أحد أقربائي يعاني من صعوبات مالية .
5	4	3	2	1	5 إن الشيء الأكثر أهمية في حياتي هو أن أجعل نفسي سعيداً .
5	4	3	2	1	6 الأباء الكبار في السن يجب أن يعيشوا في البيت مع أبنائهم .
5	4	3	2	1	7 الأبناء يجب أن يعيشوا في البيت مع الأباء حتى يتزوجوا .
5	4	3	2	1	8 عندما تواجه مشاكل شخصية صعبة، من الأفضل أن تقرر ماذا يجب أن تعمل بنفسك بدلاً من اتباع نصائح الآخرين .
5	4	3	2	1	9 أنا أعمل على علاج مشاكل الشخصية بمفردتي بدلاً من مناقشتها مع أصدقائي .
5	4	3	2	1	10 الشخص يجب أن يعيش بشكل مستقل عن الآخرين قدر المستطاع .
5	4	3	2	1	11 أنا لا أهتم بنظرة الشعوب الأخرى إلى بلدي .
5	4	3	2	1	12 يجب التقليل من التفرقة الإجتماعية بين الناس .
5	4	3	2	1	13 الطبقة شئ موجود في المجتمع العربي .
5	4	3	2	1	14 يجب إتباع قوانين المجتمع حتى ولو اعتقدت أن مصلحة المجتمع في تجاوزي لهذه القوانين .
5	4	3	2	1	15 من المهم لي العمل في وظيفة مسؤولياتها وواجباتها واضحة .
5	4	3	2	1	16 من المهم جداً أن يكون لي وظيفة آمنة على المدى البعيد .
5	4	3	2	1	17 التسامح واجب في حالة اختلاف الآراء مع الآخرين .
5	4	3	2	1	18 في المجتمع العربي يوجد قوانين صريحة وواضحة يجب الإلتزام بها .

الجزء الثالث (اختيار المكان)

هل العوامل السابقة كان لها تأثير رئيسي في إختيارك ماليزيا ؟

 لا

 نعم

الجزء الرابع (معلومات عامة)

الرجاء الإجابة على الأسئلة التالية ووضع علامة (√) في المربع المناسب :

1. الجنس : ذكر أنثى
2. الحالة الإجتماعية : أعزب متزوج مطلق/أرمل
3. العمر : أقل من 25 عاماً 25-34 35-44 45 عاماً أو أكثر
4. المستوى التعليمي الحاصل عليه : ثانوية عامة دبلوم بكالوريوس دراسات عليا
5. كم هو دخلك الشهري تقريباً ؟
أقل من \$200 أمريكي \$200 - \$500 أمريكي
\$501 - \$1000 أمريكي أكثر من \$1001 أمريكي

6. من أين حصلت على معلومات عن السياحة التعليمية في ماليزيا ؟ عن طريق ... (ممكن وضع (√) علي أكثر من إجابة)

- أ) الإنترنت ب) مواقع ماليزيا على النت ج) معارض للسياحة/التعليم د) الأصدقاء
هـ) العائلة و) السفارة/مكاتب سياحية ز) الإعلام (الصحف، الكتيبات، التلفاز.. الخ)
ح) الإشاعة ط) أخرى

7. كيف تمول دراستك في ماليزيا ؟

- منحة قرض كفالة شركة/مؤسسة مال مدخر العائلة أخرى

8. كم هي الفترة التي قضيتها في ماليزيا لغاية الآن ؟

- أقل من إسبوعين إسبوعين - 6 شهور 6-12 شهراً 12 شهراً أو أكثر

9. متى كان موعد وصولك إلى ماليزيا آخر مرة ؟ شهر (.....) سنة (.....)

10. ما هو المكان السياحي المفضل لديك في ماليزيا ؟

- كوالالمبور لينكاوي بينانق ملاكا كامبيرون هايلندز جينتنق هايلندز
كلينتان تيرينقانو باهنق المنتزه الوطني لباهنق ساراواك
صباح

11. هل ستوصي بأن ماليزيا تعتبر مركز للسياحة التعليمية؟

نعم لا

12. بعد إنهاء دراستك ، هل ستزور ماليزيا مرة أخرى خلال الخمس سنوات القادمة؟

نعم لا

13. ماذا تقترح أن تفعل ماليزيا من أجل تحسين صورتها كمركز للسياحة التعليمية؟

- (أ).....
(ب).....
(ج).....
(د).....

تعليق:

شكرا لكم

English Questionnaire



Research Questionnaire

Dear Respondents,

I am a doctoral candidate, doing my PhD in tourism marketing at University Utara Malaysia. The main objective of this study is to explore the motivations of Arab educational tourism.

I would very much appreciate your co-operation in making my research a success. Please spare some of your valuable time to complete this questionnaire. The names of each individual will be kept confidential. Data obtained through this questionnaire will be processed statistically, so there is no need to worry about your privacy being violated. If you have any questions about the questionnaire or would like to see the final results, feel free to contact me at e-mail: mazenrohmy1@hotmail.com or Hp: 017-5654053.

Thank you for participating in this study. Your cooperation may provide important information to Malaysia in its mission to serve the needs of Arab educational tourists. Your kind cooperation will be sincerely appreciated.

Yours Faithfully

Mazen Younis Rohmi (92024)
University Utara Malaysia (UUM)
Hp: 017-5654053
E-mail: mazenrohmy1@hotmail.com

Part One: (Tourism Motivations)

A) The following statements might explain the reasons of your traveling for educational tourism in Malaysia. Please circle the appropriate number that best describes the level of your agreement with each statement. Kindly indicate your response to the statements below using the following scale:

Example: if you strongly agree with the statement that 'to enjoy rural countryside is one of my reasons for traveling' then you would circle number 5 as illustrated below.

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
To enjoy rural countryside is one of my reasons for traveling	5	4	3	2	1

1	Seeing and experiencing a foreign destination is one of my reasons to travel.	5	4	3	2	1
2	The desire to learn new things and increasing knowledge is important for me.	5	4	3	2	1
3	Studying my program /course overseas is better than studying it in my country.	5	4	3	2	1
4	Enhancing my career prospects is an important motive that pushes me to travel.	5	4	3	2	1
5	Future job prospect is one of the motives that drives me to travel.	5	4	3	2	1
6	Living in a different culture is important for me.	5	4	3	2	1
7	Improving my language skills is important for me.	5	4	3	2	1
8	Having an international degree provides me with higher status/ prestige which pushes me to travel.	5	4	3	2	1
9	Course/Program not available at home pushes me to travel.	5	4	3	2	1
10	My family/friends or professors advised me to travel to Malaysia.	5	4	3	2	1
11	Meeting new people is important for me.	5	4	3	2	1
12	Being daring and adventuresome is important for me.	5	4	3	2	1
13	Finding thrills or excitement is considered as one of the motives that drive me to travel.	5	4	3	2	1
14	Having a change from a demanding job pushes me to travel.	5	4	3	2	1
15	I prefer travelling for educational tourism to get away from the demands of home.	5	4	3	2	1
16	Escaping from everyday life (routine) pushes me to travel.	5	4	3	2	1
17	Escaping from unstable political environment is an important motive to travel abroad.	5	4	3	2	1
18	Having fun, being entertained are stimulating reasons why I prefer to travel.	5	4	3	2	1
19	Observing beautiful natural scenery drives me to travel to Malaysia.	5	4	3	2	1

20	Viewing the wildlife is important for me.	5	4	3	2	1
21	To enjoy good weather is one of my motives to travel.	5	4	3	2	1
22	To enjoy rural countryside is important for me.	5	4	3	2	1
23	Visiting national parks/forests is important for me.	5	4	3	2	1

B) The following statements might explain which factors draw you to travel for educational tourism in Malaysia. Please circle the appropriate number that best describes the level of your agreement with each statement.

	Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Easy to obtain information on the host country attracts me.	5	4	3	2	1
2	Knowledge of the host country is important for me.	5	4	3	2	1
3	Quality of education in Malaysia draws me.	5	4	3	2	1
4	It is important for me that the qualifications of Malaysia are recognized by my country.	5	4	3	2	1
5	Cultural distance (Malaysia is a Muslim country) draws me to travel for educational tourism.	5	4	3	2	1
6	Multicultural environment in Malaysia draws me to travel.	5	4	3	2	1
7	High development level in Malaysia attracts me.	5	4	3	2	1
8	I prefer travelling to destinations where immigration procedures (visa, residence...etc.) are easy.	5	4	3	2	1
9	Availability of completing my program/research in a short time attracts me.	5	4	3	2	1
10	Opportunity of working during my stay as an educational tourist is important for me.	5	4	3	2	1
11	Social reputation of Malaysia attracts me.	5	4	3	2	1
12	Comfortable public transportation is important for me when selecting educational tourism destination.	5	4	3	2	1
13	A destination where English is widely spoken attracts me.	5	4	3	2	1
14	A standard of hygiene and cleanliness is important for me when selecting a destination for edu- tourism.	5	4	3	2	1
15	Historical attractions in Malaysia attract me.	5	4	3	2	1
16	Cultural attractions pull me to travel to Malaysia.	5	4	3	2	1
17	Natural scenery in Malaysia attracts me.	5	4	3	2	1
18	Appealing local food is important for me.	5	4	3	2	1

19	I prefer traveling where good night life and entertainment are available.	5	4	3	2	1
20	I prefer traveling to destinations where outdoor activities are available.	5	4	3	2	1
21	Friendly local people attract me to the destination.	5	4	3	2	1
22	I prefer traveling to destinations where the cost of living is cheap.	5	4	3	2	1
23	Lower travel costs are important for me.	5	4	3	2	1
24	Lower fees in Malaysia attract me.	5	4	3	2	1
25	A safe (low crime) environment is important for me when selecting Malaysia for educational tourism	5	4	3	2	1
26	Low racial discrimination in destinations is important for me.	5	4	3	2	1
27	Established population of overseas students is important for me when selecting the destination.	5	4	3	2	1
28	Entry qualifications in Malaysian academic institutions attract me.	5	4	3	2	1

Part Two (Cultural Factors)

The following statements might describe the Arab societal culture. Please indicate the level of your agreement with each statement.

	Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	One does better working in a group than alone.	5	4	3	2	1
2	When faced with a difficult personal problem, one should consult one's friends and relatives widely.	5	4	3	2	1
3	I like to live close to my good friends.	5	4	3	2	1
4	I would help within my means if a relative told me that he or she was in financial difficulties.	5	4	3	2	1
5	The most important thing in my life is to make myself happy.	5	4	3	2	1
6	Aging parents should live at home with their children.	5	4	3	2	1
7	Children should live at home with parents until they get married.	5	4	3	2	1
8	When faced with difficult personal problems, it is better to decide what to do yourself rather than follow the advice of others.	5	4	3	2	1
9	I would struggle through a personal problem by myself rather than discuss it with my friends.	5	4	3	2	1
10	One's should live one's life independently of others as much as possible.	5	4	3	2	1
11	It does not matter to me how my country is viewed in the eyes of other nations.	5	4	3	2	1
12	Inequalities among people should be minimized	5	4	3	2	1

13	Hierarchy is something that exists in our society.	5	4	3	2	1
14	It is very important to follow society's rules even if I think it is in society's best interest if I break the rules.	5	4	3	2	1
15	It is important for me to work in a well-designed job situation where the responsibility and requirements are clear.	5	4	3	2	1
16	It is very important for me to have long term security of employment.	5	4	3	2	1
17	Tolerance of different behaviors and opinions are adhered to rigorously.	5	4	3	2	1
18	Society's rules are very strict and have to be adhered to rigorously.	5	4	3	2	1

Part Three (Destination Choice)

Did the above - mentioned tourism motivations and cultural factors have a main effect on your decision in choosing Malaysia as your educational tourism destination?

Yes NO

Part Four (Demographic Information)

Please respond to the following demographic information items by checking the box (✓) beside your response or by filling in the blank.

1. Gender: Male Female
2. Marital Status: Single Married Divorced/Widowed
3. Age: Under 25 25-34 35-44 45 or over
4. Highest Educational Level Completed :
 Secondary School Certificate/ Diploma
 Bachelor's degree Postgraduate
5. Please indicate your approximate monthly income:
 Less than US \$200 US\$200 - US\$500
 US \$501 - US\$1,000 US\$1,001 and more

6. How did you come to know about edu-tourism in Malaysia? Through.....
 (You may have more (✓) than ONE answer)

Internet	<input type="checkbox"/>	Tourism/Education Fair	<input type="checkbox"/>	Word-of-mouth	<input type="checkbox"/>
Malaysia Websites	<input type="checkbox"/>	Embassy/Tourism office	<input type="checkbox"/>	Media (newspaper, TV, etc)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Friends	<input type="checkbox"/>	Family members	<input type="checkbox"/>	Others	<input type="checkbox"/>

7. How do you finance your study in Malaysia?

Scholarships	<input type="checkbox"/>	Loan	<input type="checkbox"/>	Company sponsorship	<input type="checkbox"/>
Own savings	<input type="checkbox"/>	Family	<input type="checkbox"/>	Others	<input type="checkbox"/>

8. How long have you been in Malaysia?

Less than 2 weeks	<input type="checkbox"/>	2 weeks to 6 months	<input type="checkbox"/>
6 -12 months	<input type="checkbox"/>	12 months +	<input type="checkbox"/>

9. When was your last arrival date to Malaysia? Month (.....) Year (.....)

10. What is your favorite destination in Malaysia? (.....)
 (You may choose ONE of the following places)

Kuala Lumpur	<input type="checkbox"/>	Langkawi	<input type="checkbox"/>	Penang	<input type="checkbox"/>	Pahang	<input type="checkbox"/>
Cameron Highlands	<input type="checkbox"/>	Kelantan	<input type="checkbox"/>	Terengganu	<input type="checkbox"/>	Pahang National Park	<input type="checkbox"/>
Gentling Highlands	<input type="checkbox"/>	Melaka	<input type="checkbox"/>	Sarawak	<input type="checkbox"/>	Sabah	<input type="checkbox"/>

11. Would you recommend Malaysia as a hub of educational tourism?

Yes No

12. After finishing your study, would you visit Malaysia again within five years?

Yes No

13. What are your suggestions for Malaysia in order to enhance its image as a hub of educational tourism?

- a).....
- b).....
- c).....

Comments:

Thank You

**Appendix B:
Analysis Tables and Scree Plot Figures**

Table 1: Total Variance Explained 23 Push Motivational Items

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.259	22.867	22.867	5.259	22.867	22.867
2	3.053	13.274	36.141	3.053	13.274	36.141
3	1.645	7.153	43.294	1.645	7.153	43.294
4	1.490	6.480	49.774	1.490	6.480	49.774
5	1.073	4.664	54.438	1.073	4.664	54.438
6	.996	4.331	58.768			
7	.873	3.797	62.566			
8	.805	3.498	66.064			
9	.766	3.331	69.395			
10	.762	3.315	72.709			
11	.663	2.882	75.591			
12	.639	2.778	78.369			
13	.587	2.551	80.920			
14	.570	2.477	83.397			
15	.537	2.333	85.731			
16	.509	2.214	87.945			
17	.461	2.003	89.948			
18	.450	1.955	91.903			
19	.437	1.898	93.801			
20	.400	1.741	95.541			
21	.375	1.630	97.171			
22	.329	1.431	98.602			
23	.322	1.398	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Figure 1: Results of Scree Test Plot for Push Motivation Factors

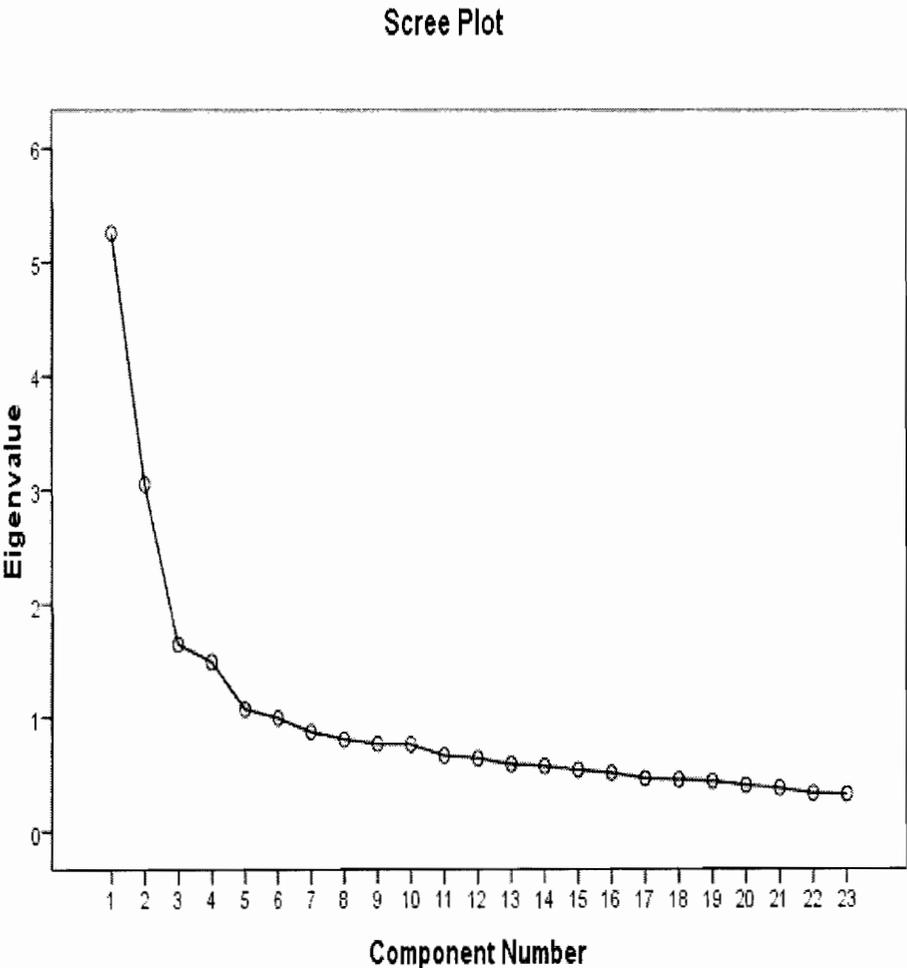


Table 2: Total Variance Explained 28 Pull Motivational Items

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.593	27.118	27.118	7.593	27.118	27.118
2	2.583	9.227	36.345	2.583	9.227	36.345
3	1.786	6.377	42.722	1.786	6.377	42.722
4	1.348	4.815	47.536	1.348	4.815	47.536
5	1.240	4.429	51.966	1.240	4.429	51.966
6	1.179	4.212	56.178	1.179	4.212	56.178
7	.957	3.418	59.596			
8	.900	3.214	62.810			
9	.845	3.016	65.826			
10	.802	2.865	68.692			
11	.757	2.704	71.396			
12	.713	2.548	73.943			
13	.698	2.494	76.438			
14	.656	2.342	78.780			
15	.611	2.183	80.963			
16	.564	2.015	82.977			
17	.535	1.911	84.888			
18	.512	1.828	86.716			
19	.470	1.680	88.396			
20	.455	1.627	90.023			
21	.435	1.552	91.575			
22	.414	1.479	93.054			
23	.383	1.368	94.422			
24	.366	1.308	95.730			
25	.346	1.236	96.966			
26	.308	1.101	98.067			
27	.286	1.022	99.089			
28	.255	.911	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Figure 2: Results of Scree Test Plot for Pull Motivation Factors

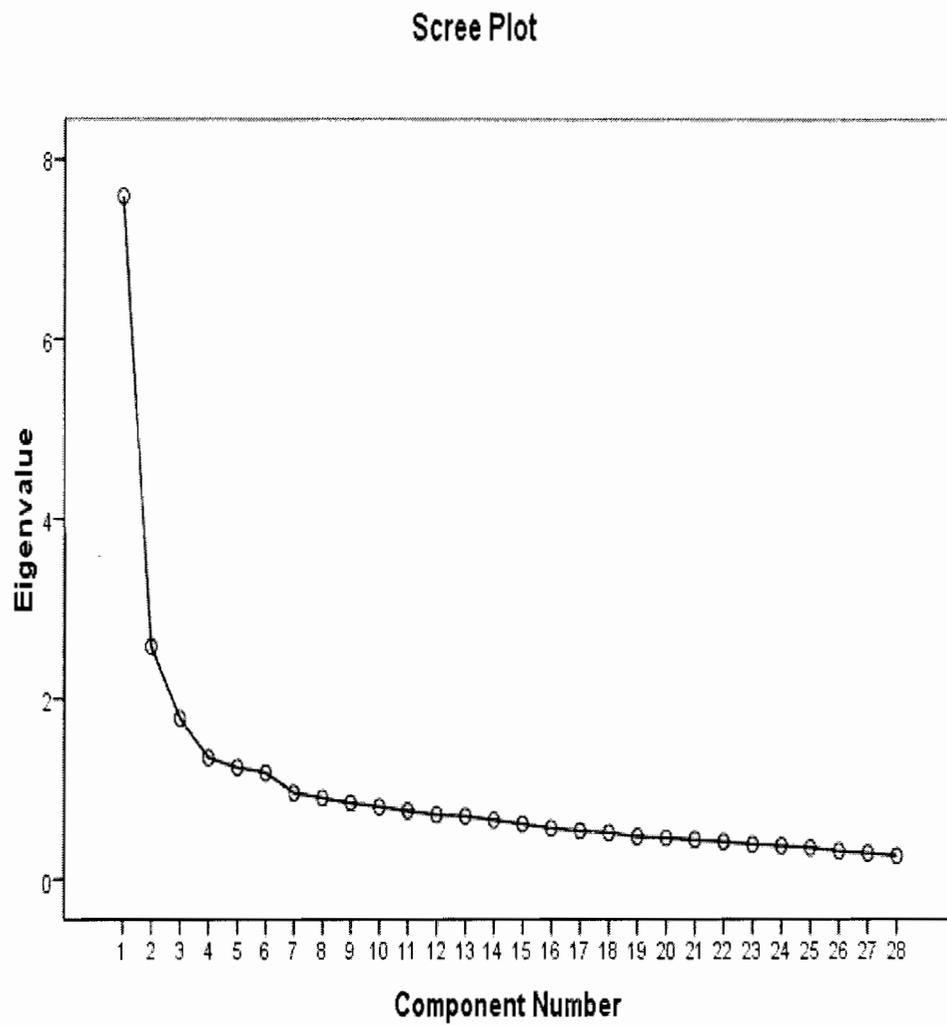


Table 3: Total Variance Explained 18 Cultural Items

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.182	23.235	23.235	4.182	23.235	23.235
2	2.400	13.336	36.571	2.400	13.336	36.571
3	1.472	8.180	44.751	1.472	8.180	44.751
4	1.340	7.446	52.197	1.340	7.446	52.197
5	1.261	7.008	59.205	1.261	7.008	59.205
6	1.109	6.162	65.367	1.109	6.162	65.367
7	.860	4.779	70.145			
8	.776	4.309	74.454			
9	.719	3.997	78.452			
10	.610	3.388	81.840			
11	.542	3.012	84.852			
12	.491	2.726	87.578			
13	.454	2.521	90.100			
14	.421	2.340	92.439			
15	.401	2.227	94.666			
16	.355	1.974	96.640			
17	.323	1.792	98.433			
18	.282	1.567	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Figure 3: Results of Scree Test Plot for Cultural Factors

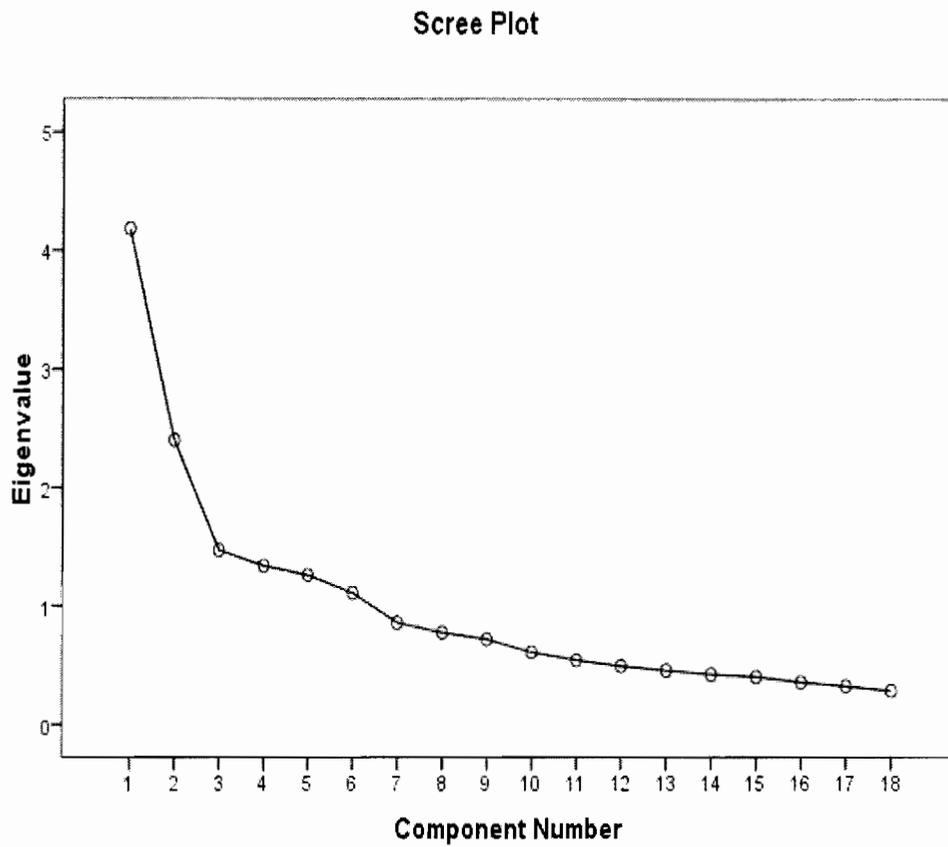


Table 4: The Values of Cox & Snell R Square and the Nagelkerke R Square

Model Summary

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	345.696 ^a	.399	.543

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 6 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Table 5: Classification Table Block 0: Beginning Block

Observed			Predicted		
			Destination Choice (Malaysia)		Percentage Correct
			no	yes	
Step 0	Destination Choice (Malaysia)	no	0	160	.0
		yes	0	263	100.0
		Overall Percentage			62.2

Table 6: Classification Table Block 1: Method = Enter

Observed			Predicted		
			Destination Choice (Malaysia)		Percentage Correct
			no	yes	
Step 1	Destination Choice (Malaysia)	no	116	44	72.5
		yes	33	230	87.5
		Overall Percentage			81.8

Table 7: Results of the Binary Logistic Regression on Push Motivation Factors

		<i>B</i>	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1 ^a	Mknowledge	.394	.183	4.624	1	.032	1.482
	MpersonalR	-.455	.161	7.984	1	.005	.634
	Mescape	-.012	.117	.011	1	.918	.988
	Mnature	-.475	.163	8.483	1	.004	.622
	Madventure	.093	.137	.460	1	.498	1.097
	Constant	1.886	.886	4.528	1	.033	6.594

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Mknowledge, MpersonalR, Mescape, Mnature, Madventure.

Table 8: Results of the Binary Logistic Regression on Pull Motivation Factors

		<i>B</i>	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1 ^a	Mawareness	-.302	.239	1.602	1	.206	.739
	MSE	-.775	.200	15.005	1	.000	.460
	MCimage	1.792	.265	45.644	1	.000	6.003
	MCulturNatur	-.856	.198	18.640	1	.000	.425
	MCost	-1.597	.234	46.610	1	.000	.202
	MSafeE	.425	.198	4.609	1	.032	1.530
	Constant	5.536	1.025	29.188	1	.000	253.544

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Mawareness, MSE, MCimage, MCulturNatur, MCost, MSafeE.

Table 9: Results of the Binary Logistic Regression on Cultural Factors

		<i>B</i>	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1 ^a	MSocial	-.010	.139	.005	1	.943	.990
	MHelp	-.882	.227	15.074	1	.000	.414
	MFamilyR	.245	.118	4.328	1	.037	1.278
	MIndividualism	-.331	.107	9.549	1	.002	.718
	MInequalitiesH	-.374	.148	6.340	1	.012	.688
	MUncertaintyA	.308	.184	2.804	1	.094	1.361
	Constant	4.704	1.094	18.473	1	.000	110.387

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: MSocial, MHelp, MFamilyR, MIndividualism, MInequalitiesH, MUncertaintyA.

Table 10: Results of the Binary Logistic Regression on Demographic Factors

		<i>B</i>	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1 ^a	Gender_LR(1)	.441	.308	2.053	1	.152	1.554
	MaritalStatus_LR(1)	.489	.278	3.104	1	.078	1.631
	Age_LR(1)	-.230	.542	.180	1	.671	.795
	Education_LR(1)	1.653	.289	32.737	1	.000	5.222
	Income_LR(1)	.192	.276	.482	1	.487	1.211
	Constant	-.453	.292	2.400	1	.121	.636

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Gender_LR, MaritalStatus_LR, Age_LR, Education_LR, Income_LR.

Table 11: Tourist's Best Destination

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid KL	66	15.6	15.6	15.6
Langkawi	165	38.9	38.9	54.5
Penang	50	11.8	11.8	66.3
Melaka	30	7.1	7.1	73.3
Cameron Highlands	29	6.8	6.8	80.2
Genting Highlands	44	10.4	10.4	90.6
Kelantan	5	1.2	1.2	91.7
Terengganu	15	3.5	3.5	95.3
Pahang	4	.9	.9	96.2
Sarawak	7	1.7	1.7	97.9
Sabah	9	2.1	2.1	100.0
Total	424	100.0	100.0	

Table 12: Sources of Information about Edu-tourism in Malaysia

	The Internet	Malaysia Websites	Education/ Tourism Fair	Friends	Family	Embassy/ Tourism Offices	Media	Word - of - mouth	Others
Number	217	83	52	283	89	65	2	53	25
Total	424	424	424	424	424	424	424	424	424
Percent	51.1%	19.5%	12.2%	66.7%	20.9%	15.3%	0.47%	12.5%	5.8%

Table 13: Finance Study

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid scholarship	119	28.1	28.1	28.1
loan	5	1.2	1.2	29.2
company sponsorship	11	2.6	2.6	31.8
own savings	73	17.2	17.2	49.1
family	199	46.9	46.9	96.0
others	17	4.0	4.0	100.0
Total	424	100.0	100.0	

Table 14: Revisit Malaysia in 5years

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid no	119	28.1	28.1	28.1
yes	305	71.9	71.9	100.0
Total	424	100.0	100.0	

Table 15: Recommend Malaysia as a Hub of Educational Tourism

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid no	112	26.4	26.4	26.4
yes	312	73.6	73.6	100.0
Total	424	100.0	100.0	

**Appendix C:
The Questions and Analysis Tables of the Interviews**

Questions for the Interviews

Section 1: Demographic Information

Are you single or married?
How old are you?
What is your educational level attained?
What is your monthly income?

Section 2: Tourism Motivations

What are the reasons that push you to travel for educational tourism in Malaysia?
Do you have some other reasons for traveling?
What is the attraction that influences your decision to travel to Malaysia or what factors pull you to Malaysia?

Section 3: Cultural Factors

Before asking this question, I would explain to the respondent the meaning of uncertainty avoidance, power distance, collectivism and individualism. Then I would proceed with the questions. If the respondents' answers were yes in any of the questions, I would ask why.

1. Could you please describe Arab society, in relation to the power distance?
2. Could you please describe Arab society, in relation to the uncertainty avoidance?
3. Could you please describe Arab society, in relation to the individualism and collectivism?

Note: these are only the main questions which have been asked by the researcher. Very specific questions have been asked to interviewees as well. Several questions were also asked in a response to what has been said by the interviewee.

Analysis Tables of the Interviews

Table1: Push Motivations of Arab Educational Tourists (Interviews)

Participants	Push Motivations				
	Escape	Personal reasons	Enjoying natural resources	Knowledge	Adventure and excitement
Participant1	Escape from unsafe environment	Enhancing my career prospects	-	Overseas course better than local	Get in touch with different people
Participant2	-	Having higher status in my society	Enjoying the beautiful natural scenery	Increase knowledge and experience other places.	Meeting new people from different nationalities
Participant3	Having a change from a busy job	enhancing my career prospects	-	Studying my program in Malaysia better	-
Participant4	-	Future job prospect	Enjoying outstanding nature	-	Finding adventurous activities
Participant5	-	Improving my language skills.	Enjoying the beautiful nature	-	-
Participant6	-	Enhancing my career prospects.	-	-	Meeting new people
Participant7	-	enhancing my career prospects	Enjoying nice weather	-	Meeting new people
Participant8	-	Future job prospect	-	Increase my knowledge	-
Participant9	Escape from unsafe environment	Future job prospect.	-	Experience a new destination	-
Participant10	Escape from unstable environment	Future job prospect.	-	Overseas course better than local	Enjoying adventurous activities

Table 2: Pull Motivations of Arab Educational Tourists (Interviews)

Participants	Pull Motivations			
	Knowledge and awareness	Country image	Cultural and natural attractions	Cost
Participant1	Quality of education	High development level.	-	-
Participant2	Knowledge of the host country	Multicultural environment	Natural landscape	Low costs
Participant3	Qualifications of host county are recognized.	Immigration procedures	Cultural activities	Low expenses
Participant4	Quality of education	Social reputation	Outdoor activities	Low costs
Participant5	Quality of education	English is widely spoken	Local <i>Halal</i> food.	-
Participant6	Knowledge of the host country	Social reputation	Festivals	-
Participant7	Quality of education	High development level	Outdoor activities	-
Participant8	Quality of education	High development level	Cultural attractions	Low costs
Participant9	Knowledge of the host country	Immigration procedures	Monuments	Low costs
Participant10	Knowledge of the host country	Social reputation	-	Low costs

Table 3: Cultural Factors (Interviews)

Participants	Cultural Factors		
	Power distance	Uncertainty avoidance	Individualism and Collectivism
Participant1	Inequalities exist in the society and it is totally unacceptable.	Strict rules are applied in our society.	We help each other if someone needs our support.
Participant2	There are inequalities in my society especially in job opportunities.	People prefer situations where everything is clear.	The relationship between families and the community is good
Participant3	There is a power distance in our society.	People do not like ambiguous situations.	People like to help each other.
Participant4	There is inequality in the Arab society especially between rich and poor.	It is important for many citizens to work in well-organized employment.	Most people like to live together
Participant5	Inequality widens the gap between the different social layers in my country	It is preferable to have clear objectives, no matter how difficult the conditions are.	Our society is a collectivist where tribe is the centre of all walks of life.
Participant6	Unfortunately, there is no equality in the society.	Most people try to avoid unclear or complex situations	Generally the society is a collectivist one.
Participant7	Hierarchy exists in almost everywhere in family, work, school and so on	Rules must be clear and viable in all aspects of life.	There is respect for elders from all family. Important decisions are always theirs
Participant8	Inequality in our society makes many people want to migrate.	Ambiguous situations are always not acceptable	There is strong relationship between people especially in rural areas.
Participant9	There is a difference between the rich and the poor.	Formal rules must support employment stability in the society.	Some people are no longer much concerned about their relatives and neighbors.
Participant10	People in my society are not equal in status.	People are unhappy with such unclear situations.	Some people are not concerned about the problems of the community.