
Destination image and risk perception of Myanmar.
The Italian market perspective.

Dissertation

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The Italian market perspective.**

Chiara Di Blasio

Student ID: 194204

Student at the Breda University of Applied Sciences

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I hereby declare that this research is wholly the work of Chiara Di Blasio. Any other contributors or sources have either been referenced in the prescribed manner or are listed in the acknowledgements together with the nature and the scope of their contribution.

Preface

The year 2020 has been extremely challenging worldwide, especially for the tourism industry. At the beginning of the academic year, I was sure I would have spent a month in Myanmar to conduct field research to write my dissertation. However, reality was much different; so, instead of travelling to Myanmar, I had to travel back to my home country and choose a new dissertation topic.

The unique features and history of Myanmar have always fascinated me, so I knew I wanted to research about it, but I did not have a precise angle. Some friends who had recently visited the country told me that they had met many Italians there. I was quite surprised by this fact, hence I started looking into the numbers of international arrivals in Myanmar and found out that, indeed, it is one of Italians' favourite destinations in Southeast Asia. Therefore, I decided to investigate the perceptions of Italian travellers concerning Myanmar. Obviously, conducting the research online had its limitations but it also provided positive and unexpected outcomes. To give an example, some respondents contacted me privately to ask further questions about my work, expressing interest towards the research. The positive voluntary feedback received gave me a strong motivation, which compensated the disappointment of not being able to conduct research on location.

The constant support I received was fundamental to conduct the research. In this regard, I would like to thank my university supervisor, Dr Rami Isaac, for his guidance and advice. His extensive knowledge and openness to share it with me have been crucial to the process. He has provided support and guidance while encouraging me to bring forward my own ideas, and for this I am extremely grateful.

I would also like to thank those who have filled in the survey. Without their participation, I would have not been able to conclude my work. I highly appreciate the time spent on completing the survey and the interest expressed towards the research topic.

I am also very grateful for the continuous support of my family, who has always believed in me, providing love, strength and motivation. I cannot thank them enough for always being by my side. Without them, I could not have gotten this far.

Last but not least, I would like to thank my friends in Amsterdam, my family away from home. This year as never before, their warmth has been fundamental to overcome stressful times and achieve my objectives.

Executive summary

The tourism industry has been rapidly developing in Myanmar since 2010, so much that about 3.55 million international arrivals were recorded in 2018 (World Tourism Organization, 2019). However, the industry's growth came to a sudden halt as a consequence of the violent conflicts between the army and the Rohingya Muslim minority. This situation has damaged the image of the country as travellers started perceiving it as a risky destination.

Destination image and risk perception are the main streams of tourism literature that investigate travellers' perceptions, and they are both crucial to understand the overall destination perception and tourists' intention to visit. Furthermore, destination image and risk perception are multidimensional constructs, formed by a cognitive and an affective component. Therefore, the overall destination's perception is influenced by an objective assessment of the destination's attributes together with a subjective, emotional evaluation. Understanding destination image and risk perception can help practitioners, marketers and Destination Management Organisations to understand the success of a destination.

The aim of this paper was to explore Myanmar's destination image, risk perception and travel intention from the perspective of the Italian market, which is among the top 5 European markets for the destination. The influence of individual characteristics such as gender, age and education were investigated, together with previous travel experience. Moreover, the relationship between the three variables of interest was assessed. After conducting extensive secondary research to review previous studies on the topics, a model linking tourists' features, destination image, risk perception and intention to travel was developed to guide the research. On the basis of previous studies, eleven hypotheses were posited.

The literature review also provided the foundations to create a questionnaire of 16 questions. The survey was administered online, through travel forums and social media channels. Snowball sampling and convenience sampling were applied to select respondents. A total of 209 valid responses were collected between the 25th May and the 30th June.

The data were analysed using descriptive statistics, cross tabulations, one-way ANOVA and correlations. The results showed that destination image and risk perception are positively related to overall perception which, in turn, is positively related to intention to visit. Differences were observed between the cognitive and the affective component of the two

constructs. Moreover, results confirmed that safety is nowadays a fundamental need for travellers. The study could not demonstrate a strong impact of sociodemographic factors on destination image and risk perception, contrarily to past travel experience, which constituted an element of diversity among respondents.

Overall, the results mostly supported the theoretical framework guiding this study. From an empirical point of view, the research confirms that, in order to assess the overall destination's perception, both positive and negative aspects should be included. Concerning managerial implications, this study can be used as a starting point to obtain a deeper understating of the destination image and risk perception of Myanmar, and actions that can be taken to enhance the positive attributes and improve the negative aspects. The present study suggests, for Myanmar's Destination Management Organisations to collaborate with Italian tour operators since they are involved in the decision-making process of travellers and thus, they can reduce their perception of risk and influence their destination choice.

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List of abbreviations

ANOVA	ANalysis Of VAriance
ARSA	Arakan Rohingya Salvation Army
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
CNN	Cable News Network
COVID-19	Corona Virus Disease 2019
CSIS	Center for Strategic and International Studies
DMO	Destination Management Organisation
FIFA	Fédération Internationale de Football Association
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ICC	International Criminal Court
ICJ	International Court of Justice
KMO	Kaiser-Myer-Olkin
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
MoHT	Ministry of Hotel and Tourism
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NLD	National League for Democracy
OCHA	(United Nations) Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
PTE	Past Travel Experience
SARS	Severe acute respiratory syndrome
SLORC	State Law and Order Restoration Council
SPDC	State Peace and Development Council
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
USDP	Union Solidarity and Development Party

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Perceptions are opinions and beliefs held by individuals, and are highly subjective. Consequently, people perceive the same topic differently, and the same applies to destinations. Therefore, academics within the tourism field have investigated these perceptions for decades. Majority of these studies fall into two main streams of research, namely destination image and risk perception.

The image of a destination derives from attributes and feelings that form the destination's perception held by travellers. These perceptions can then influence individual's decision making; in other words, they contribute to the destination's choice (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a; Beerli & Martín, 2004a; Pike & Ryan, 2004). It is widely accepted that destination image is formed by three components: cognitive, affective and conative (Perpiña et al., 2020; Pike & Ryan, 2004). The cognitive evaluation is based on attributes, hence physical attractions and activities that make the destination interesting to visit (Beerli & Martín, 2004b). The affective evaluation depends on the feelings that individuals perceive about the destination, thus it is expressed through emotions (Becken et al., 2017). Lastly, the conative component refers to the intention to visit the destination (Pike & Ryan, 2004).

However, tourist destinations are extremely sensitive to external threats, either natural or man-made, such as natural disasters, diseases, terrorism, political instability or economic crisis. These events can negatively affect travellers' perceptions, creating uncertainty and anxieties that can influence the decision-making process and lead to the choice of non-visiting the destination (Fuchs & Reichel, 2006; Ghaderi et al., 2017; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005). Remarkably, recent studies have approached the concept of risk perception as a dual construct that involves a cognitive and an affective component which influence travel behaviour (Becken et al., 2017). The cognitive evaluation is based on attributes representing issues and concerns that could put the traveller in danger (Reichel et al., 2007). The affective evaluation is formed through feelings and emotions that create a sense of risk in the mind of travellers (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005; Trumbo et al., 2016).

Therefore, the two concepts show certain similarities, and they both have an influence on travel behaviour; yet, they have mostly treated separately (Becken et al., 2017; Chew & Jahari, 2014; Perpiña et al., 2019; Qi et al., 2009).

Prominent scholars have solicited further investigations on the relationship between the two topics, namely destination image and risk perception, and their influence on travel intention (Chew & Jahari, 2014; Perpiña et al., 2019, 2020). In a recent study on Colombia, Perpiña et al. (2020) developed a model that combines the constructs of destination image and risk perception taking into account their cognitive and affective component. The following study will borrow and adapt this model to empirically test it in the context of Myanmar. To the best of the author's knowledge, there are no studies that have applied this model to other destinations. As a result, the aim of this research is to close the existing gap in literature by assessing destination image, risk perception and travel intention into one study. Moreover, the research aims to provide a better understanding of Myanmar, since studies on this destination are still limited.

The destination was chosen because it provides the perfect field to investigate the duality of positive and negative destination perceptions. Since 2010, the country has experienced a dramatic increase in international arrivals (Hudson, 2016), as proven by the fact that, in 2018, the country welcomed over 3.55 million foreign tourists (World Tourism Organization, 2019). Therefore, the tourism industry has become a fundamental pillar of the country's economic growth; it was estimated that, in 2015, the tourism sector directly employed 2.3% of the workforce, and the industry accounted for 5.9% of the overall GDP (Clifton et al., 2018). However, in the past three years, Myanmar has been in the news due to the so called "Rohingya crisis". The Rohingyas are one of the ethnic minorities of Myanmar, and they have been victims of discrimination since 1982. Nonetheless, their situation obtained worldwide attention only after 2017, as a consequence of a violent repression undertaken by the government army, which led to the United Nations (UN) accusation of genocide (Albert & Maizland, 2020).

This kind of events can be extremely detrimental for destinations, since potential travellers might decide to not travel at all or to visit a different country, as they fear for their life or prefer to avoid anxious situations (Neumayer, 2004); consequently, violence can have a substantial impact on tourism demand (Pizam, 1999). Scholars have demonstrated that

political conflicts can have a negative impact on destination image (Alvarez & Campo, 2014). In particular, several studies have investigated the impact of terrorism on tourism demand (e.g. Araña & León, 2008; Isaac, 2020; Isaac & Velden, 2018; Liu & Pratt, 2017; Richter & Waugh, 1986; Ryan, 1993; Seabra, Reis, & Luís Abrantes, 2020) probably due to the fact that tourists have often been victims of terrorist attacks (Neumayer, 2004). However, there is a scarcity of studies that have analysed the impact of violence against the local population (Pizam, 1999) or political violence other than terrorism, when exercised by the government due to political reasons (Neumayer, 2004).

1.1 Problem statement

Despite the efforts to promote the tourism in the country, which brought satisfying results, the flourishing industry in Myanmar might have to face the challenges derived from the negative perception connected to political violence, which could lead to a decrease of international arrivals, especially from Europe and the United States (Kyaw, 2019). In July 2019, the city of Bagan was listed as UNESCO World Heritage, due to its cultural and religious value. While such recognitions are usually followed by an increase in tourist arrivals, this was not the case for Myanmar, as tour operators in Yangon and Bagan reported a decline in bookings by up to 70%. Many potential travellers claimed that they could not make peace with the idea of visiting heritage sites in a country found guilty of human rights abuse (Pearson, 2020). The decrease in arrivals already began in 2017, just after the first images of the internal conflicts started circulating around the world. Asians and Australian tourists justified their cancellation for safety reasons while some Europeans openly stated that they were boycotting the country due to the humanitarian abuses (Al Jazeera, 2017). At the moment, the negative image associated with human rights abuse constitutes a major challenge to attract visitors (Kyaw, 2019).

However, it remains unclear to what extent these events have shaped Myanmar's destination image and travellers' risk perception. In general, the amount of studies on Myanmar's is still very limited, due to historical and political reasons that have caused its exclusion from the rest of the world until 2010. Consequently, this research aims to contribute to the existing body of literature by investigating Myanmar's destination image and risk perception. With regards to markets, the present study will focus on Italian travellers. According to the statistics provided by the Ministry of Hotels and Tourism (2020), among European markets,

the Italian one has ranked consistently among the top 5 European arrivals since 2013, hence it is a predominant one (Ministry of Hotels and Tourism, 2020).

1.2 Research goal and objectives

The purpose of this paper was to contribute to the emerging stream of tourism studies that investigate destinations' perceptions by combining destination image and risk perception in one model, to assess their influence on travel intention. The destination chosen was Myanmar, due to the fact that its image is currently at risk due to political events, although there is a scarcity of studies on the subject. The Italian market was chosen as it is one of the most important among European arrivals.

Therefore, the present study aimed to answer the following question:

What destination image and risk perception have Italian travellers concerning Myanmar, and what are their travel intentions?

In order to answer the main research question, the following sub-questions were developed:

1. What image do Italian tourists hold of Myanmar as a tourist destination? How are the cognitive and affective elements of the destination image perceived by this market?
2. How do Italian tourists perceive Myanmar in terms of travel-related risk? How are the cognitive and affective elements of risk perceived by this market?
3. Do Italian tourists express intention to travel to Myanmar within the next five years?

1.3 Dissertation structure

The paper started with an introduction on the topic of interest, the literature gap to address and the overall aim of the research. In the second chapter, an in-depth analysis of existing studies on destination image and risk perception will be provided, followed by the theoretical framework that has guided the research. In the third chapter, the contextual background of Myanmar will be outlined, in order to highlight the interplay between politics and tourism in the country. Chapter four will present the methods used to conduct the research, while the results will be outlined in chapter five. The results will then be discussed in chapter six. Lastly, conclusions and recommendations will be given in chapter seven.

Chapter 2: Literature review

2.1 Introduction

The perception hold by travellers regarding a country is essential to its development as a successful tourist destination. Destination image and risk perception are the two prominent streams of research that have investigated these perceptions, but they have been rarely integrated (Becken et al., 2017). While destination image studies are focused on positive characteristics, risk perception studies investigate negative ones (Chew & Jahari, 2014). In other words, destination image researchers are interested in understanding the reasons why people choose to visit a destination while risk perception scholars concentrate their attention on the elements that lead to destination avoidance (Becken et al., 2017). However, travellers hold a perception of a destination which combines both, negative and positive elements. Consequently, a conjoint analysis of destination image and risk perception can allow tourism stakeholders to obtain a deeper understanding of the overall destination's perception, which influences travel intention (Perpiña et al., 2020).

Following this line of thinking, the following chapter will analyse previous studies on destination image and risk perception and combine the two constructs into one model.

2.2 Destination image

Destination image is defined as the *“visual or mental impression of a place, a product, or an experience held by the general public”* (Milman & Pizam, 1995, p. 21) or *“the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination”* (Crompton, 1979, as cited in Jenkins, 1999, p.2). Destination images can be distinguished into organic, induced and modified induced. Organic image refers to the image that tourists hold without visiting the place, and it is based on non-tourism related sources, while induced image is derived from tourism sources. Modified induced image is formed after visiting the destination. Consequently, non-tourists, potential tourists, and actual tourists held different images of the same destination (Jenkins, 1999).

In tourism literature, destination image is formed by three components, namely cognition, affection and conation (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Pike & Ryan, 2004). Cognitive evaluation is based on knowledge of the destination; hence it is assessed based on attributes such as activities, attractions, and resources, which stimulate the interest of tourists. Affective evaluation indicates the feeling towards the destination, which can be positive, negative or

neutral, and it is assessed through emotions (Becken et al., 2017). Conation represents intention to travel and it is assessed through the probability of travelling to the destination in the future (Pike & Ryan, 2004). Due to its various facets, destination image can be defined as a multi-dimensional phenomenon which includes an evaluation of physical attributes of the destination together with the individual's feeling and emotions (Rodríguez Del Bosque & San Martín, 2008). Therefore, according to some scholars (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999b; Beerli & Martín, 2004b), destination image studies should incorporate both, the affective and the cognitive component.

The combination of cognitive and affective component is the overall perceived image of the destination, either positive or negative (Beerli & Martín, 2004b). In other words, the overall destination image results from the interplay between cognitive and affective evaluations (Alvarez & Campo, 2014; Beerli & Martín, 2004b; Martínez & Alvarez, 2010; Pike & Ryan, 2004). Whether one has a greater impact than the other, depends on elements such as destination development and previous negative image (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a). Qu, Kim and Im (2011) found a greater impact of the cognitive evaluation on the overall image formation, especially for well-known destinations (Qu et al., 2011). According to Lepp, Gibson and Lane (2011), the negative image of Uganda was mostly linked to affective elements related to issues such as war and poverty more than a cognitive evaluation of the destination's attributes (Lepp et al., 2011). Similarly, Alvarez and Campo (2014) investigated the image of Turkish travellers towards Israel and concluded that the recurring political conflicts had a major impact on the affective evaluation, which caused a negative overall perception (Alvarez & Campo, 2014). Given the fact that the cognitive and affective evaluation of destination image were found to be related to the overall destination perception, the following hypothesis was posited: **The cognitive and affective component of destination image are significantly related to overall perception (H1).**

The cognitive component of a destination can be assessed through 24 attributes, divided into nine categories: natural resources; general infrastructure; tourism infrastructure, tourism leisure and recreation; culture, history and art; political and economic factors, natural environment, social environment; and the atmosphere of the place (Beerli & Martín, 2004b). The attributes to be included in a certain research are destination specific (Becken et al., 2017). Concerning the affective component, this is usually assessed using the adjectives grid developed by Russel, Ward, & Pratt (1981) who identified four categories of adjective that

can describe the feelings towards a place, namely “pleasant/unpleasant”, “relaxing/distressing”, “arousing/ sleepy”, and “exciting/gloomy” (Russel et al., 1981).

2.2.1 Antecedents of destination image

Previous studies have analysed tourists’ characteristics and stimulus factors as antecedents of destination image that can influence the affective or the cognitive component (Chew & Jahari, 2014). Sociopsychological travel motivations were found to have an impact on the cognitive evaluation which influences travellers’ affection towards a destination (Baloglu, 2000). Concerning sociodemographic characteristics, studies show that age consistently affects the cognitive component of destination image (Baloglu & Mcleary, 1999a; Beerli & Martín, 2004b; Chew & Jahari, 2014). Beerli and Martin (2004b) also found that gender and education influences the cognitive and affective evaluation. However, other studies had shown no relationship between gender or education and destination image (Baloglu, 1997). Regarding stimulus factors, past travel experience (PTE) was found to contribute to the formation of cognitive and affective destination images (Baloglu, 2000; Baloglu & Mcleary, 1999a; Beerli & Martín, 2004b). As sociodemographic factors and stimulus factors were found to be related to the cognitive and affective evaluation of destination image, the following hypotheses were postulated: **Cognitive destination images (H2) and affective destination images (H3) differ by sociodemographic factors. Cognitive destination images (H4) and affective destination images (H5) differ by PTE.**

2.2.2 Destination image and safety and security concerns

The image of a destination is highly susceptible to safety perception. When travellers perceive a destination to be unsafe, they can develop an overall negative perception of it. The image of the destination can be damaged, resulting in a decrease in tourism demand, which is expressed in three different ways: potential tourists decide not to visit the destination; those who are already on location might not participate in any activities outside of tourists facilities; travellers who had previously visited the destination and felt unsafe are not likely to return (George, 2003). Consequently, it is clear that the tourism industry is highly vulnerable to safety and security concerns (Mansfeld & Pizam, 2006).

The terms safety and security, while expressing two different concepts, are interrelated, as illustrated by Hall, Timothy and Duval (2003) who stated that : *“for the tourism industry at least, security is now seen as more than just the safety of tourists”* (2003, p. 3). Since the Cold War, the concept of tourism security has transformed, as the focus has shift from

national defence issues to a more global and people centred approach (Hall et al., 2003). Therefore, together with war and crime related issues, the concept of security nowadays includes health, social and environmental issues (Hall et al., 2003), but also political instability, human rights and international crimes (Ghaderi et al., 2017). In order to differentiate the two concepts, Mansfeld and Pizam (2006) consider security issues to be man-made, and including war, terrorism, crime and political or civil instability. On the other hand, safety concerns are not human-induced and include health and natural disasters (Isaac, 2020; Isaac & Velden, 2018; Mansfeld & Pizam, 2006).

During the 21st century, the tourism industry has faced numerous security and safety issues, for instance the 9\11 attacks, the 2002 Bali bombings, The Iraq war, the Israel-Palestine conflicts, the earthquake and tsunami in Japan in 2011, the SARS and avian influence (Ghaderi et al., 2017), the very recent COVID-19 crisis, just to name a few. The intensity of these incidents has increased, as well as the geographical outreach (Mansfeld & Pizam, 2006); furthermore, due to new media, destinations have suffered from the so-called “spill over effect” (Isaac, 2020; Seabra et al., 2020). In the occurrence of these threats, media have a very strong influence on potential travellers, which are exposed to numerous information that can support the formation of a high-risk image of the destination. Authorities take actions by providing risk assessments or boycotting certain products or destinations, and many travellers tend to be influenced by these assessments in their destination choice (Ghaderi et al., 2017).

Therefore, the topic of risk perception has acquired growing interest among tourism scholars and practitioners. It is important to note that majority of these studies are focused on perceived risk more than actual risk as the latter is harder to define and, most importantly, the perception of risk is the factor that impacts travel behaviour (Yang & Nair, 2014). An assessment of the factors influencing travellers’ risk perception contributes to understanding destination image. Since a risky image can influence the possibility of visiting the destination, it contributes to obtaining a better understanding of tourists’ behaviour (Lepp & Gibson, 2003).

2.3 Risk perception

In an early study, Sönmez & Graefe (1998a) highlighted the importance of perceived risk as a determining factor in destination avoidance. In tourism literature, risk perception has been

defined as the probability that a certain event could put the tourist in a dangerous situation; when deemed unacceptable, the potential danger can influence destination choice (Reichel et al., 2007). From a marketing perspective, perceived safety is a fundamental destination attribute, which influences potential travellers' eagerness to visit (Matiza & Oni, 2014). Similarly, the perception of unsafety might influence potential travellers' mind, leading to the choice of non-travelling to the destination (Fuchs & Reichel, 2006). In general, there has been a considerable amount of studies that assert the influence of risk perception on the decision making process in the context of tourism products (Isaac & Velden, 2018). Therefore, understanding risk perception of potential tourists when choosing a destination is particularly important for Destination Management Organisations (DMO's) (Lehto et al., 2008).

In an early study on the topic, Roehl & Fesenmaier (1992) identified the following risk types: equipment risk, financial risk, physical risk, psychological risk, satisfaction risk, social risk, and time risk. They concluded that tourists' risk perceptions vary depending on the destination, hence they called for further destination-specific risk perceptions' studies (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992). Expanding their analysis, Sönmez & Graefe (1998a) explored the risk factors of health, political instability and terrorism and concluded that they are predictors of destination avoidance (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). Fuchs & Reichel (2006) investigated the risk perception of international travellers to Israel and identified the following risk factors: human-induced, service-quality, socio-psychological, financial, natural disasters and car accidents, and food-related problems and weather. The authors then categorised risk perception into five categories, namely physical, financial, time, socio-psychological and performance (Fuchs & Reichel, 2006). Since each category included other subcategories, a fundamental contribution of this study was to demonstrate that the concept of risk perception is multidimensional (Isaac & Velden, 2018).

Previous studies on the topic linked risk perception to tourists' personality and roles, which find their roots in Plog's typology of tourists (Plog, 1974). Plog (1974) developed a model in which tourists can be classified on a scale going from allocentric to psychocentric.

Allocentric travellers are risk taking, they seek unique and authentic experiences, while psychocentric travellers are risk adverse and non-adventurous; majority of travellers are mid-centric, hence they can exhibit some preferences closer to one extreme or the other but they do not fall completely in that category (Plog, 1974). While innovative at the time, Plog's work has received some critics. According to Korstanje (2009), the construction of the scale

is inaccurate. Furthermore, it is not easily generalisable and other studies have developed a more accurate classification based on risk perception (Isaac & Velden, 2018). Pioneers in the field, Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) classified tourists as: risk neutral, functional risk, and place risk. Risk neutral tourists do not conceive risk at the destination; functional risk tourists are concerned about equipment and organisational problems; place risk tourists tend to perceive the destination as risky (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992). Lepp and Gibson (2003) classified tourists based on their degree of novelty seeking and concluded that it influences the perception of risk; the more a traveller looks for novelty, the less he or she will perceive a destination as risky (Lepp & Gibson, 2003).

With regards to conceptualization of risk, two main approach exists, namely rationalism and social constructionism. The former approach focuses on the cognitive component of risk, which is objective, and can be reduced through gathering information and enhancing personal knowledge about the destination. Contrarily, social constructionists consider risk to be also influenced by emotions (Williams & Baláž, 2015). Applying the concept of “risk-as-feeling” introduced by Loewenstein, Weber, Hsee, and Welch (2001), scholars have linked the concept of risk to negative feelings such as fear, dread and worry (Shim & You, 2015; Trumbo et al., 2016), and found a negative relationship with intention (Shim & You, 2015). In a study by Larsen, Brun, and Øgaard (2008), the authors concluded that worry could lead to a protective behaviour, resulting in destination avoidance (Larsen et al., 2008). Reisinger and Mavondo (2005) showed that perceived risk causes feeling of anxiety, which negatively impact intention to visit (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005). Consequently, these recent studies consider risk perception as a concept formed by a cognitive and an affective component (Becken et al., 2017; Shim & You, 2015). Moreover, previous studies demonstrated that risk perception’s cognition and affection can shape travellers’ opinions regarding a place, hence they can affect the overall destination’s evaluation (Nadeau et al., 2008). Based on the aforementioned studies, which link the cognitive and affective component of risk perception to overall destination’s evaluation, the following hypothesis was posited: **The cognitive and affective component of risk perception are significantly related to overall perception (H6).**

2.3.1 Antecedents of risk perception

Factors that influence risk perceptions can be divided into sociodemographic (gender, age education) and stimulus (past travel experience) (Perpiña & Camprubí, 2017). Regarding gender, Lepp and Gibson (2003) found that women were more sensitive to health and food

risks, while no differences were found in other categories such as war and political stability. According to Qi, Gibson, and Zhang (2009), men perceived health and cultural risk more than women, women perceived violence more than men, but no differences were reported concerning socio-psychological risks. Reichel et al. (2007) found women to be more worried about physical, financial and expectations risks, while man perceived psychological, political and behavioural risks more than women. Contrarily, in other studies gender had no any impact on risk perception (Moreira, 2008; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b). Studies that assessed the influence of age on risk perception also show contradictive findings. For instance, according to George and Swart (2012), perception of crime risk in the context of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa was higher among older respondents. On the other hand, other studies found that risk perception decreases with age (Gibson & Yiannakis, 2002; Perpiña & Camprubí, 2017). Moreover, Sönmez & Graefe (1998b), did not find age to have any influence on risk perception. However, according to the authors, education and risk perception are inversely related; Perpiña & Camprubí (2017) confirmed this finding. With regards to PTE, several studies found that less experienced travellers are more sensitive to risks compared to more experienced ones (Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Perpiña & Camprubí, 2017; Sharifpour et al., 2014; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b). In a study conducted on German travellers risk perception towards Egypt, Isaac (2020) found that respondents who had visited countries in the MENA region, were more likely to visit Egypt in the next 12 months (Isaac, 2020). Still, PTE did not have any influence on risk perception according to Qi et al. (2009). In order to shed clarity on the relationship between sociodemographic factors and stimulus factors with the affective and cognitive component of risk perception, the following hypotheses were postulated: **Cognitive risk perceptions (H7) and affective risk perceptions (H8) differ by sociodemographic factors. Cognitive risk perceptions (H9) and affective risk perceptions (H10) differ by PTE.**

2.4 Travel intention

The importance of risk perception in the destination choice process has been extensively studied. Sönmez & Graefe (1998b) concluded that travellers who perceived a destination as particularly risky felt encouraged to avoid it. Floyd et al. (2004), studied the impact of 9/11 on risk perception and travel behaviour and found that a high risk perception could lead to avoiding international travels in general. However, other studies show that certain risk factors such as terrorism could lead to the decision of travelling to a different destination

(Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009) or region (Drakos & Kutan, 2003). Moreover, risk and safety perception interact with the image that tourists hold of a place, and can influence the possibility of travelling to a perceived unsafe destination (Kozak et al., 2007). According to Chew and Jahari (2014), certain risk factors impact revisit intention directly or indirectly, through their influence on the cognitive and affective element of destination image. The affective component plays an important role especially for first time visitors, as it greatly shapes their image of the destination (Alvarez & Campo, 2014).

Travel intention was found to be significantly and positively influenced by a destination's overall perception as travellers who had an overall positive perception of the destination showed higher willingness to visit it (Alvarez & Campo, 2014; Perpiña et al., 2020; Qu et al., 2011). Given that, the following hypothesis was posited: **Overall perception is significantly and positively related to visit intention (H11).**

2.5 Theoretical framework

The following study approaches the topics of destination image and risk perception as dual constructs, formed by a cognitive and an affective component. The cognitive evaluation of destination image is assessed through attributes related to tourists' attractions and infrastructure, while the affective evaluation is based on feelings associated with the destination. Similarly, the cognitive evaluation of perceived risk is assessed using attributes such as general level of safety, political instability and human rights, while the affective evaluation is based on feelings associated with political violence. The study assumes that the cognitive and affective components of risk perception and destination image form the overall destination's perception which, in turn, is significantly and positively related to travel intentions.

The research aims to contribute to the emerging stream of literature that considers destination image and risk perception simultaneously in the development of a destination's holistic evaluation which influences travel intentions. Furthermore, as a consequence of the contrasting results of previous studies, this research aims to contribute to existing literature by investigating the relationship between gender, age, education and PTE with the cognitive and affective evaluation of destination image and risk perception.

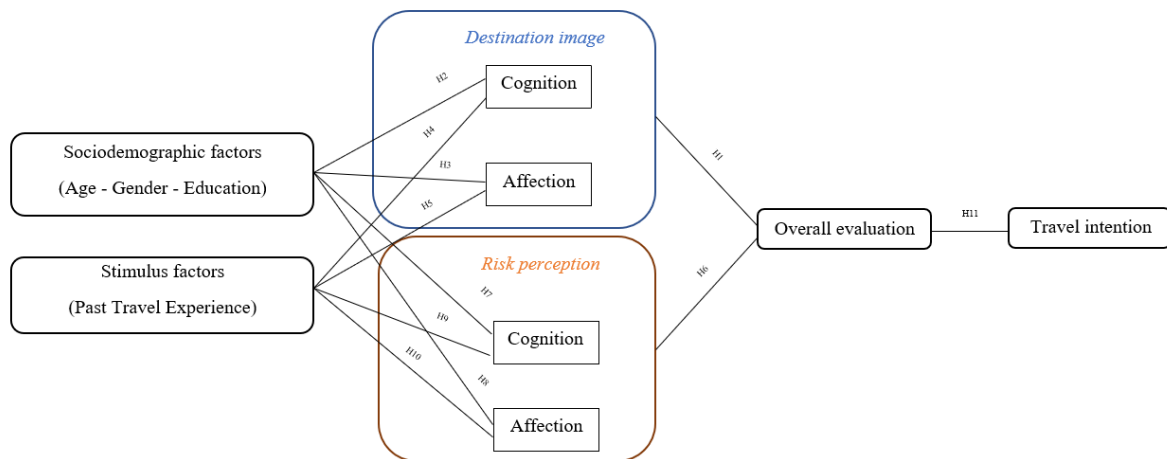


Figure 1: Theoretical framework. Adapted from "Image and risk perceptions: an integrated approach" by L. Perpiña, L. Prats & R. Camprubi, 2020, *Current Issues in Tourism*.

H1: The cognitive and affective component of destination image are significantly related to overall perception.

H2: Cognitive destination images differ by sociodemographic factors.

H3: Affective destination images differ by sociodemographic factors.

H4: Cognitive destination images differ by PTE.

H5: Affective destination images differ by PTE.

H6: The cognitive and affective component of risk perception are significantly related to overall perception.

H7: Cognitive risk perceptions differ by sociodemographic factors.

H8: Affective risk perceptions differ by sociodemographic factors.

H9: Cognitive risk perceptions differ by PTE.

H10: Affective risk perceptions differ by PTE.

H11: Overall perception is significantly and positively related to visit intention.

2.6 Conclusion

Chapter two provided an overview of previous studies on destination image and risk perception, their similarities and differences and their influence on overall destination perception. The cognitive and affective components of the constructs were explained, and previous studies on their antecedents were included. The literature was employed to develop the theoretical framework that guided the research. In the next chapter, an analysis of the contextual background will be given, to outline the relationship between politics and tourism in the history of the destination.

Chapter 3: Contextual analysis

3.1 Introduction

Tourism and politics are generally interrelated, but this connection is particularly evident in the case of Myanmar (Henderson, 2003). The following chapter will present an analysis of the history of the country from 1996 to 2020, highlighting the effect of politics on tourism development. The historical analysis is necessary to understand the relevance of conducting research about destination characterised by political instability.

3.2 From 1996 to 2010

In 1996, Myanmar was ruled by the State Peace and Development Council (SPDC), led by the general Than Shwe. The opposition party was the National League for Democracy (NLD), led by Aung San Suu Kyi, who became the symbol of the resistance during the 8888 uprisings ¹.

Than Shwe opened the country to foreign investments and extended the visa duration to one week. Furthermore, in 1996 the Visit Myanmar Year was organised to promote the country as a tourism destination while showing the achievements of the regime. In preparation for the Visit Myanmar Year, the number of hotels increased from 18 in 1988 to 450 in 1997 (Michalon, 2017) and, only in 1996, 946 tour guide businesses and 410 tourism enterprises were formed by the government (Reith & Nauright, 2005). However, this expansion was only possible at the expenses of Burmese people since millions of locals were forced to work to restore heritage sites, railways and the airport's runways in extremely abusive conditions (Reith & Nauright, 2005).

To damage the SPDC, the opposition urged international travellers to boycott tourism in Myanmar. Suu Kyi invited tourists to avoid supporting a regime that had forced his people into hard labour and relocation for the enjoyment of tourism (Henderson, 2003). Suu Kyi's campaign had worldwide resonance and it was supported by Western NGO's such as "Burma Campaign", "Tourism Concern" and "Info Birmanie" (Michalon, 2017). Those supporting the boycotting campaign claimed that foreign exchange provided by tourists was only a further financial support to the junta. Initially, the campaign had a certain impact on visitors' influx, especially due to the endorsements of celebrities and politicians (e.g. Susan Sarandon

¹ A more detailed analysis of the events prior to 1996 is provided in Appendix A

and Tony Blair) and a media war against those opposing the boycott campaign, such as Lonely Planet (Hudson, 2007).

Lonely Planet did not support the boycott but advocated for a responsible form of tourism, which could benefit the local population. This position was supported by those in favour of “citizen diplomacy”, according to whom tourism is a mean towards cross cultural understanding and economic growth. In their view, tourism was particularly important in repressive countries such as Myanmar since it gave the opportunity to foreigners to experience the country and witness the living conditions of locals (Hudson, 2016). While initially condemned, this perspective gained increasing recognition as proven by the fact that international arrivals increased by 48% from 2003 to 2006 (Michalon, 2017).

The following years saw a sharp decline in tourism arrivals caused by travellers concerns regarding personal safety since the country experienced two major crisis (Michalon, 2017). In 2007, after the junta decided to abolish fuel subsidies causing a tremendous oil price increase, new demonstrations started across the country. The reaction of the government was violent, hence several countries imposed trade restrictions against Myanmar. Nevertheless, many army officials and soldiers refused to follow the orders, especially because monks were leading the revolt and were the victims of the violent suppression. Since the regime realised the loss of support, it announced general elections to be held in 2010. Moreover, in 2008 Myanmar was hit by the Cyclone Nargis, which caused the death of 130,000 people and the complete destruction of entire villages (Butler et al., 2017).

3.3 From 2010 to 2015

In 2010, Myanmar experienced a transition from military to civilian government. The general elections were boycotted by the NLD, hence the Union Solidarity and Development Party (USDP) led by General U Thein Sein had a clean run (Michalon, 2017). As explained by Dr Dr. Thant Myint-U (writer, historian, and a former advisor to the president of Myanmar, involved in numerous reforms towards peace building in Myanmar) (CSIS, 2019) in 2011, part of the government, formed by former military officials, released up to 1000 political prisoners, reached out directly to Suu Kyi who had been released from house arrest, reduced press censorship and freed the internet; all these actions sent a clear message of radical political change. While they were not following a clear political agenda, they started a process of liberalisation of Myanmar and laid the foundation for a reconciliation with the Western countries. At the same time, the Obama administration was looking for ways to

engage with the generals and revoke the previously imposed sanctions and restrictions, and the actions taken by the generals gave the right reasons to engage; in 2012, Obama himself visited the country and abolished all sanctions (CSIS, 2019). In 2011, Suu Kyi re-registered the NLD as political party, ran for the 2012 elections and won 42 parliament seats (Huang, 2017). The NLD also withdrew the tourism boycott (Valentin & Schilcher, 2016).

This situation had a great impact on the international perception of Myanmar. International arrivals grew dramatically and tourism expenditure rose from \$ 254 million in 2012 to \$ 2.2 billion (Michalon, 2017). Tourism became a key element of the economic reforms of the government, regulated by the Ministry of Hotel and Tourism (MoHT). Tourism development in Myanmar follows the guidelines of the Responsible Tourism Policy, where nine guiding principles are indicated; on these foundations, strategic actions and objectives are outlined in the 2013-2020 Tourism Master Plan (Clifton et al., 2018). Recognizing the contribution of the industry to the growth of the country, the MoHT approach is to develop a sustainable and responsible form of tourism (Ministry of Hotels and Tourism, 2013). However, these plans have not been fully implemented, due to a number of challenges (Michalon, 2017).

First of all, crony capitalism and corruptions were still regular practices, which posed an impediment towards transparency and Corporate Social Responsibilities. Moreover, many visitors were discouraged by the allegations of human rights abuse and the poor treatment of ethnic minorities. This was also an obstacle to proper implementation of Community Involvement Tourism, due to lack of communication and education (Kongsasana, 2014). Additionally, public-private partnerships have never been developed and the local community has been excluded from any decision-making process. Locals have often only suffered the negative consequences of tourism development, such as land seizing, forced relocation and pollution (Kongsasana, 2014). The lack of community involvement is also an obstacle towards the formation, from a marketing perspective, of the country's brand as it does not create a sense of place as the residents are not brand ambassadors, creating fractions between the portrayed image and reality (Hudson, 2016).

Despite the emphasis placed on sustainability in the Master Plan, numerous constructions and development took place with little or no respect for the cultural and historical heritage (Kongsasana, 2014). A clear example of unregulated construction is the Inle Lake region where, only in between 2013 and 2016, about 45 hotels were built. Out of those, only 22 belong to local families, while the rest has been financed by outsiders' investors. Some of

those establishments, while worth millions, are in a state of abandonment, proving their only purpose as money laundry businesses. Moreover, land exploitation often happened at the expenses of local families, whose land was forcedly taken against little or no compensation (Michalon, 2017).

3.4 After 2015

In 2015, the first democratic elections were held after 60 years, and they were won by the NLD. The new government took office in 2016, and had to face the internal issues deriving for the military regime and high international expectations. One of the first move of the government was to release political prisoners and arrange the landmark event “Union Peace Conference”, where the government, the military and majority of armed ethnic groups came together to ensure long lasting peace in the country (Butler et al., 2017).

However, armed conflicts were still continuing in three states among which Rakhine, home to the Muslim Rohingya minority. The Rohingyas are one of the ethnic minorities of Myanmar; they represent the highest percentage of Muslims in the country and are mostly located in Rakhine State. They have been subject to numerous discriminations since 1982, when a new citizenship law was passed, and they were not included among the recognized ethnic minorities of Myanmar. Since then, they have been stateless and considered illegal immigrants (CNN World, n.d.); they were also excluded from the first national census in 2014 (BBC, 2020). The Rohingya have been suffering from violence and discrimination for many years but it was not until August 2017 that their situation sparked international outrage, following a violent outbreak of the government militia described as a "clearance operation" (OCHA, 2019).

On 25th August 2017, 12 police officers were killed in a number of attacks operated by the insurgent group Arakan Rohingya Salvation Army (ARSA). As a response, the military destroyed about 288 villages in Rakhine, resulting in the death of about 6,700 civilians (BBC, 2020). Moreover, the army has been accused of shooting at fleeing civilians and planting landmines close to the border with Bangladesh, where Rohingyas were escaping to. In order to investigate the situation, the UN appointed an independent panel that provided a detailed account of the brutality of the army, including killings of civilians, torture and rape. Consequently, the UN accused the Myanmar's government of genocidal intent (Albert & Maizland, 2020).

The case of the Rohingyas was brought to the attention of the International Court of Justice (ICJ) in November 2019 by The Gambia which accused Myanmar of genocide. The same month, the International Criminal Court (ICC) started an investigation into the case of the Rohingya people (Albert & Maizland, 2020). In December 2019, the ICJ condemned Myanmar's government for human rights' abuse (The Associated Press, 2019). The 23rd January 2020, the ICJ forced "provisional measures" on Myanmar to take effective actions and respect the 1948 genocide convention; however, it will take many years before the case is concluded (Khin, 2020).

3.5 Conclusions

Myanmar has struggled to define its nation identity after the British colonisation, and the presence of ethnic minorities has exacerbated the complexity of the situation. Outlining the history of Myanmar served to understand the strong impact that political events can have on tourism development, especially in the context of developing countries. The current political situation of the country provides a rationale to investigate travellers' perception of the destination. In the following chapter, the methods employed to conduct this investigation will be explained.

Chapter 4: Methodology

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this research was to investigate Italian travellers' destination image, risk perception and travel intention to Myanmar. In the following chapter, the methods applied to collect data and achieve this objective will be discussed.

4.2 Research approach

The research had a quantitative approach and a questionnaire based on existing literature was developed to achieve the research objective and test the relationship between the variables of the proposed model. The choice was made due to the fact that majority of previous studies included in the research (Becken et al., 2017; Beerli & Martín, 2004b; Isaac & Velden, 2018; Perpiña et al., 2020; Seabra et al., 2020) employed this method.

The study followed a deductive approach since the research started with a review of existing theory which led to the formulation of hypothesis, followed by data collection, findings, and confirmation or rejection of the hypothesis (Bryman, 2012). Relevant academic literature included academic articles on the topic of destination image, risk perception and travel intention. After a detailed review of the literature, hypotheses were formulated. Afterwards, a survey was designed using the online software Qualtrics and distributed online mainly via Facebook groups, online travel forums and personal contacts. Data were then collected and analysed in order to develop a conclusion based on the research findings. Data analysis was performed using the statistics software SPSS.

4.3 Data collection

A pilot survey was sent to 10 people of different ages and education levels in order to evaluate clarity and understandability of the questions, with a particular focus on grammar since the survey was initially designed in English and then translated in Italian. After receiving the feedback, some questions were rephrased and some eliminated to avoid redundancy. Afterwards, data were collected between the 25th May and the 30th June. The survey was distributed via online channels, which guaranteed easy accessibility, fast distribution to a vast audience and limited costs (Schleyer & Forrest, 2000). Among online channels, Facebook served as the main one to target Italians of different ages and

background, and from different regions. The survey was also shared on other platforms such as travel blogs. Moreover, the survey was also sent to personal contacts, who were invited to share it with friends and family. A total of 270 surveys were collected but only 209 were fully completed, meaning a completion rate of 77.5%. However, the initial objective was to collect 300 responses, resulting in a response rate of 69%.

4.4 Sample

Two non-probability sampling approaches were used, namely snowball sampling and convenience sampling. The former involves an initial direct approach of the researcher to a group of people (Bryman, 2012), in this case formed by family and friends. The latter involves selecting participants on the basis of their availability and willingness to participate (Bryman, 2012), which was done by sharing the survey on online platforms. The only predetermined criteria for respondents' selection was their nationality; hence the survey was only distributed on Italian travel forums and Facebook groups.

4.5 Questionnaire design

The research objectives were to assess destination image, risk perception and travel intention of Italian travellers related to Myanmar. In order to achieve these objectives, 16 questions based on previous literature were developed, divided into four sections.

Section 1 assessed respondents' PTE by asking whether they had travelled internationally in the past 5 years and how many times (Perpiña et al., 2020), and whether they had visited Southeast Asia, if so how many times and which countries; if Myanmar was selected, how many times (Isaac, 2020).

Section 2 aimed to investigate the affective and cognitive component of destination image and risk perception. The items forming the different components were borrowed from previous studies and respondents were asked to rank them on a 5-point Likert scale, going from 1=very negative to 5=very positive. In accordance with Perpiña et al. (2020), the following items were included in the cognitive evaluation of destination image: natural attractions, historical attractions, cultural attractions, general infrastructure, transportation, health services, hygiene and cleanliness. For the assessment of the cognitive component of risk perception, the following items, borrowed from the study of Martínez & Alvarez (2010) were included: general level of safety, criminal attacks, political instability, human rights. In order to investigate respondents' feelings regarding Myanmar, they were asked to indicate to what extent they perceived a certain feeling on a bipolar scale where the lowest values

represented the negative pole and the highest values represented the positive one. The following affective destination image attributes, borrowed from the study of Becken et al. (2017), were included: Unpleasant/Pleasant, Distressing/Relaxing, Preoccupation/Calm. The affective component of risk perception was measured in the same way and it included the following attributes, in relation to Myanmar's political crisis: Concerned/Unconcerned, Acceptable/Unacceptable (Becken et al., 2017). After collecting feedback on the pilot survey, the wording of the translated version was slightly modified without altering the meaning. The overall perception of Myanmar as a tourist destination was measured by asking respondents to what extent they agreed with the following statement using a 5-point Likert scale going from 1=very negative to 5=very positive: *"What is your general perception of Myanmar as a tourism destination?"* (Perpiña et al., 2020). Lastly, in this section, travel intention was measured by asking respondents to what extent they agree with the statement *"I would like to visit Myanmar in the next 5 years"* or *"I would like to return to Myanmar in the next 5 years"* using a 5-point Likert scale going from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree.

Section 3 aimed to measure respondent's overall relevance given to safety when travelling and the potential impact of political events on travel behaviour. Respondents were asked to indicate to what extent they agreed or disagreed with 8 statements on a 5-point Likert scale going from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree. The statements were retrieved from previous studies of Isaac (2020), Isaac & Velden (2018) and Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty (2009). The above-mentioned statements were the followings: *"I consider safety important when booking a holiday"*; *"Before going on holiday, I check the security advice published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs"*; *"I completely avoid travelling during political crisis"*; *"I choose travelling to a less dangerous destination rather than stop traveling during political crisis"*; *"My travel behaviour has been influenced by political crisis (e.g. Terrorist attacks in Sri Lanka, Turkey, Belgium etc.)"*; *"I avoid destination in/close to troubled areas"*; *"I only visit countries which I perceive as safe, or stated as safe by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs"*; *"Political crisis has no impact on my travel behaviour, as such could happen anywhere in the world"*.

Lastly, the study had the objective of investigating whether demographic factors had any impact on destination image and risk perception, hence section 4 of the questionnaire served to collect respondents' data regarding their age, gender and qualifications. The questions were borrowed from similar studies (Becken et al., 2017; Chew & Jahari, 2014).

Chapter 5: Results

5.1 Respondents' profile

Overall, 209 valid responses were collected. Majority of participants ($n=76$) were in between 25 and 34 years, or between 45 and 54 years ($n=45$). Those were followed by respondents between 55 and 65 years ($n=34$), between 35 and 44 years ($n=24$), and between 18 and 24 years ($n=21$). Only 9 respondents were above 65 years old (Figure 2). Furthermore, 59% of respondents were female ($n=123$) and 40% were male ($n=83$) (Figure 3). With regards to qualifications, majority of respondents received a Master's degree ($n=64$), 44 respondents obtained a Bachelor's degree, 58 respondents completed secondary education and 34 respondents held a post-graduate degree (Figure 4).

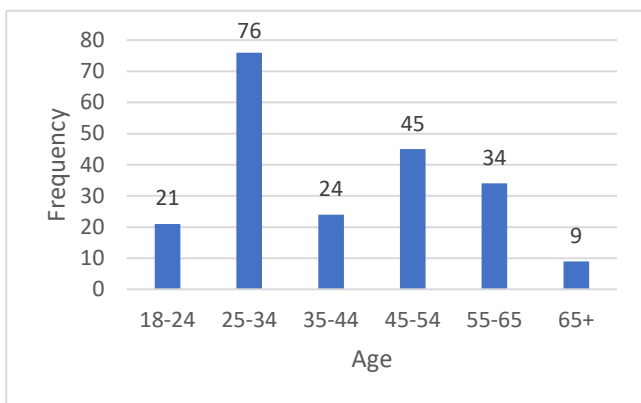


Figure 2: Frequency of age

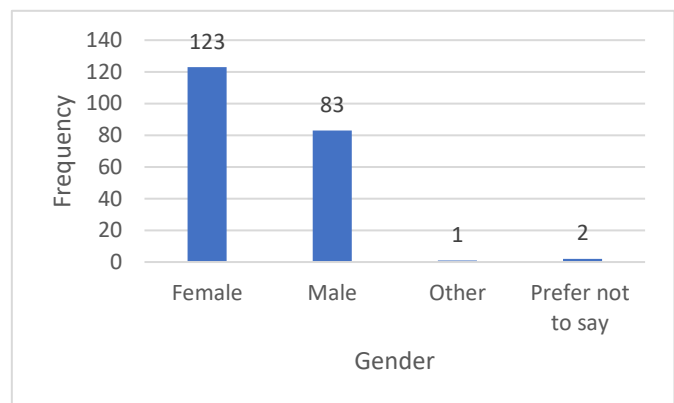


Figure 3: Frequency of gender

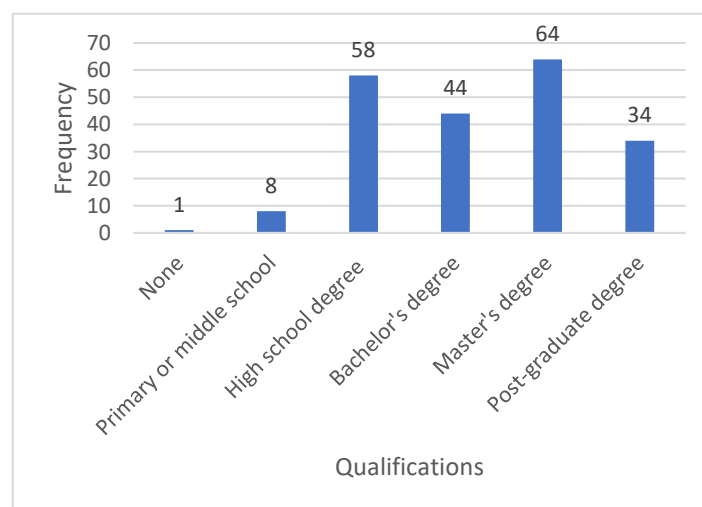


Figure 4: Frequency of qualifications

5.2 Destination image and risk perception

Myanmar has a positive image concerning natural, historical and cultural attractions as the mean values of all these items were above 3.90. When it comes to infrastructure, transports, health services and hygiene and cleanliness, the mean values of these items were 2.65, 2.56, 2.35 and 2.54 respectively, showing a more negative perception. In terms of affective image, the mean values of the items “Unpleasant/Pleasant”, “Distressing/Relaxing”, “Preoccupation/Calm” were above 3.15, indicating a tendency towards positive feelings (Table 1).

N=209	Mean	SD
Destination image - Cognition		
Natural attractions	4.24	0.883
Historical attractions	3.97	0.982
Cultural attractions	3.98	0.961
Infrastructure	2.65	0.882
Transports	2.56	0.865
Health Services	2.35	0.908
Hygiene and cleanliness	2.54	0.909
Destination image - Affection		
Unpleasant:Pleasant	3.43	1.463
Distressing:Relaxing	3.21	1.366
Preoccupation:Calm	3.15	1.380

Table 1: Descriptive statistics of destination image items

Concerning risk perception, as shown in table 2, general level of safety and control of crime had a mean value of 3.22 and 3.11 respectively, which indicates a relatively positive perception. Political stability and respect of human rights had a mean value of 2.56 and 2.41 respectively, showing a tendency towards a negative perception. Concerning the affective component of risk perception, the mean values of 2.76 for the item “Concerned/Unconcerned” and of 3.13 for the item “Acceptable/Unacceptable” indicate that respondents were aware of the situation and they associated it to negative feelings.

N=209	Mean	SD
Risk Perception - Cognition		
General level of safety	3.22	1.05
Control of crime	3.11	0.99
Political stability	2.56	0.92
Respect of human rights	2.41	0.98
Risk Perception - Affection		
Concerned:Unconcerned	2.76	1.36
Acceptable:Unacceptable	3.13	1.19

Table 2: Descriptive statistics of risk perception items

5.3 Past Travel Experience

Regarding respondents' PTE, majority of the sample had travelled internationally in the past 5 years (n=192), either more than 5 times (n=112) or between 1 and 5 times (n=80). Only a small percentage of the sample (i.e. 8%) had not travelled internationally at all. Respondents with general international experience show a strong interest towards visiting Myanmar. As shown in table 3, out of the 41 respondents who strongly agreed with the statement, 20 had travelled internationally more than 5 times and 19 had travelled internationally between 1 and 5 times. Among those who agreed with the statement (n=47), 23 respondents had travelled internationally between 1 and 5 times and 21 respondents had travelled more than 5 times.

How often have you travelled internationally in the past 5 years? * I would like to visit Myanmar in the next 5 years Crosstabulation		I would like to visit Myanmar in the next 5 years					
		1	2	3	4	5	Total
How often have you travelled internationally in the past 5 years?	More than 5 times	2	7	11	21	20	61
	Between 1 and 5 times	6	1	12	23	19	61
	Never	3	2	7	3	2	17
	Total	11	10	30	47	41	139

Table 3: Crosstabulation international travel experience and travel intention

Furthermore, respondents were asked if they had ever been in Southeast Asia, how many times, and then asked to select the destinations visited among the followings: Brunei, Cambodia, East Timor, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar (former Burma), Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Vietnam (Figure 4). Out of the 192 respondents who had travelled internationally, 46% had never visited Southeast Asia (n=89), 36% visited Southeast Asia between 1 and 5 times (n=68) and 18% more than 5 times (n=35). The most visited country was Thailand (n=73), immediately followed by Myanmar (n=70).

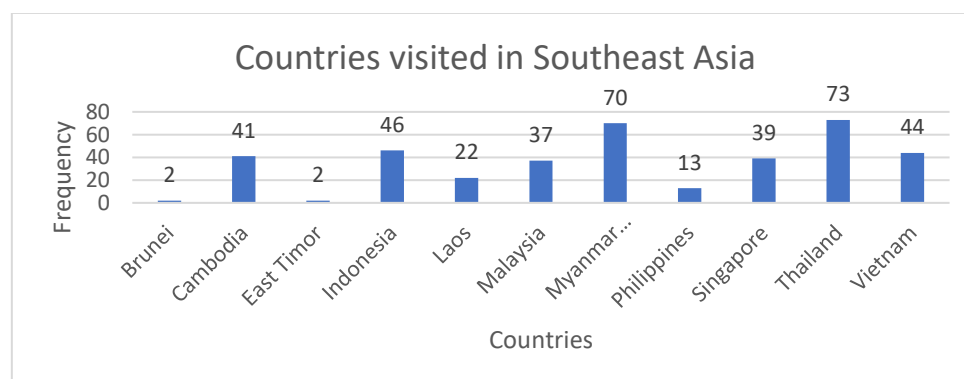


Figure 5: Frequency of countries visited in Southeast Asia

Among respondents who had visited Myanmar, 69% of them (n=48) visited the country once, 13% (n=9) between 2 and 5 times and 18% (n=13) more than 5 times. The mean of 4.39 for the statement “*I would like to return to Myanmar in the next 5 years*” indicates a strong willingness to return. As shown in table 4, 42 respondents strongly agreed with the statement and, among them, 31 had visited Myanmar once, 3 had visited Myanmar between 2 and 5 times and 8 had visited Myanmar more than 5 times. Only 1 respondent, who had visited Myanmar between 2 and 5 times, strongly disagreed with the statement.

How many times did you visit Myanmar? * I would like to return to Myanmar in the next 5 years Crosstabulation		<i>I would like to return to Myanmar in the next 5 years</i>					
		1	2	3	4	5	Total
<i>How many times did you visit Myanmar? *</i>	Once	0	2	2	13	31	48
	Between 2 and 5 times	1	1	1	3	3	9
	More than 5 times	0	1	1	3	8	13
	Total	1	4	4	19	42	70

Table 4: Crosstabulation travel experience in Myanmar and intention to return

Respondents who had not visited Myanmar were asked to indicate to what extent they agreed with the statement “*I would like to visit Myanmar in the next 5 years*”. The mean of 3.70 still suggests a strong willingness to visit the destination, yet the value is lower compared to those with PTE in Myanmar. Majority of respondents who strongly agreed with the statement (n=39) had been to South East Asia between 2 and 5 times (n=19), closely followed by those who had never been (n=18). Remarkably, majority of respondents who agreed with statement (n=44) had never been to South East Asia (n=37) (Table 5).

Have you ever been to South East Asia? * I would like to visit Myanmar in the next 5 years Crosstabulation		<i>I would like to visit Myanmar in the next 5 years</i>					
		1	2	3	4	5	Total
<i>Have you ever been to South East Asia?</i>	Yes, more than 5 times	0	0	0	1	2	3
	Yes, between 1 and 5 times	2	1	2	6	19	30
	No, never	6	7	21	37	18	89
	Total	8	8	23	44	39	122

Table 5: Crosstabulation travel experience in Southeast Asia and intent to visit

5.4 Importance of safety

Regarding the overall importance of safety, respondents were asked to indicate to what extent they agreed or disagreed with the following statement “*I consider safety important when booking a holiday*”. The results showed that safety plays a crucial role in destination selection for majority of respondents since 42% of them (n=88) agreed and 41% (n=86) strongly agreed with the statement. Among the former group, 51 respondents were female and 37 were male; among the latter, 55 respondents were female and 30 were male. Therefore, safety seemed to be more relevant in the destination choice for female respondents in comparison to male. Only a minority of the sample (n=13) either strongly disagreed (n=4) or disagreed (n=9) with the statement. Looking at respondents that either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement, those were mostly aged between 25 and 34 years (n=57) and between 45 and 54 years (n=43), followed by those between 55 and 65 (n=34), and 18 and 24 (n=15). However, respondents between 25 and 34 years also showed the highest score for neutrality (n=13). Consequently, safety appeared to be important when booking a holiday regardless of age.

A mean of 3.86 for the statement “*My travel behaviour has been influenced by political crisis (e.g. Terrorist attacks in Sri Lanka, Turkey, Belgium etc.)*” showed a strong impact of political events on travel behaviour. Majority of the sample ranked the statement with a 3 (n=47), a 4 (n=70) or a 5 (n=33). Cross tabulations were performed to investigate differences among respondents on the basis of their PTE. Among those who strongly disagreed with the statement (n=21), 76% had travelled internationally more than 5 times, 19% between 1 and 5 times and 5% had not travelled at all. Among those who disagreed with the statement (n=38), 71% had travelled internationally more than 5 times, 26% between 1 and 5 times and 3% had not travelled at all (Table 6).

How often have you travelled internationally in the past 5 years? * My travel behaviour has been influenced by political crisis (e.g. Terrorist attacks in Sri Lanka, Turkey, Belgium etc.) Crosstabulation

		<i>My travel behaviour has been influenced by political crisis (e.g. Terrorist attacks in Sri Lanka, Turkey, Belgium etc.)</i>					
		1	2	3	4	5	Total
<i>How often have you travelled internationally in the past 5 years?</i>	More than 5 times	16	27	26	33	10	112
	Between 1 and 5 times	4	10	17	29	20	80
	Never	1	1	4	8	3	17
Total		21	38	47	70	33	209

$\chi^2 = 18.744$, sig. = 0.016

Table 6: Crosstabulation international travel experience and impact of political crisis on travel behaviour

When looking at PTE in Southeast Asia, table 7 shows that, among respondents who strongly agreed with the statement (n=30), 60% had never been to Asia, 40% between 1 and 5 times and 0% more than 5 times. However, when looking at respondents who strongly disagreed with the statement (n=20), 55% had never been to South East Asia, 20% between 1 and 5 times and 25% more than 5 times. Yet, majority of the respondents ranked the statement with a 4 (n=62) and, among those, 50% had never been to Asia, 37% between 1 and 5 times and 13% more than 5 times.

Have you ever been to South East Asia? * My travel behaviour has been influenced by political crisis (e.g. Terrorist attacks in Sri Lanka, Turkey, Belgium etc.) Crosstabulation

		<i>My travel behaviour has been influenced by political crisis (e.g. Terrorist attacks in Sri Lanka, Turkey, Belgium etc.)</i>					
		1	2	3	4	5	Total
<i>Have you ever been to South East Asia?</i>	Yes, more than 5 times	5	15	7	8	0	35
	Yes, between 1 and 5 times	4	10	19	23	12	68
	No, never	11	12	17	31	18	89
Total		20	37	43	62	30	192

$\chi^2 = 24.052$ sig. = 0.02

Table 7: Crosstabulation travel experience in Southeast Asia and impact of political crisis on travel behaviour

The results of the cross tabulation between the statement “*My travel behaviour has been influenced by political crisis*” and visits to Myanmar showed interesting results. Among respondents who strongly agreed with the statement (n=7), all of them had visited Myanmar more than 5 times. Similarly, out of those who agreed with the statement (n=20), 17 had visited Myanmar more than 5 times. Respondents who strongly disagreed with the statement (n=6) were equally divided between those who had visited Myanmar once and those who had been more than 5 times (Table 8).

How many times have you been to Myanmar * My travel behaviour has been influenced by political crisis (e.g. Terrorist attacks in Sri Lanka, Turkey, Belgium etc.) Crosstabulation

		My travel behaviour has been influenced by political crisis (e.g. Terrorist attacks in Sri Lanka, Turkey, Belgium etc.)					Total
		1	2	3	4	5	
How many times have you been to Myanmar?	More than 5 times	3	8	13	17	7	48
	2 and 5 times	0	5	1	3	0	9
	1 time	3	8	2	0	0	13
	Total	6	21	16	20	7	70

$\chi^2 = 22.396$ sig. = 0.004

Table 8: Crosstabulation travel experience in Myanmar and impact of political crisis on travel behaviour

Therefore, it could be argued that, while travel experience would cause respondents to be, in general, less affected by political crisis, the same cannot be said with regards to specific experience in Myanmar. A potential explanation could be the fact that those who had visited the country only once were not directly exposed to any threat or were less informed, contrarily to those who had visited the country several times.

With regards to the relevance of security advices published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, respondents were asked to rank to what extent they agreed with the statement “*Before going on holiday, I check the security advice published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs*”. The results revealed that 28% of respondents agreed with the statement (n=60, 40 female and 20 male), 22% strongly agreed (n=46, 30 female and 16 male), 16% disagreed (n=34, 16 female and 18 male) and 7% strongly disagreed (n=15, 5 female and 7 male). However, a high percentage of respondents (i.e. 25%, n=54, 32 female and 22) had a neutral opinion, hence the security advice published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs do not seem to have a significant relevance. Overall, a slight difference between genders could be observed.

5.5 Factor analysis

Destination image

Exploratory factor analysis was conducted to determine the latent dimensions related to Myanmar's destination image. Principal component analysis was used with varimax rotation. Those are the most common methods used to assess which factors should be included, on the basis of the eigenvalues and the rotated component matrix (Tryfos, 2005). Kaiser-Myer-Olkin (KMO) was applied to determine appropriateness of the factors' measurements; when values are above .60, the analysis can be considered suitable (Hair et al., 2009). For this factor analysis, the KMO of .78 guarantees suitability of the data to conduct factor analysis. The Bartlett's test of sphericity showed significance at .000, indicating enough correlation among the variables to perform the analysis.

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.779
	Approx. Chi-Square	1131.669
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	45
	Sig.	0.000

All the 12 items had a loading above .40, hence they were all included. The factors identified had an eigenvalue greater than 1.0, meaning that they were suitable for extraction (Hair et al., 2009). The analysis led to identifying three factors, which accounted for 77% of the variance, in which the 12 items were loaded (Table 9).

Exploratory factor analysis of Destination Image (N = 209).

	Factor loading	Communalities	Eigen-values	Variance %
Factor 1: Infrastructure			2.88	28.804
Health services	0.869	0.659		
Transports	0.854	0.788		
Infrastructure	0.847	0.739		
Hygiene and cleanliness	0.774	0.756		
Factor 2: Affection			2.544	25.44
Unpleasant:Pleasant	0.911	0.762		
Distressing:Relaxing	0.908	0.757		
Preoccupation:Calm	0.903	0.608		
Factor 3: Attractions			2.204	22.037
Historical attractions	0.866	0.861		
Cultural attractions	0.821	0.845		
Natural attractions	0.800	0.852		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Table 9: Exploratory factor analysis of destination image

The image items loaded in Factor 1 (“infrastructure”) were: health services, transports, infrastructure, hygiene and cleanliness. Factor 1 had an eigen value of 2.88 and it accounted for 28.08% of the variation. The image items loaded in Factor 2 (“affection”) were: unpleasant/pleasant, distressing/relaxing, preoccupation/calm. Factor 2 a had an eigen value of 2.54 and it accounted for 25.44% of the variation. The image items loaded in Factor 3 (“attractions”) were: historical attractions, cultural attractions and natural attractions. Factor 3 had an eigen value of 2.204, and it accounted for 22.03% of the variation.

In other words, variations in the latent variable “destination image” could be explained by the factors “infrastructure”, “affection” and “attractions” by 28.08%, 25.44% and 22.03% respectively.

Risk Perception

A factor analysis was performed to investigate the latent dimensions related to Myanmar’s risk perception. Principal component analysis with varimax rotation were used. The KMO of .652 indicated suitability of the data to perform the analysis. The Bartlett’s test of sphericity at significance at .000 indicated enough correlation among the variables to perform the factor analysis.

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.652
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	369.181
	df	15
	Sig.	0.000

The 6 items had a loading above .40 hence they were suitable for extraction (Hair et al., 2009). The analysis led to identifying two factors, which accounted for 65% of the variance, in which the items were loaded (Table 10).

Exploratory factor analysis of Risk Perception (N=209)

	Factor loading	Communalities	Eigen-values	Variance %
Factor 1: Safety			2.542	42.37
General level of safety	0.837	0.722		
Control of crime	0.837	0.750		
Political stability	0.793	0.656		
Respect of human rights	0.687	0.642		
Factor 2: Affection - political crisis			1.321	22.022
Acceptable:Unacceptable	0.746	0.574		
Unconcerned:Concerned	0.705	0.52		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Table 10: Exploratory factor analysis of risk perception

The following items were loaded into Factor 1 (“safety”): general level of safety, control of crime, political stability and respect of human rights. Factor 1 had an eigen value of 2.542 and it explained 42.37% of the variance. The following items were loaded into Factor 2 (“affection – political crisis”): Acceptable:Unacceptable and Concerned:Unconcerned. This factor had an eigen value of 1.321 and it explained 22% of the variance.

In other words, variations in the latent variable risk perception could be explained by the factors “safety” and “affection-political crisis” by 42.37% and 22% respectively.

5.6 One-way ANOVA analysis

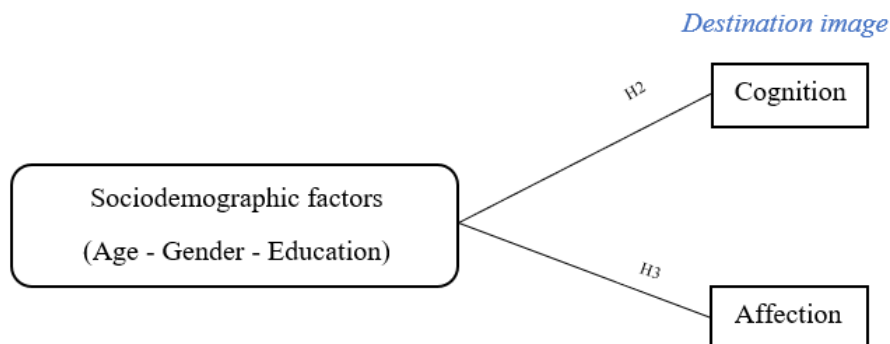
In order to investigate differences between groups on the basis of sociodemographic characteristics, an ANOVA test was performed. One-way ANOVA test is commonly used to assess the equality of means for quantitative results and one categorical variable with different levels (Seltman, 2018). Therefore, the one-way ANOVA test was used to verify hypotheses 2,3,4,5,7,8,9,10. Results are summarised in table 11.

ANOVA results (N=209)				
Variables		Mean square	F	Significance
Gender				
	Infrastructure	1.677	1.694	0.170
	Affection	1.901	1.927	0.126
	Attractions	13.153	15.999	0.000
	Safety	3.454	3.583	0.015
	Affection-political crisis	0.293	0.290	0.832
Age				
	Infrastructure	0.973	0.972	0.436
	Affection	0.804	0.800	0.550
	Attractions	0.816	0.812	0.542
	Safety	1.366	1.379	0.234
	Affection-political crisis	2.907	3.050	0.011
Education				
	Infrastructure	0.547	0.541	0.745
	Affection	1.767	1.802	0.114
	Attractions	1.605	1.629	0.154
	Safety	0.986	0.985	0.428
	Affection-political crisis	2.851	2.987	0.013
PTE				
	Infrastructure	1.937	1.911	0.151
	Affection	5.040	5.377	0.005
	Attractions	4.345	4.604	0.011
	Safety	14.488	16.685	0.000
	Affection-political crisis	4.356	4.395	0.014

Table 11: One-way ANOVA results

H2: Cognitive destination images differ by sociodemographic factors.

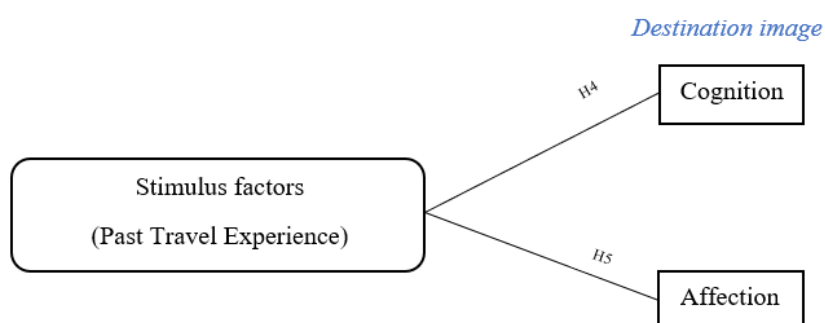
H3: Affective destination images differ by sociodemographic factors.



The analysis revealed significance only between gender and the factor “attractions” ($p < .01$); female respondents, in general, ranked this factor higher compared to males ($M=4.24$, $SD=.893$; $M= 3.90$, $SD=0.820$). No significance was observed between the other sociodemographic variables and the identified components of the construct. Similarly, the ANOVA test showed no significance between socio-demographic variables and the affective component of destination image. Consequently, H2 and H3 were rejected.

H4: Cognitive destination images differ by PTE.

H5: Affective destination images differ by PTE.



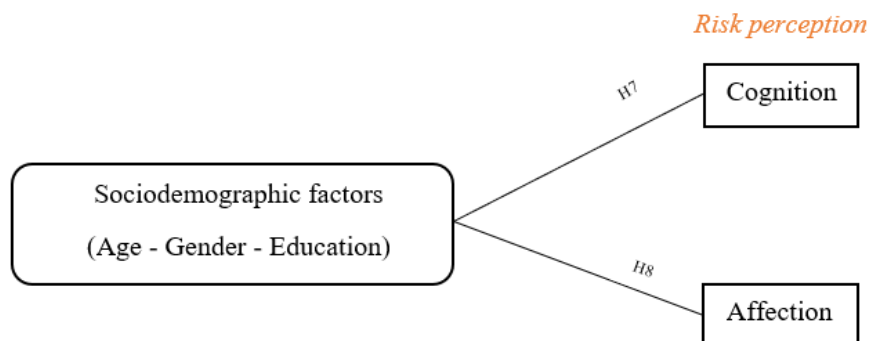
With regards to PTE, in this analysis it was represented by the question “*Have you ever been to South East Asia?*”. The ANOVA test revealed significance between PTE and the factor “attractions” ($sig. < .05$). The mean value of this factor was higher for respondents who had visited Southeast Asia between 1 and 5 time ($M=4.23$, $SD=1.047$) and for those who had

visited Southeast Asia more than 5 times ($M=4.28$, $SD=0.937$) compared to respondents who had never been to Southeast Asia ($M=3.88$, $SD=0.842$). Therefore, respondents with PTE tended to have a better perception of the tourist attractions that Myanmar can offer. However, no significance was observed between PTE and the factor “infrastructure”. Consequently, H4 was partially supported.

The results showed significance between PTE and the factor “affection” ($sig. < .01$). The mean values of respondents who had visited Southeast Asia more than 5 times ($M= 3.72$, $SD= 1.581$) and of respondents who had visited Southeast Asia between 1 and 5 times ($M= 3.57$, $SD= 1.443$) were much higher than mean values of respondents who had never been to Southeast Asia ($M= 2.96$, $SD= 1.170$). In other words, respondents with PTE showed a higher tendency towards positive feelings in relation to Myanmar compared to respondents with no PTE. Therefore, H5 was supported.

H7: Cognitive risk perceptions differ by sociodemographic factors.

H8: Affective risk perceptions differ by sociodemographic factors.



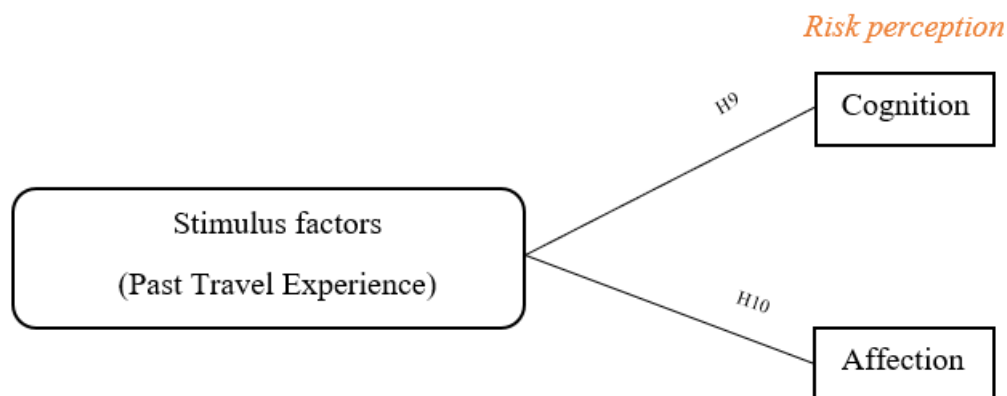
Concerning the cognitive component of risk perception, the analysis showed significance only between the factor “safety” and the variable gender. Female respondents showed a more positive perception of the factor ($M= 3.96$, $SD= 0.969$) compared to males ($M= 2.82$, $SD= 0.947$). Therefore, male respondents had a more negative perception of the security items investigated related to Myanmar. However, no significance was observed between the factor “safety” and the variables age and education. Thus, H7 was partially supported.

Regarding the affective component of risk perception, significance was observed between the factor “affection-political crisis” and the variables age ($sig. < .05$) and education ($sig. < .05$).

Respondents in the age group 55-65 showed the highest mean value for the factor ($M= 3.69$, $SD= 1.290$) while respondents in the age group 18-24 had the lowest mean value ($M= 2.86$, $SD= 1.286$). Thus, older respondents expressed higher concern towards the political crisis of Myanmar compared to younger ones. When it comes to qualifications, the highest mean values were found for respondents with a middle school degree ($M= 3.44$, $SD= 1.637$) and for those with a post-graduate degree ($M= 3.44$, $SD= 1.282$). The lowest mean values belonged to respondents who held a Bachelor's degree ($M= 2.80$, $SD= 1.215$). Therefore, although significant differences exist, exact conclusions cannot be derived from the analysis, as a higher concern towards the political crisis of Myanmar was expressed by the group with the highest qualification and the group with a low qualification. Taking these results into account, H8 was partially supported.

H9: Cognitive risk perceptions differ by PTE.

H10: Affective risk perceptions differ by PTE.



The results showed significance between the factor “safety” and the variable PTE ($\text{sig.} < .01$). The mean values of respondents who had visited Southeast Asia more than 5 times ($M= 3.15$, $SD= 0.985$) and of respondents who had visited Southeast Asia between 1 and 5 times ($M= 3.08$, $SD= 0.964$) were substantially higher compared to respondents who had never been to Southeast Asia ($M= 2.54$, $SD= 0.844$). Therefore, respondents with PTE had a better perception of safety in Myanmar compared to respondents with no PTE. Thus, H9 was supported.

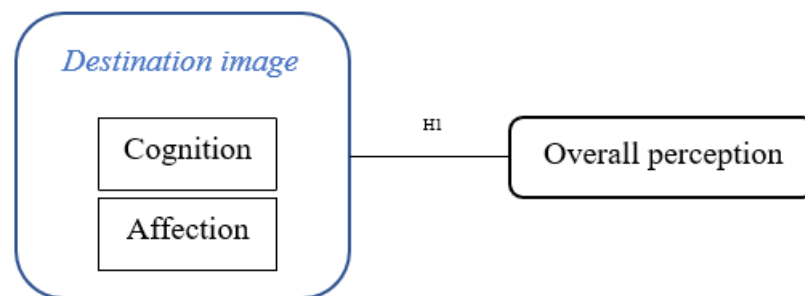
The analysis revealed significance also between the factor “affection-political crisis” and the variable PTE ($\text{sig.} < .05$). Respondents who had never been to Southeast Asia expressed

higher tendency towards negative feelings ($M= 3.11$, $SD= 1.26$), indicating that they showed higher concern towards the political crisis of Myanmar. Consequently, H10 was supported.

5.7 Correlation analysis results

Hypotheses 1, 6 and 11 were tested using a correlation analysis, in order to assess the strength of the relationship between two variables.

H1: The cognitive and affective component of destination image are significantly related to overall perception.



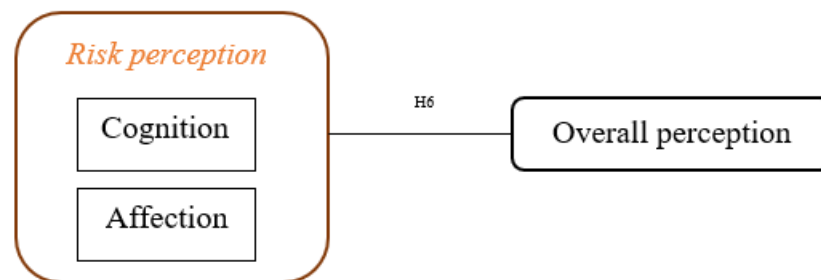
The correlation analysis showed interesting results. A strong positive relationship was observed between overall perception and the factors “attractions” ($r= 0.526$, $\text{sig.} < .01$) and “affection” ($r = 0.395$, $\text{sig.} < .01$) (Table 12). Therefore, a positive perception of the destination’s tourist attractions would result in a positive overall destination perception. Similarly, a tendency towards positive feelings would result in a positive overall destination evaluation. Yet, no significance was observed between the factor “infrastructure” and overall perception. Therefore, H1 was partially supported.

		Overall perception
Infrastructure	Pearson Correlation	0.040
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.569
Attractions	Pearson Correlation	0.526**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
Affection	Pearson Correlation	0.395**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 12: Correlation between destination image and overall perception

H6: The cognitive and affective component of risk perception are significantly related to overall perception



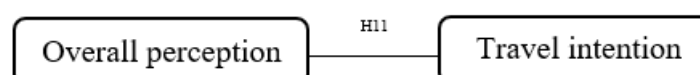
The analysis revealed a strong positive relationship between the cognitive component of risk perception and overall perception ($r = 0.410$, $\text{sig.} < 0.01$) (Table 13). Therefore, a positive perception of safety regarding Myanmar, represented by the items general level of safety, control of crime, political stability and respect of human rights would lead to a positive overall evaluation of the destination. A significant relationship also occurred between the factor “affection-political crisis” and overall perception ($r = 0.153$, $\text{sig.} < .05$). Thus, a tendency towards positive feelings would result in a positive overall evaluation of the destination (and vice versa). Therefore, H6 was supported.

		Overall perception
Safety	Pearson Correlation	0.410**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
Affection - political crisis	Pearson Correlation	0.153*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.027

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)
 ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 13: Correlation between risk perception and overall perception

H11: Overall perception is significantly and positively related to travel intention



The analysis was performed to investigate whether a positive overall perception would positively influence travel intention. A strong relationship was observed between overall

perception and intention to visit ($r = .723$, sig. $< .01$) and overall perception and intention to return ($r = .594$, sig. $< .01$). Consequently, H11 was supported.

		Overall perception
Intention to visit	Pearson Correlation	0.723**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
Intention to return	Pearson Correlation	0.594**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 14: Correlation between overall perception and intention to travel

Hypothesis	Variables	Test	Supported?
H1	Cognitive and affective destination image --> Overall perception	Correlation	Partially
H2	Sociodemographic factors --> Cognitive destination image	ANOVA	No
H3	Sociodemographic factors --> Affective destination image	ANOVA	No
H4	PTE --> Cognitive destination image	ANOVA	Partially
H5	PTE --> Affective destination image	ANOVA	Yes
H6	Cognitive and affective risk perception --> Overall perception	Correlation	Yes
H7	Sociodemographic factors --> Cognitive risk perception	ANOVA	Partially
H8	Sociodemographic factors --> Affective risk perception	ANOVA	Partially
H9	PTE --> Cognitive risk perception	ANOVA	Yes
H10	PTE --> Affective risk perception	ANOVA	Yes
H11	Overall perception --> Travel intention	Correlation	Yes

Table 15: Summary of hypotheses testing

Chapter 6: Discussion

The theoretical foundation of the study consisted in the application of the dual image-risk construct to investigate overall destination perception and travel intention. The research also considered destination image and risk perception to be multidimensional constructs. The factor analysis empirically confirmed this assumption since three underlying dimensions were found for the destination image construct and two underlying dimensions were found for the risk perception construct.

6.1 Hypotheses testing

Hypothesis 1 was posited to assess the strength of the relationship between the cognitive and affective component of destination image and overall destination evaluation. The hypothesis was partially confirmed since significance was observed between overall perception and the affective component of destination image and one of the factors of the cognitive component. In accordance with previous studies (Alvarez & Campo, 2014; Lepp et al., 2011), the affective evaluation of destination image seems to have a stronger relationship with overall perception compared to the cognitive evaluation.

Hypotheses 2 to 5 were developed to investigate differences in image formation on the basis of sociodemographic and stimulus factors. Hypothesis 2 was rejected with the exception of one element that was partially supported since results showed that the “attraction” factor of the cognitive destination image would differ by gender. Hypothesis 3 was rejected since no significant differences were observed between sociodemographic factors and affective destination image. Both findings are opposing previous studies, (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999b; Beerli & Martín, 2004a; Chew & Jahari, 2014) while supporting others (Baloglu, 1997). According to the present study, the formation of destination images does not vary on the basis of sociodemographic factors.

Hypotheses 4 and 5 were posited to investigate any difference between cognitive and affective image formations on the basis of PTE. Hypothesis 4 was partially supported since respondents with previous travel experience had a more positive perception of tourist attractions in Myanmar, while no difference was observed with regards to infrastructure. Hypothesis 5 was supported since respondents with previous travel experience expressed more positive feelings towards Myanmar compared to respondents with no previous travel experience. These findings partially support previous studies (Baloglu, 2000; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a; Beerli & Martín, 2004a), since differences were observed concerning the

perception of tourist attractions of the destination. Remarkably, the findings showed that PTE had a greater impact on the affective component of destination image than on the cognitive one. This suggests that more experienced travellers expressed more positive feelings about Myanmar compared to less experienced ones.

Hypothesis 6 was postulated to investigate the relationship between the cognitive and affective component of risk perception and the overall destination evaluation. The analysis revealed a strong and positive relationship between both components of risk perception and overall evaluation, hence hypothesis 6 was confirmed. In accordance with Becken et al. (2017) and Shim & You (2015), this study supports the assumption that risk perception is indeed formed by a cognitive and an affective component and that both shape the travellers' overall destination evaluation (Nadeau et al., 2008; Perpiña et al., 2020). However, in the present study, a stronger relationship between the cognitive component of risk perception and the overall evaluation was observed, contrasting the findings of Alvarez & Campo (2014) and Perpiña et al. (2020) who found affective evaluations to have more influence on the overall perception.

Hypotheses 7 to 10 were posited to explore potential differences in the cognitive and affective risk perceptions on the basis of sociodemographic and stimulus factors. With regards to cognitive risk perception, results showed significant difference only regarding gender, as male respondents expressed a more negative perception of security items compared to female respondents. These findings are in agreement with previous studies that found differences related to gender only within specific categories of risk perception (Qi et al., 2009; Reichel et al., 2007). When it comes to the affective component, the results also showed significant differences with regards to age. In accordance with previous studies (George & Swart, 2012), older respondents showed higher concerns towards political risks. However, in this study education was not inversely related to risk perception, in opposition to previous studies (Perpiña & Camprubí, 2017; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b). All in all, hypotheses 7 and 8 were partially supported, indicating that, in general, risk perceptions do not vary on the basis of sociodemographic factors.

Hypotheses 9 and 10 were postulated to examine differences in risk perception on the basis of previous travel experience. The results showed significant differences for both components of risk perception, supporting previous studies that assert that more experienced travellers are less sensitive to risk compared to less experienced ones (Isaac, 2020; Lepp & Gibson, 2003;

Perpiña & Camprubí, 2017; Sharifpour et al., 2014; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b). Therefore, hypotheses 9 and 10 were supported, indicating that risk perceptions greatly differ depending on respondent's PTE.

Hypothesis 11 was posited to assess the relationship between overall destination perception and visit intention. The results showed a strong relationship between overall evaluation and intention to visit or return, indicating that a positive overall perception would result in willingness to visit the destination. Hypothesis 11 was therefore supported, in accordance with previous studies (Alvarez & Campo, 2014; Perpiña et al., 2020; Qu et al., 2011).

6.2 Limitations

This research faced a number of limitations. First of all, in the global context of COVID-19, data collection could only be performed online. While conducting the survey online meant being able to reach a vast audience, it also meant that the potential audience was limited to the social media groups and travel forums where the survey was shared. On top of that, the study focused on the Italian market, hence results are not necessarily applicable to different nationalities. It should also be noted that, due to time constraints, the sample size was quite modest, thus findings might not encompass the views of the all Italian population, especially taking into account the fact that participation was on a voluntarily basis. In general, using a non-probability sampling technique implies low level of generalisation. Furthermore, findings are circumscribed to the variables selected as antecedents, namely age, gender, education and PTE, while other potential antecedents were excluded. Also, using the correlation analysis helped uncover relationships between variables, however it did not provide an explanation of the reasons why this relationship exists, nor could be used to define which variables have the most influence. Another limitation of the model's testing is the fact that overall perception was measured by one single question. Moreover, this study did not investigate differences between first time visitors and repeat visitors to Myanmar. Lastly, results are limited to the perception of Myanmar as a tourist destination, hence application of the same model to other destinations could reveal different results.

6.3 Conclusion

Overall, this study revealed some important findings regarding destination image, risk perception and travel intention. First of all, the research supported previous studies (Beerli & Martín, 2004a) that assert that, by combining destination image and risk perception into one behavioural model, positive and negative attributes of the destination can be included in the overall evaluation. The study also indicated that the overall evaluation is strongly related to travel intention, in accordance with Alvarez and Campo (2014) and Perpiña et al. (2020). According to the findings, sociodemographic factors, overall, do not necessarily play a role in destination images formation and risk perceptions. On the contrary, different levels of PTE can cause differences in destination images formation and risk perception. Consequently, it would seem logical to target more experienced travellers, who are already familiar with destinations with similar characteristics. Furthermore, concerning destination image, the affective component seemed to have a higher influence on the overall destination evaluation, suggesting that it is important to convey a message that transmits positive feelings regarding the country. When it comes to risk perception, the cognitive component seemed to be more influential on overall evaluation than the affective one, indicating the necessity of providing clear and transparent information regarding security concerns. By focusing on these elements, potential travellers would develop a positive overall destination evaluation, which would enhance their desire to visit the country.

Chapter 7: Conclusions, recommendations and future research

The aim of this study was to investigate Italians' destination image and risk perception of Myanmar, and their visit intention. Furthermore, the study attempted to integrate the cognitive and affective components of destination image and risk perception in one model, together with investigating potential differences derived from sociodemographic and stimulus factors. In the following chapter, the key findings of the research will be discussed, followed by recommendations.

7.1 Conclusions: key findings

The results of this research showed that travel intention is significantly and positively related to overall destination's perception which, in turn, is significantly related to the cognitive and affective component of destination image and risk perception. Moreover, the results did not reveal any significant difference in destination image formation and risk perception on the basis of sociodemographic factors, while PTE was found to have an important role for both constructs.

In general, the destination image held by the respondents was tendentially positive. Myanmar's natural, cultural and historical attractions were ranked very positively, especially among respondents with previous travel experience in Southeast Asia. In contrast, infrastructure, transports, health service and hygiene were ranked quite poorly. However, respondents expressed positive feelings towards Myanmar. Since results showed that affective destination image plays a crucial role on the formation of the overall evaluation, destination marketers should employ promotional strategies that aim to enhance the emotions of the Italian market towards Myanmar. The emerging concept of emotional marketing focuses on creating an emotional connection between the brand and the consumer (Khuong & Tram, 2015). In its application to destination marketing, promotional campaigns should not focus only on the attributes of the destination, but they should link them to the emotions associated with exploring that particular place by focusing, for instance, on the lifelong memories that travellers can create at the destination.

Respondents also expressed a positive perception of general level of safety and crime control, as opposed to human rights and political stability, and this is not surprising giving the turbulent history of Myanmar. Furthermore, respondents expressed negative feeling concerning the current political crisis. Another important finding concerns the importance of

safety. In fact, the analysis showed that majority of the sample considered safety fundamental when booking a holiday. Although the sample expressed high sensitivity to political crisis, which can impact their decision-making process, they still indicated a strong willingness to visit or return to Myanmar. While it could be said that there is inconsistency between the relevance of safety and its impact on travel behaviour, similar findings are not uncommon in comparable studies (Isaac, 2020; Karl, 2016). All in all, results showed that Italians are willing to visit Myanmar, indicating that it is a valuable market segment for destination marketers to focus on. Yet, the relevance of safety should not be neglected; in fact, as suggested by Liu & Pratt (2017), violent events have a significant long-term impact on tourism demand.

7.2 Empirical and managerial implications

This study has both, empirical and managerial implications. Concerning the former, to date, there are still few studies that have investigated travel behaviour combining the constructs of destination image and risk perception. The present research has assessed the overall destination perception on the basis of cognitive and affective evaluations of destination image and risk perception. Furthermore, it investigated the interplay between these perceptions and sociodemographic and stimulus factors. The model developed was empirically tested and partially supported by the results. Lastly, this study provided empirical evidence on the importance of feelings in the formation of destination image, contributing to the emerging stream of literature that suggests integrating the affective component in destination's perception's studies (Becken et al., 2017; Trumbo et al., 2016).

From a managerial point of view, it is recommended for Myanmar's DMO's to collaborate with Italian tour operators. As discussed, the tourism industry is highly vulnerable to crisis, especially to those related to terrorism, war and political instability, which can have a substantial negative psychological effect on potential tourists. Even if a crisis only happens in a certain area of the country, its consequences usually also affect other parts, or even neighbouring countries (Isaac, 2020; Seabra et al., 2020). Potential travellers, therefore, develop a negative image of the destination, which is exacerbated by negative media coverage. For the industry to recover, all involved stakeholders must collaborate. From a broad perspective, governmental agencies must engage in public relations with the private and the public sector and have an open communication with the media, providing them truthful information about the crisis and the actions taken to solve it (Cavlek, 2002). DMO's

should conduct continuous researches, educate tourists on how to stay safe, and provide information from different sources, such as media and travel advisory (Isaac & Velden, 2018). It is important for DMO's to invest in marketing campaigns aimed to promote an image of safety and security. Moreover, it is necessary to strengthen the relationship between government, DMO's, and inbound and outbound tour operators (Cavlek, 2002).

As suggested by Chilembwe et al. (2019), tour operators interact with travellers prior to their holidays, hence they can answer their questions, clarify the destination's offer and remove potential doubts, thus influencing their decision. Furthermore, while DMO's might promote the destination highlighting attributes they consider appealing, such as well-known natural and cultural attractions, tour operators are more aware of the actual needs and wants of tourists (Chilembwe et al., 2019). As revealed in the findings, safety constitutes nowadays a fundamental need for travellers. As pointed out by Isaac & Velden (2018) and Karl (2016), tour operators can efficiently decrease the level of perceived risk of travellers since, to a certain extent, they become responsible for the tourists' safety. That is due to the fact that they are considered accountable for any injury of their customers, hence they have a strong interest in ensuring their safety. Therefore, if tour operators are selling packages in a certain destination, their customers will trust the destination is safe to visit (Cavlek, 2002). On top of that, tour operators can undertake market researches aimed to segment the market and develop appropriate strategies to target specific groups which are already interested in the destination as suggested by Isaac (2020) and Liu et al. (2016). Based on this study's results, tour operators could direct their promotional efforts towards individuals with more extensive travel experience in Southeast Asia, or those who had already visited Myanmar.

Due to these reasons, the Ministry of Tourism and DMO's in Myanmar should include tour operators in developing effective marketing campaigns, since they play a fundamental role in building consumers' trust. As they are involved in the decision-making process of potential travellers, they can also shape the destination image through different marketing channels, such as advertisements and websites. Websites are particularly important because tour operators have to provide accurate information not only about their products, but also about the destination (Chilembwe et al., 2019). Furthermore, nowadays, tour operators also make use of social media channels, facilitating electronic word of mouth promotion, which is an effective tool to shape tourists' perceptions (Jalilvand et al., 2013; Wang, 2015).

Another advantage of collaborating with tour operators consists in a better protection of the destination's attractions, which, as shown by the study's results, constitute a major strength of Myanmar's image. Since tour operators have an interest in selling high quality products, they will also contribute to its preservation and they can provide valuable suggestions on potential improvements. Moreover, they will also contribute to improving the destination infrastructures to deliver an excellent customers' experience, while benefitting the local communities (Chilembwe et al., 2019). Lastly, they have the necessary tools to implement innovative marketing strategies, such as emotional marketing, to convey the right message to the right audience.

7.3 Recommendations for future research

The present study can be used as a starting point for a number of future researches. First of all, in order to deepen the understanding of Myanmar's destination image and risk perception, other attributes could be investigated. Secondly, it might be worth it investigating variables other than sociodemographic ones, such as source of information, cultural background and tourists' typologies. Another line of research could be to conduct a more detailed examination of degrees of loyalty and their impact on travel behaviour. Furthermore, interesting insights could be gathered through a longitudinal study investigating pre- and post- trip perceptions. Moreover, destination image and risk perception are not the only variables influencing travel intention; future studies could therefore take into consideration other aspects, such as destination awareness. With regards to increasing safety, research could be conducted on effective preventive measures to mitigate the perception of risk. Lastly, from a marketing perspective, the present study suggests conducting research on promotional efforts that can generate positive feelings on one hand, and provide reassurance on safety on the other.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Politics and tourism in the history of Myanmar from 1948 to 1996

Myanmar obtained independence from Britain in 1948, when the socialist leader U Nu became the country's prime minister; however, Myanmar was still very unstable and, due to numerous insurgencies, it was difficult to begin a recovery process. In 1962, the army chief of staff general Ne Win organized a coup, arrested U Nu, and established a social state run by a military council, and in fact starting the period of military ruling that lasted until 2015. The politics of Ne Win was very rigid and aimed to isolate Myanmar from the rest of the world. He nationalized about 15.000 firms, expelled foreign aid agencies and the World Bank and forbid the teaching of English (Butler et al., 2017). Moreover, visa for foreigners were restricted to 24 hours and the tourism sector was privatized, hence the industry was almost non-existent. Visa duration was extended to one week only in 1970 and this regulation remained in place until 1989. Furthermore, tourists access was limited to Rangoon, Mandalay, Bagan and Inle Lake (Michalon, 2017). Consequently, tourism growth was slow and limited, yet an improvement could be seen in 1987, when 41.418 international arrivals were reported (Henderson, 2003).

The same year, Ne Win implemented a monetary reform that devastated Myanmar's economy, and it was the last straw to cause a violent outbreak: the 8888 uprising (named after the crucial events that took place on August 8th, 1988), characterized by political unrest nationwide and numerous killings of civilians (Butler et al., 2017). The already modest tourism growth suffered an abrupt decline as proven by the fact that only 10.000 arrivals were recorded in 1988 (Henderson, 2003). The figure of Aung San Suu Kyi emerged during the riots of 1988, when she held her first public speech, calling out for a peaceful resolution of the conflicts. She then became the symbol of the resistance and the struggles of the people of Myanmar. Although it seemed that the country was moving towards peace, in September 1988 the army suppressed all demonstrations, killed thousands of protesters and established Martial Law under the military body State Law and Order Restoration Council (SLORC), led

by general Saw Maung, who became prime minister (Butler et al., 2017). Under the SLORC, colonial names were abandoned, hence Burma became Myanmar and the capital Rangoon became Yangon. The regime heavily suppressed the opposition, adopting strict surveillance measures, imprisonment of political opponents, and closing all major universities. On top of that, the government was allegedly involved in opiates and amphetamines trafficking (Hudson, 2007).

Remarkably, the SLORC also announced the first democratic elections since 1960. In the meantime, in order to face the newly formed military government, Aung San Suu Kyi, while being on house arrest since 1989, founded the National League for Democracy (NLD). The elections were held in 1990 and were won by the NLD with over 80% of the vote; however, the SLORC did not recognize the opposition's victory and did not free the party's leader (Butler et al., 2017). Due to the brutal repression of the 8888 uprising, together with the elections, Myanmar's situation became of worldwide interest, and the SLORC practices were widely condemned. Aung San Suu Kyi gained increasing global recognition, to the extent that she obtained the Nobel Peace Prize in 1991 due to its effort towards a pacific and democratic Myanmar (Whitney, 1991).

In 1992, general Saw Maung was succeeded by general Than Shwe, similarly violent and anti-democratic. However, he wanted to recover the image of Myanmar and opened the country to foreign investments. In light of this new approach, visa duration was extended to one week in 1994 (Michalon, 2017). Moreover, Ecotourism started to be promoted with the support of international environmental organisations, the Orient Express started to promote luxury cruises in Myanmar and more areas on the country were accessible by tourists (Hudson, 2007). Furthermore, in 1996 the Visit Myanmar Year was organised to promote the country as a tourism destination while showing the achievements of the new regime, whose ruling party, in 1997, changed its name to State Peace and Development Council (SPDC) as further proof of its changed politics. In preparation for the Visit Myanmar Year, the country experienced a massive increase of infrastructure. The number of hotels increased from 18 in 1988 to 450 in 1997 (Michalon, 2017) and, only in 1996, 946 tour guide businesses and 410 tourism enterprises were formed by the government (Reith & Nauright, 2005).

However, this expansion was only possible at the expenses of Burmese people. According to numerous human rights organisations, millions of locals, including women, children and elderly were forced to work to restore heritage sites, railways and the airport's runways in

extremely abusive conditions (Reith & Nauright, 2005). Furthermore, under the “City beautification and development programme”, which aimed to attract foreign investors and tourists by improving the aesthetic of major cities, thousands residents were displaced and forced to relocate (Henderson, 2003). For instance, residents of Palaung were forced to move into ‘ethnic villages’, which were built for tourism purposes (Hudson, 2007). The displaced families were given very little compensation, and any complaint was punishable with imprisonment (Reith & Nauright, 2005). Besides, the ownership of these investments is quite suspicious, showing a strong political interest and a high level of corruption. In fact, about 35% of the investors in the developments in the Inle Lake area were associated with drug trafficking and the notably corrupted construction sector (Michalon, 2017). Myanmar’s natural and cultural heritage also suffered the negative consequences of this rapid growth. The uncontrolled constructions of hotels and golf courses led to the devastation of the natural environment, and international archaeologists denounced poor care and reconstruction of historic buildings (Hudson, 2007).

All in all, the Visit Myanmar Year contributed to grow tourism as 251,000 international arrivals were recorded; yet, this number is about half of the government’s objective, mainly due to the tourism boycott campaigns that ran from 1996 to 2010 (Michalon, 2017).

Appendix B

Online questionnaire – English version

Myanmar

In order to pursue my Master's degree in Tourism Destination Management, I am conducting a research concerning Myanmar (former Burma) as a tourist destination, and the perception that Italian travellers hold about this Nation.

Specifically, the purpose of my research is to evaluate the impact of the recent political turmoil derived from the Rohingya crisis (started in 2017), which led to genocide charges against Aung San Suu Kyi, and the consequences of these events on the image of Myanmar as a tourist destination.

Furthermore, I am investigating whether there are any differences between those who have visited the country and those who only have a geo-political knowledge about it.

In order to achieve my objective, I developed a short and anonymous questionnaire, which can be filled in few minutes.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Part 1: The following questions are meant to evaluate your past travel experiences

Q1 How often have you travelled internationally in the past 5 years?

1. More than 5 times (1)
2. Between 1 and 5 times (2)
3. Never (3)

Skip To: End of Block If How often have you travelled internationally in the past 5 years = Never

Q2 Have you ever been to South East Asia?

4. Yes, more than 5 times (1)
5. Yes, between 1 and 5 times (2)
6. No, never (3)

Skip To: End of Block if Have you ever been to South East Asia?= No, never

Q4 Which countries did you visit?

1. Brunei (1)
 2. Cambodia (2)
 3. East Timor (3)
 4. Indonesia (4)
 5. Laos (5)
 6. Malaysia (6)
 7. Myanmar (former Burma) (7)
 8. Philippines (8)
 9. Singapore (9)
 10. Thailand (10)
 11. Vietnam (11)
-

Display This Question:

If Which countries did you visit = Myanmar (former Burma)

Q5 How many times did you visit Myanmar?

12. Once (1)
 13. Between 2 and 5 times (2)
 14. More than 5 times (3)
-

Part 2: The following questions have the objective of collecting different opinions regarding Myanmar as a tourist destination, analysing the perception of those who have visited the country and those who have not. Please provide an answer even if you have never been to Myanmar, on the basis of your personal knowledge and/or perception.

Q6 On a scale from 1 to 5 (1= Very negative; 5= Very positive), how would you evaluate the following aspects regarding Myanmar?

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)
Natural attractions (1)	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.
Historical attractions (2)	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.
Cultural attractions (3)	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.
Infrastructure (4)	30.	31.	32.	33.	34.
Transports (5)	35.	36.	37.	38.	39.
Health services (6)	40.	41.	42.	43.	44.
Hygiene and cleanliness (7)	45.	46.	47.	48.	49.
General level of safety (8)	50.	51.	52.	53.	54.
Control of crime (9)	55.	56.	57.	58.	59.
Political stability (10)	60.	61.	62.	63.	64.
Respect of human rights (11)	65.	66.	67.	68.	69.

Q7 Please indicate to what extent you perceive the following feelings when thinking about Myanmar

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	
Unpleasant	70.	71.	72.	73.	74.	Pleasant
Distressing	75.	76.	77.	78.	79.	Relaxing
Preoccupation	80.	81.	82.	83.	84.	Calm

Q9 Please indicate to what extent you perceive the following feelings in relation to the political crisis of 2017 in Myanmar (The Rohingya crisis).

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	
Concerned	85.	86.	87.	88.	89.	Unconcerned
Acceptable	90.	91.	92.	93.	94.	Unacceptable

Q10 What is your general perception of Myanmar as a tourism destination?

- Very negative (1)
95. Negative (2)
96. Neutral (3)
97. Positive (4)
98. Very positive (5)

Q12 How would you evaluate tourists' safety in Myanmar?

- Very negative (1)
99. Negative (2)
100. Neutral (3)
101. Positive (4)
102. Very positive (5)

Display This Question:

If Have you ever been to South East Asia = No, Never

Or Which countries did you visit? ≠ Myanmar (former Burma)

Q13 Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statement: “I would like to visit Myanmar in the next 5 years”

Strongly disagree (1)

103. Disagree (2)

104. Neutral (3)

105. Agree (4)

106. Strongly agree (5)

Display This Question:

If Which countries did you visit? = Myanmar (former Burma)

Q14 Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statement: “I would like to return Myanmar in the next 5 years”

Strongly disagree (1)

107. Disagree (2)

108. Neutral (3)

109. Agree (4)

110. Strongly agree (5)

Part 3: The following questions have the objective of evaluating the relevance of security in your choice of tourist destinations.

Q15 On a scale from 1 to 5 (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree), please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statement:

	1= Strongly disagree (1)	2= Disagree (2)	3= Neutral (3)	4= Agree (4)	5= Strongly agree (5)
I consider safety important when booking a holiday (1)	111.	112.	113.	114.	115.
Before going on holiday, I check the security advice published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (2)	116.	117.	118.	119.	120.
I completely avoid travelling during political crisis (3)	121.	122.	123.	124.	125.
I choose travelling to a less dangerous destination rather than stop traveling during political crisis (4)	126.	127.	128.	129.	130.
My travel behaviour has been influenced by political crisis (e.g. Terrorist attacks in Sri Lanka, Turkey, Belgium etc.) (5)	131.	132.	133.	134.	135.
I avoid destination in/close to troubled areas (6)	136.	137.	138.	139.	140.
I only visit countries which I perceive as safe, or stated as safe by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (7)	141.	142.	143.	144.	145.
Political crisis has no impact on my travel behaviour, as such could happen anywhere in the world (8)	146.	147.	148.	149.	150.

Part 4: Personal information**Q16 Age:**

- 151. 18-24 (1)
 - 152. 25-34 (2)
 - 153. 35-44 (3)
 - 154. 45-54 (4)
 - 155. 55-65 (5)
 - 156. More than 65 (6)
-

Q17 Gender:

- 157. Woman (1)
 - 158. Man (2)
 - 159. Other (3)
 - 160. Prefer not to say (4)
-

Q18 Qualifications:

- 161. None (1)
 - 162. Basic or middle school (2)
 - 163. High school (3)
 - 164. Bachelor's (4)
 - 165. Master's (5)
 - 166. Post-graduate (6)
-

Q19 Usually you travel:

- 167. Alone (1)
 - 168. With friends (2)
 - 169. With partner (3)
 - 170. With parents (4)
 - 171. With children (5)
-

Appendix C

Online questionnaire – Italian version

Myanmar

Al fine di conseguire il mio Master in Tourism Destination Management, oggetto del mio lavoro è il Myanmar (ex Birmania) dal punto di vista della destinazione turistica e la conseguente percezione che di tale Nazione hanno i turisti italiani.

In particolare, la mia ricerca ha lo scopo di valutare le implicazioni derivanti dai recenti eventi politici legati alla crisi dei Rohingya -iniziata nel 2017- che ha portato la leader Aung San Suu Kyi ad essere accusata di genocidio e i conseguenti effetti di tali eventi sull'immagine del Myanmar come destinazione turistica.

Scopo della ricerca è inoltre quello di analizzare eventuali differenze tra coloro che hanno visitato il paese e coloro che ne hanno solo una conoscenza geografico-politica.

A tal fine ho sviluppato un breve ed anonimo questionario da compilare in pochi minuti.

Vi ringrazio in anticipo per la collaborazione.

Parte 1: Le seguenti domande hanno lo scopo di valutare le sue esperienze di viaggi internazionali

Q1 Quanti viaggi internazionali ha intrapreso negli ultimi 5 anni?

- Più di 5 (1)
- Tra 1 e 5 (2)
- Nessuno (3)

Skip To: End of Block If Quanti viaggi internazionali ha intrapreso negli ultimi 5 anni? = Nessuno

Q2 Ha mai visitato il Sud Est Asiatico?

- Sì, più di 5 volte (1)
- Sì, tra 1 e 5 volte (2)
- No, mai (3)

Skip To: End of Block If Ha mai visitato il Sud Est Asiatico? = No, mai

Q4 Quali paesi ha visitato?

- Brunei (1)
- Cambogia (2)
- Timor Est (3)
- Indonesia (4)
- Laos (5)
- Malesia (6)
- Myanmar (ex Birmania) (7)
- Filippine (8)
- Singapore (9)
- Tailandia (10)
- Vietnam (11)

Display This Question:

If Quali paesi ha visitato? = Myanmar (ex Birmania)

Q5 Quante volte ha visitato il Myanmar?

- Una volta (1)
 - Tra le 2 e le 5 volte (2)
 - Più di 5 volte (3)
-

Parte 2: Le seguenti domande hanno lo scopo di valutare diverse opinioni riguardo il Myanmar come destinazione turistica, analizzando la percezione sia di chi ha visitato il paese sia di chi non lo ha visitato. Si prega di rispondere alle seguenti domande anche se non si è visitato il Myanmar, basandosi sulla propria personale conoscenza e/o percezione del paese.

Q6 Su una scala da 1 a 5 (1= Molto negativamente; 5= Molto Positivamente), come valuterebbe le seguenti caratteristiche del Myanmar?

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)
Bellezze naturali (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Risorse storiche (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Risorse culturali (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Infrastrutture (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Trasporti (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Assistenza sanitaria (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Igiene e pulizia (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Livello generale di sicurezza (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Controllo della criminalità (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Stabilità politica (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Rispetto dei diritti umani (11)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q7 Indichi in che misura associa le seguenti sensazioni al Myanmar

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	
Spiacevole	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Piacevole
Stress	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Relax
Preoccupazione	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Calma

Q9 In che modo ha vissuto la crisi politica scoppiata in Myanmar nel 2017 (La crisi dei Rohingya)?

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	
Con preoccupazione	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Con indifferenza
Con accettazione	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Con opposizione

Q10 In generale, qual è la sua percezione del Myanmar come destinazione turistica?

- Molto negativa (1)
- Negativa (2)
- Neutrale (3)
- Positiva (4)
- Molto Positiva (5)

Q12 Come valuta la sicurezza per i turisti in Myanmar?

- Molto negativamente (1)
- Negativamente (2)
- Non so (3)
- Positivamente (4)
- Molto positivamente (5)

Display This Question:

*If Ha mai visitato il Sud Est Asiatico? = No, mai
Or Quali paesi ha visitato? != Myanmar (ex Birmania)*

Q13 Indichi quanto è d' accordo con la seguente affermazione: "Mi piacerebbe visitare il Myanmar nei prossimi 5 anni"

- Totalmente in disaccordo (1)
- In disaccordo (2)
- Neutrale (3)
- D'accordo (4)
- Totalmente d' accordo (5)

Display This Question:

If Quali paesi ha visitato? = Myanmar (ex Birmania)

Q14 Su una scala da 1 a 5, indichi quanto è d' accordo con la seguente affermazione: "Mi piacerebbe ritornare in Myanmar nei prossimi 5 anni"

- Totalmente in disaccordo (1)
 - In disaccordo (2)
 - Neutrale (3)
 - D' accordo (4)
 - Totalmente d' accordo (5)
-

Parte 3: Le seguenti domande hanno lo scopo di valutare l'importanza che la sicurezza ha nella sua scelta di una destinazione turistica

Q15 Su una scala da 1 a 5, indichi quanto è d' accordo con le seguenti affermazioni:	1= Totalmente in disaccordo (1)	2= In disaccordo (2)	3= Neutrale (3)	4= D'accordo (4)	5= Totalmente d' accordo (5)
Ritengo la sicurezza importante quando scelgo una destinazione turistica (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Prima di andare in vacanza, controllo l'indice di sicurezza pubblicato dal Ministero degli Affari Esteri (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Evito di viaggiare durante crisi politiche (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
L' instabilità di un paese è un fattore che determina un cambio di destinazione per il mio viaggio (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I miei viaggi sono stati influenzati da alcune crisi politiche (ad esempio, attacchi terroristici in Francia, Belgio, Turchia, Sri Lanka ecc.) (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Evito di visitare paesi politicamente instabili o che confinano con paesi politicamente instabili (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Visito solo paesi che considero sicuri, o considerati tali dal Ministero degli Affari Esteri (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Le crisi politiche non hanno alcuna influenza sui miei viaggi, dato che situazioni del genere potrebbero avvenire ovunque nel mondo (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Parte 4: Informazioni personali

Q16 Fascia d'età:

- 18-24 (1)
 - 25-34 (2)
 - 35-44 (3)
 - 45-54 (4)
 - 55-65 (5)
 - Oltre 65 (6)
-

Q17 Genere:

- Donna (1)
 - Uomo (2)
 - Altro (3)
 - Preferisco non dichiararlo (4)
-

Q18 Titolo di studio:

- Nessuno (1)
 - Licenza elementare o media (2)
 - Diploma di scuola superiore (3)
 - Laurea Triennale (4)
 - Laurea Magistrale (5)
 - Formazione post-laurea (master-dottorato-specializzazione) (6)
-

Q19 Generalmente viaggia:

- Da solo/a (1)
 - Con amici (2)
 - Con partner (3)
 - Con genitori (4)
 - Con figli (5)
-

Appendix D

SPSS Codebook

Notes

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Processor Time	00:00:00.05				
Elapsed Time	00:00:00.04				

PTE1

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position		18	

	Label	How often have you travelled internationally in the past 5 years?		
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	Measurement	Scale		
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Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	1.55		
	Standard Deviation	.642		
	Percentile 25	1.00		
	Percentile 50	1.00		
	Percentile 75	2.00		
Labeled Values	1	More than 5 times	112	53.6%
	2	Between 1 and 5 times	80	38.3%
	3	Never	17	8.1%

PTE2

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	19		
	Label	Have you ever been to South East Asia?		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
	N	Valid	192	
Missing		17		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	2.28		
	Standard Deviation	.755		
	Percentile 25	2.00		
	Percentile 50	2.00		
	Percentile 75	3.00		
Labeled Values	1	Yes, more than 5 times	35	16.7%

2	Yes, between 1 and 5 times	68	32.5%
3	No, never	89	42.6%

Q4_1

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	20		
	Label	Brunei		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	2		
	Missing	207		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	1.00		
	Standard Deviation	.000		
	Percentile 25	1.00		
	Percentile 50	1.00		
	Percentile 75	1.00		
Labeled Values	1	Brunei	2	1.0%

Q4_2

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	21		
	Label	Cambodia		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	41		
	Missing	168		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	1.00		
	Standard Deviation	.000		
	Percentile 25	1.00		
	Percentile 50	1.00		
	Percentile 75	1.00		
Labeled Values	1	Cambogia	41	19.6%

Q4_3

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	22		
	Label	East Timor		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	2		
	Missing	207		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	1.00		
	Standard Deviation	.000		
	Percentile 25	1.00		
	Percentile 50	1.00		
	Percentile 75	1.00		
Labeled Values	1	Timor Est	2	1.0%

Q4_4

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	23		
	Label	Indonesia		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	46		
	Missing	163		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	1.00		
	Standard Deviation	.000		
	Percentile 25	1.00		
	Percentile 50	1.00		
	Percentile 75	1.00		
Labeled Values	1	Indonesia	46	22.0%

Q4_5

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	24		

	Label	Laos		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	22		
	Missing	187		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	1.00		
	Standard Deviation	.000		
	Percentile 25	1.00		
	Percentile 50	1.00		
	Percentile 75	1.00		
Labeled Values	1	Laos	22	10.5%

Q4_6

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	25		
	Label	Malaysia		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	37		
	Missing	172		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	1.00		
	Standard Deviation	.000		
	Percentile 25	1.00		
	Percentile 50	1.00		
	Percentile 75	1.00		
Labeled Values	1	Malesia	37	17.7%

Q4_7

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	26		
	Label	Myanmar (ex Burma)		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		

	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	70		
	Missing	139		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	1.00		
	Standard Deviation	.000		
	Percentile 25	1.00		
	Percentile 50	1.00		
	Percentile 75	1.00		
Labeled Values	1	Myanmar (ex Birmania)	70	33.5%

Q4_8

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	27		
	Label	Philippines		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	13		
	Missing	196		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	1.00		
	Standard Deviation	.000		
	Percentile 25	1.00		
	Percentile 50	1.00		
	Percentile 75	1.00		
Labeled Values	1	Filippine	13	6.2%

Q4_9

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	28		
	Label	Singapore		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	39		

	Missing	170		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	1.00		
	Standard Deviation	.000		
	Percentile 25	1.00		
	Percentile 50	1.00		
	Percentile 75	1.00		
Labeled Values	1	Singapore	39	18.7%

Q4_10

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	29		
	Label	Thailans		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	73		
	Missing	136		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	1.00		
	Standard Deviation	.000		
	Percentile 25	1.00		
	Percentile 50	1.00		
	Percentile 75	1.00		
Labeled Values	1	Tailandia	73	34.9%

Q4_11

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	30		
	Label	Vietnam		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	44		
	Missing	165		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	1.00		
	Standard Deviation	.000		
	Percentile 25	1.00		

	Percentile 50	1.00		
	Percentile 75	1.00		
Labeled Values	1	Vietnam	44	21.1%

PTE3

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	31		
	Label	How many times did you visit Myanmar?		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
	N	Valid	70	
Missing		139		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	1.50		
	Standard Deviation	.794		
	Percentile 25	1.00		
	Percentile 50	1.00		
	Percentile 75	2.00		
Labeled Values	1	Once	48	23.0%
	2	Between 2 and 5 times	9	4.3%
	3	More than 5 times	13	6.2%

Dlc1

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	32		
	Label	Natural attractions		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	209		
	Missing	0		

Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean		4.24	
	Standard Deviation		.883	
	Percentile 25		4.00	
	Percentile 50		4.00	
	Percentile 75		5.00	
Labeled Values	1	1	4	1.9%
	2	2	2	1.0%
	3	3	32	15.3%
	4	4	73	34.9%
	5	5	98	46.9%

Dlc2

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position		33	
	Label	Historical attractions		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid		209	
	Missing		0	
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean		3.97	
	Standard Deviation		.982	
	Percentile 25		3.00	
	Percentile 50		4.00	
	Percentile 75		5.00	
Labeled Values	1	1	4	1.9%
	2	2	11	5.3%
	3	3	47	22.5%
	4	4	73	34.9%
	5	5	74	35.4%

Dlc3

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position		34	
	Label	Cultural attractions		

	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	209		
	Missing	0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	3.98		
	Standard Deviation	.961		
	Percentile 25	3.00		
	Percentile 50	4.00		
	Percentile 75	5.00		
Labeled Values	1	1	5	2.4%
	2	2	6	2.9%
	3	3	50	23.9%
	4	4	75	35.9%
	5	5	73	34.9%

Dlc4

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	35		
	Label	Infrastructure		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	209		
	Missing	0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	2.65		
	Standard Deviation	.882		
	Percentile 25	2.00		
	Percentile 50	3.00		
	Percentile 75	3.00		
Labeled Values	1	1	21	10.0%
	2	2	64	30.6%
	3	3	96	45.9%
	4	4	24	11.5%
	5	5	4	1.9%

Dlc5

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	36		
	Label	Transports		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	209		
	Missing	0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	2.56		
	Standard Deviation	.865		
	Percentile 25	2.00		
	Percentile 50	3.00		
	Percentile 75	3.00		
Labeled Values	1	1	25	12.0%
	2	2	66	31.6%
	3	3	97	46.4%
	4	4	18	8.6%
	5	5	3	1.4%

Dlc6

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	37		
	Label	Health services		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	209		
	Missing	0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	2.35		
	Standard Deviation	.908		
	Percentile 25	2.00		
	Percentile 50	2.00		
	Percentile 75	3.00		
Labeled Values	1	1	44	21.1%
	2	2	64	30.6%
	3	3	87	41.6%

	4	4	12	5.7%
	5	5	2	1.0%

Dlc7

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	38		
	Label	Hygiene and cleanliness		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	209		
	Missing	0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	2.54		
	Standard Deviation	.909		
	Percentile 25	2.00		
	Percentile 50	3.00		
	Percentile 75	3.00		
Labeled Values	1	1	29	13.9%
	2	2	65	31.1%
	3	3	92	44.0%
	4	4	19	9.1%
	5	5	4	1.9%

RPc1

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	39		
	Label	General level of safety		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	209		
	Missing	0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	3.22		
	Standard Deviation	1.055		

	Percentile 25		3.00	
	Percentile 50		3.00	
	Percentile 75		4.00	
Labeled Values	1	1	11	5.3%
	2	2	39	18.7%
	3	3	79	37.8%
	4	4	54	25.8%
	5	5	26	12.4%

RPC2

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position		40	
	Label	Control of crime		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid		209	
	Missing		0	
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean		3.11	
	Standard Deviation		.994	
	Percentile 25		3.00	
	Percentile 50		3.00	
	Percentile 75		4.00	
Labeled Values	1	1	12	5.7%
	2	2	38	18.2%
	3	3	94	45.0%
	4	4	46	22.0%
	5	5	19	9.1%

RPC3

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position		41	
	Label	Political stability		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		

N	Valid	209		
	Missing	0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	2.56		
	Standard Deviation	.918		
	Percentile 25	2.00		
	Percentile 50	3.00		
	Percentile 75	3.00		
Labeled Values	1	1	25	12.0%
	2	2	73	34.9%
	3	3	84	40.2%
	4	4	22	10.5%
	5	5	5	2.4%

RPc4

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	42		
	Label	Respect of human rights		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	209		
	Missing	0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	2.41		
	Standard Deviation	.982		
	Percentile 25	2.00		
	Percentile 50	2.00		
	Percentile 75	3.00		
Labeled Values	1	1	38	18.2%
	2	2	77	36.8%
	3	3	71	34.0%
	4	4	16	7.7%
	5	5	7	3.3%

Dla1

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	43		

	Label	Unpleasant:Pleasant		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	209		
	Missing	0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	3.43		
	Standard Deviation	1.463		
	Percentile 25	2.00		
	Percentile 50	4.00		
	Percentile 75	5.00		
Labeled Values	1	1	36	17.2%
	2	2	20	9.6%
	3	3	41	19.6%
	4	4	43	20.6%
	5	5	69	33.0%

Dla2

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	44		
	Label	Distressing:Relaxing		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	209		
	Missing	0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	3.21		
	Standard Deviation	1.366		
	Percentile 25	2.00		
	Percentile 50	3.00		
	Percentile 75	4.00		
Labeled Values	1	1	36	17.2%
	2	2	25	12.0%
	3	3	52	24.9%
	4	4	52	24.9%

5	5	44	21.1%
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Dla3

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	45		
	Label	Preoccupation:Calam		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	209		
	Missing	0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	3.15		
	Standard Deviation	1.380		
	Percentile 25	2.00		
	Percentile 50	3.00		
	Percentile 75	4.00		
Labeled Values	1	1	33	15.8%
	2	2	38	18.2%
	3	3	51	24.4%
	4	4	39	18.7%
	5	5	48	23.0%

RPa1

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	46		
	Label	Concerned:Unconcerned		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	209		
	Missing	0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	2.76		
	Standard Deviation	1.355		
	Percentile 25	2.00		

	Percentile 50		3.00	
	Percentile 75		4.00	
Labeled Values	1	1	49	23.4%
	2	2	40	19.1%
	3	3	67	32.1%
	4	4	18	8.6%
	5	5	35	16.7%

RPa2

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	47		
	Label	Acceptable:Unacceptable		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	209		
	Missing	0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	3.13		
	Standard Deviation	1.189		
	Percentile 25	3.00		
	Percentile 50	3.00		
	Percentile 75	4.00		
Labeled Values	1	1	28	13.4%
	2	2	17	8.1%
	3	3	97	46.4%
	4	4	33	15.8%
	5	5	34	16.3%

OP

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	48		

	Label	What is your general perception of Myanmar as a tourism destination?		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	209		
	Missing	0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	3.87		
	Standard Deviation	.981		
	Percentile 25	3.00		
	Percentile 50	4.00		
	Percentile 75	5.00		
Labeled Values	1	Very negative	5	2.4%
	2	Negative	12	5.7%
	3	Neither positive or negative	50	23.9%
	4	Positive	81	38.8%
	5	Very positive	61	29.2%

IT1

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	50		
	Label	I would like to visit Myanmar in the next 5 years		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
	N	Valid	139	
Missing		70		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	3.70		
	Standard Deviation	1.196		
	Percentile 25	3.00		
	Percentile 50	4.00		

	Percentile 75	5.00		
Labeled Values	1	Strongly disagree	11	5.3%
	2	Disagree	10	4.8%
	3	Neither agree or disagree	30	14.4%
	4	Agree	47	22.5%
	5	Strongly agree	41	19.6%

IT2

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	51		
	Label	I would like to return to Myanmar in the next 5 years		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
	N	Valid	70	
Missing		139		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	4.39		
	Standard Deviation	.937		
	Percentile 25	4.00		
	Percentile 50	5.00		
	Percentile 75	5.00		
Labeled Values	1	Strongly disagree	1	0.5%
	2	Disagree	4	1.9%
	3	Neither agree or disagree	4	1.9%
	4	Agree	19	9.1%
	5	Strongly agree	42	20.1%

Q15_1

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	52		

	Label	I consider safety important when booking a holiday		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	209		
	Missing	0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	4.16		
	Standard Deviation	.916		
	Percentile 25	4.00		
	Percentile 50	4.00		
	Percentile 75	5.00		
Labeled Values	1	Strongly disagree	4	1.9%
	2	Disagree	9	4.3%
	3	Neither agree or disagree	22	10.5%
	4	Agree	88	42.1%
	5	Strongly agree	86	41.1%

Q15_2

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	53		
	Label	Before going on holiday, I check the security advice published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
	N	Valid	209	
Missing		0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	3.42		
	Standard Deviation	1.203		
	Percentile 25	3.00		
	Percentile 50	4.00		

	Percentile 75	4.00		
Labeled Values	1	Strongly disagree	15	7.2%
	2	Disagree	34	16.3%
	3	Neither agree or disagree	54	25.8%
	4	Agree	60	28.7%
	5	Strongly agree	46	22.0%

Q15_3

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	54		
	Label	I completely avoid travelling during political crisis		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
	N	Valid	209	
Missing		0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	4.02		
	Standard Deviation	.992		
	Percentile 25	3.00		
	Percentile 50	4.00		
	Percentile 75	5.00		
Labeled Values	1	Strongly disagree	5	2.4%
	2	Disagree	11	5.3%
	3	Neither agree or disagree	37	17.7%
	4	Agree	77	36.8%
	5	Strongly agree	79	37.8%

Q15_4

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	55		

	Label	I choose travelling to a less dangerous destination rather than stop traveling during political crisis		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	209		
	Missing	0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	3.86		
	Standard Deviation	1.055		
	Percentile 25	3.00		
	Percentile 50	4.00		
	Percentile 75	5.00		
Labeled Values	1	Strongly disagree	6	2.9%
	2	Disagree	19	9.1%
	3	Neither agree or disagree	40	19.1%
	4	Agree	78	37.3%
	5	Strongly agree	66	31.6%

Q15_5

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	56		
	Label	My travel behaviour has been influenced by political crisis (e.g. Terrorist attacks in Sri Lanka, Turkey, Belgium etc.)		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		

N	Valid		209	
	Missing		0	
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean		3.27	
	Standard Deviation		1.219	
	Percentile 25		2.00	
	Percentile 50		3.00	
	Percentile 75		4.00	
Labeled Values	1	Strongly disagree	21	10.0%
	2	Disagree	38	18.2%
	3	Neither agree or disagree	47	22.5%
	4	Agree	70	33.5%
	5	Strongly agree	33	15.8%

Q15_6

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position		57	
	Label	I avoid destination in/close to troubled areas		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
	N	Valid		209
Missing			0	
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean		3.38	
	Standard Deviation		1.108	
	Percentile 25		3.00	
	Percentile 50		4.00	
	Percentile 75		4.00	
Labeled Values	1	Strongly disagree	11	5.3%
	2	Disagree	37	17.7%
	3	Neither agree or disagree	55	26.3%
	4	Agree	73	34.9%
	5	Strongly agree	33	15.8%

Q15_7

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	58		
	Label	I only visit countries which I perceive as safe, or stated as safe by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
	N	Valid	209	
Missing		0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	3.34		
	Standard Deviation	1.111		
	Percentile 25	3.00		
	Percentile 50	3.00		
	Percentile 75	4.00		
Labeled Values	1	Strongly disagree	12	5.7%
	2	Disagree	39	18.7%
	3	Neither agree or disagree	54	25.8%
	4	Agree	74	35.4%
	5	Strongly agree	30	14.4%

Q15_8

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	59		
	Label	Political crisis has no impact on my travel behaviour, as such could happen anywhere in the world		
	Type	Numeric		

	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	209		
	Missing	0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	2.68		
	Standard Deviation	1.116		
	Percentile 25	2.00		
	Percentile 50	3.00		
	Percentile 75	4.00		
Labeled Values	1	Strongly disagree	30	14.4%
	2	Disagree	72	34.4%
	3	Neither agree or disagree	52	24.9%
	4	Agree	44	21.1%
	5	Strongly agree	11	5.3%

Q16

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	60		
	Label	Age		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	209		
	Missing	0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	3.11		
	Standard Deviation	1.420		
	Percentile 25	2.00		
	Percentile 50	3.00		
	Percentile 75	4.00		
Labeled Values	1	18-24	21	10.0%
	2	25-34	76	36.4%
	3	35-44	24	11.5%
	4	45-54	45	21.5%
	5	55-65	34	16.3%
	6	65 +	9	4.3%

Q17

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	61		
	Label	Gender		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	209		
	Missing	0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	1.44		
	Standard Deviation	.561		
	Percentile 25	1.00		
	Percentile 50	1.00		
	Percentile 75	2.00		
Labeled Values	1	Female	123	58.9%
	2	Male	83	39.7%
	3	Other	1	0.5%
	4	Prefer not to say	2	1.0%

Q18

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Position	62		
	Label	Qualifications		
	Type	Numeric		
	Format	F40		
	Measurement	Scale		
	Role	Input		
N	Valid	209		
	Missing	0		
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	4.26		
	Standard Deviation	1.170		
	Percentile 25	3.00		
	Percentile 50	4.00		
	Percentile 75	5.00		
Labeled Values	1	None	1	0.5%
	2	Basic or middle school	8	3.8%

	3	High school	58	27.8%
	4	Bachelor's	44	21.1%
	5	Master's	64	30.6%
	6	Post-graduate	34	16.3%

DI_Cognition_Infrastructure

		Value
Standard Attributes	Position	68
	Label	REGR factor score 1 for analysis 8
	Type	Numeric
	Format	F11.5
	Measurement	Scale
	Role	Input
N	Valid	209
	Missing	0
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	.0000000
	Standard Deviation	1.0000000
	Percentile 25	-.6668871
	Percentile 50	.0371627
	Percentile 75	.6949203

DI_Affection

		Value
Standard Attributes	Position	69
	Label	REGR factor score 2 for analysis 8
	Type	Numeric
	Format	F11.5
	Measurement	Scale
	Role	Input
N	Valid	209
	Missing	0
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	.0000000
	Standard Deviation	1.0000000
	Percentile 25	-.8131146

Percentile 50	.1041242
Percentile 75	.8679101

DI_Cognition_Attractions

		Value
Standard Attributes	Position	70
	Label	REGR factor score 3 for analysis 8
	Type	Numeric
	Format	F11.5
	Measurement	Scale
	Role	Input
	N	Valid
Missing		0
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	.0000000
	Standard Deviation	1.0000000
	Percentile 25	-.6363196
	Percentile 50	.0880444
	Percentile 75	.7923214

RPCOGN

		Value
Standard Attributes	Position	71
	Label	REGR factor score 1 for analysis 11
	Type	Numeric
	Format	F11.5
	Measurement	Scale
	Role	Input
	N	Valid
Missing		0
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	.0000000
	Standard Deviation	1.0000000
	Percentile 25	-.6079312
	Percentile 50	.1182103
	Percentile 75	.5247587

RPAFF

		Value
Standard Attributes	Position	72
	Label	REGR factor score 2 for analysis 11
	Type	Numeric
	Format	F11.5
	Measurement	Scale
	Role	Input
	N	Valid
Missing		0
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	.0000000
	Standard Deviation	1.0000000
	Percentile 25	-.7539898
	Percentile 50	-.1080795
	Percentile 75	.7102418

RPa1_REC0DE

		Value
Standard Attributes	Position	75
	Label	REC0DE_RP_A FF
	Type	Numeric
	Format	F8.2
	Measurement	Scale
	Role	Input
	N	Valid
Missing		0
Central Tendency and Dispersion	Mean	3.2392
	Standard Deviation	1.35526
	Percentile 25	2.0000
	Percentile 50	3.0000
	Percentile 75	4.0000