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TOURISTS' INTENTION TO VISIT POST-DISASTER DESTINATION

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Abstract *– Lombok was hit by an earthquake of 7.0 magnitude on the mid of 2017. As a tourist destination, such disaster had a negative impact where its inbound tourist decreased to almost 75% on the following year. However, there is a possibility that Lombok may shift its destination image into a post-disaster destination. Such concept has been documented on tourism literatures, where scholars investigate the peculiarities of tourists' travel motivation to the post-disaster destinations. However, there is a lack of investigation regarding the negative tourists' motivations in the context of post-disaster destinations. Thus, this study aims to fill this gap by investigating the relationships of perceived risks and travel constraints toward tourists' intention to visit. Additionally, using the push-pull motivation theory, this study also investigates the mediating effect of destination image.*

Keywords: *Post-disaster destination; perceived risks; destination image; revisit intention; Indonesia*

INTRODUCTION

The Indonesian government boost the tourism sector to attract more tourists. This achievement is proven by Indonesia which is ranked 9th in the world's fastest tourism growth, this is based on data from the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), September 2018. The above statement is evidenced by the Growth Graph for Archipelago Tourists issued by BPS (Central Statistics Agency).

The growth in the number of domestic tourists has increased from 256,419,006 people in the 2015 period to 264,337,518 people in 2016, after that it again experienced an increase in the following year totaling 270,882,003 people and experiencing a quite drastic increase of 303,403,888 in 2018. There are various tourist attractions that have a high appeal to tourists such as Bali, Lake Toba, Labuan Bajo, Raja Ampat and so on. One of Indonesia's most visited tourism destinations is Gili Trawangan, which is in Lombok, West Nusa Tenggara. Gili

Trawangan is one of the three popular tourist destinations in Lombok. Gili Trawangan has interesting facilities that can be used as a tourist attraction. This island is famous for its beautiful island among tourists and divers. Therefore, there are many tourism activities that can be done by visiting tourists such as snorkeling, cycling around the island, diving, and enjoying the sunset with views of Mount Rinjani (dilombok.com). The number of tourists has fluctuated even in 2018 there was a decrease in visits compared to 2017. Meanwhile, based on data on the growth of domestic tourists in Indonesia, the number of tourists has increased, this decrease was caused by an earthquake.

The earthquake that occurred had an earthquake frequency of 7.0 magnitude with the epicenter at a depth of 15 km and was on land 18 km northwest of East Lombok, West Nusa Tenggara Province (bmkg.go.id). The intensity scale of the earthquake impact on Gili Trawangan was moderately damaged. Therefore, it is necessary to make efforts to attract visitors to Gili Trawangan, Lombok from the aftermath of the earthquake and what are the implications for the interest of tourists to visit Gili Trawangan. A disaster is an event or series of events that threatens and disrupts human life and livelihoods caused, both by natural and / or non-natural factors, as well as human factors resulting in human casualties, environmental damage, property loss. objects and psychological impact. Thus, due to the earthquake that occurred in Gili Trawangan, it will lead to a perception of potential consumers, namely the perception of risk.

Based on previous research conducted by Artuger (2015), it is revealed that the perception of risk with the habits of vacationers in Marmais has a significant and significant influence on the interest in returning to visit. Similar results were found by Hasan et al (2017), which revealed that risk perceptions had a significant and significant influence on interest in returning to visit. Then Chairunnisa & Siregar (2019), in their research, stated that there are several risks that tourists consider when traveling, including physical risks and psychological risks. Physical risks are health and

safety risks. Physical risk can be interpreted as a person's concern over their physical condition as a result of using a product. In tourism, physical risk refers to the possibility of experiencing physical injury or illness while on a tour.

Apart from physical risks, another risk that tourists consider is psychological risk. Schiffman & Kanuk (2010), psychological risk is defined as the feeling that is felt, emotion, or ego that will be felt by a consumer because of buying, consuming, or using a product, be it a good or a service. In tourism, psychological risk refers to the satisfaction of personal travel and this risk arises when there is a mismatch between the holiday destination and the self-image of the traveler. Similarly, Fatimah (2019) explained that the image of the destination has a positive and significant effect on the interest in visiting again. Furthermore, research conducted by Tan (2017) concluded that the Destination Image variable had a positive and significant effect on Returning Interest. Furthermore, research conducted by (Timur, 2018) shows that the image of the destination has a mediating effect between variables on interest in returning to visit.

Research on post-disaster destinations mainly focused on tourists' motivation to commemorate a national catastrophic event and seek an authentic experience related to the post-disaster remains (Wang, 2017). However, tourists would have to deal with potential risks that constitute a substantial psychological process to determine their decision to visit a post-disaster destination (Zheng et al., 2016). Along with this, they also struggle with various personal constraints that must be negotiated to overcome potential travel barriers (Biran et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2016). In this regard, although post-disaster destinations offer the opportunities for adventurous and discovery related motivations, little research has been done to investigate the internal struggle that tourists have to deal to overcome their risks and constraints to travel. Thus, Chew and Jahari (2014) and Wang et al. (2020) call for studies to investigate factors that have negative consequences on tourists' intention to visit a post-disaster destination. Based on previous studies, such negative factors are perceived risks and travel constraints.

Following the discussion an area of research has been discovered, and this study aims to fill the research gap by investigating the influence of perceived risks and travel constraints among Indonesian domestic tourists to visit Lombok as a post-disaster destination. On top of that, this study would also investigate the mediating effect of destination image, which act as the evaluative properties of travelers regarding the destination's tourism infrastructure (Khan et al., 2019). Accordingly, this study would employ the push-pull motivation theory to explain the tourists' decision-making process and expand the theory within the context of post-disaster tourism studies. Finally, this study contributes to the literature by investigating the negative antecedents that might impede the travelers' intention to revisit a post-disaster destination.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Push-Pull Motivation

Research in tourism is focused on the motives of visitors and why they travel (Devesa et al., 2010). Visitors' motivation generated by a set of individual needs that can be satisfied by visiting a destination or experiencing an attraction (Meng, Tepanon, & Uysal, 2018). In this sense, visitor motivation is considered as a crucial factor that explains visitor behavior (Chang et al., 2014). In other words, motivation is the most important driver of visitors' behavior, which intended to fulfill their need (Dean & Suhartanto, 2019).

The push-pull motivation concept is a widely accepted concept among scholars, which enable them to investigate visitors' travel behavior (Battour et al., 2017; Suni & Pesonen, 2019; Xu & Chan, 2016). Push factors refer to the travelers' purpose of a particular visit, in which they seek for the benefits during their travel on a destination. Push motivations are driven internally to fulfill the needs of relaxation, escape, interaction with others, health, education purpose, status, as well as discovery and adventure (Prebensen et al., 2013). As the result, push motivations reflect the emotional aspects where tourists would ensure them to be fulfilled as they evaluate potential attractions, destinations, and any other tourism features on offer (Tang, 2014).

Meanwhile, pull motivation represents the alignment between a particular attraction or destination and tourists' push motivation factors (Valduga et al., 2019). There are two forms of pull motivation factors. Firstly, pull motivation could be tangible in nature, such as specific facilities, price value, accessible services, reputation, and staff hospitality. Secondly, they also may comprise of intangible characteristics that would depend on the visitor's evaluation, perceptions, expectations and interpretation regarding image, uniqueness, and perceived contrast from home in terms of culture,

food, language, and the overall environment (Prayag, 2012). Tourists mainly consider the pull motivation factors as attractions that would provide a unique experience for them. Thus, pull motivations generally comprise of external attributes that are likely to cater the visitor's push motivation (Suni & Pesonen, 2019).

Perceived Risk

Perceived risk is defined as consumer perception about uncertainty and the adverse consequences of buying a product and service (Dowling & Staelin, 2014), or performing a certain activity. In the tourism contexts, risks would be related to travel decisions due to its ability to change the destination choice or intention to travel incidences of crime, terrorism, natural disasters, accidents, and epidemics individually or collectively increase the risk perceptions and affect tourist arrival to destinations (Chew & Jahari, 2014; Fuchs & Reichel, 2016; Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2016). Security and safety issues linked with the destination receive are of primary importance among travellers (Poon & Adams, 2012).

A systemic review by Yang, Khoo-Lattimore, and Arcodia (2017) found that health, physical, financial, performance, and socio-psychological risks were the most common travel risks captured by previous studies. Health risk was mainly associated with contracting diseases, illness, and injury due to unsafe sexual behaviour, unsafe food and water, and unhygienic conditions. However, Roehl and Fesenmaier (2012) considered risks related to contracting disease, illness, crime and safety, and violence as physical risk. In the context of young travelers, time risk is an important factor in defining travel behaviour as young people have more commitments than older people such as studies, work, and family. Meanwhile, socio-psychological risks are related to the congruence of people's personal and social view of their self-image with a particular destination's image.

Travel Constraints

Travelers are susceptible to specific risks such as health, theft, violent crimes and sexual harassment (Amir et al., 2015; Brown and Osman, 2017; Sham et al., 2012; Yang et al., 2017b). In addition, travelers must deal with travel constraints such as conspicuousness, restricted access, and vulnerability (Wilson and Little, 2014). Nevertheless, many trevelers consider traveling activities to embrace independence and empowerment despite the difficulties they have to overcome the travel constraints.

Travel constraints refer to the barriers or reasons that avoid tourists to visit a specific destination. It confines continual traveling activities which leads to a negative travel experience. In other words, travel constraints are the key factors that prevent people from initiating or continuing any travel activities (Kerstetter, Yen, & Yarnal, 2013). In leisure tourism context, travel constraints are determined by both internal and external factors that limit the formation of leisure preferences and thus, impede participation and enjoyment of travel (Hung & Petrick, 2012). However, in many instances, individuals implement constraint negotiation process as a mean to reduce the travel constraints, which allow them to participate in travel activities.

The most widely used model of travel constraints in tourism studies is the hierarchical model (Zheng et al., 2018). In this model, constraints comprise of three different categories, such as intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints that simultaneously inhibit travel and leisure activities (Mohammad J. Khan et al., 2019). Intrapersonal constraints are related to individual psychological states and attributes that influence his or her preferences (e.g., lack of interest and concern). Interpersonal constraints are the absence of social interactions, relationships, companion, and approval (e.g., family members and friends). Meanwhile, structural constraints consist of external factors that might hinder individual's preference and participation to travel, such as lack of time and money, destination environment, distance to the destination, climate, seasonality, safety, security, travel document applications, lack of transportation, accommodations, and tourism promotions. Therefore, people are required to overcome those constraints effectively to participate in travel activities.

Destination Image

The primary definitions of destination image consider the totality of beliefs, ideas and impressions that people hold about a destination. In this sense, destination image captures multiple pull factors that attract visitors to visit a particular destination (Chew & Jahari, 2014). The positive image of a destination is thus become the crucial factor for future visit behavior (Molinillo et al., 2018),

while enhancing its competitiveness (Ritchie and Crouch, 2010). Further, destination image also reflects the mental state a person grasps about a destination, regarding its tourism infrastructure to cultural, natural, and social attributes (Beerli & Martin, 2018). In other words, destination image consists of physical attributes of a destination that are evaluated by people, to provide a positive travel experience (Prayag & Ryan, 2018; Ryan & Gu, 2017). As such, destination image covers a holistic view that is perceived about a destination.

Previous studies documented the role of destination images within the context of post-disaster destination. Gannon et al. (2017) found that positive global image, local hospitality, cultural and heritage values, and safety are among the destination image attributes that are expected to be provided on domestic halal destinations. Meanwhile, Nassar et al. (2015) revealed that educational opportunities along with humbleness, self-aware, and national pride are expected to be experienced by tourists when visiting a domestic halal destination. Additionally, local food, climate, and place attachment are also considered as the important destination image that would attract visitors (Khan et al., 2017). Based on the discussion, destination image revealed the alignment between tourists' motivation and their expectation before, during and after a visit (Gannon et al., 2017). In turn, destination image would influence tourists' intention or re-visit intention toward a destination (Afshardoost & Eshaghi, 2020).

Visit Intention

Intention is referred as the guidance or plans that people created by themselves to act in particular manners. Such guidance is driven by personal motivational and psychological factors, such as attitude, perception, social norms, personal effort and willingness to perform a particular behavior (Ajzen, 2011). In turn, those motivations would be reasoned consciously as in their decision-making purposes (Grunert et al., 2012). In general, people's revisit intention would be manifested in through returning to the previous destination due to its memorable experiences and the destination's tourism infrastructure that fulfill the travelers' needs (Ubjaan, 2017). In terms of managerial concern, these factors or beliefs need to be identified, to make sense of consumers' decision-making process. This implies that the data acquired from consumers' revisit intention would allow the tourism practitioners to meet tourists' needs and expectations (Fatimah, 2019).

Hypotheses development and Research framework

Travel risks mainly consist of the negative consequences that tourists have to encounter, particularly when deciding to visit a post-disaster destination (Chew and Jauhari, 2013). The recovery of tourism infrastructure, food safety, communication and transportation issues are the concerns that might increase tourists' perceived risks (Khan et al., 2017). Additionally, social opinions when deciding to visit a post-disaster destination also might deteriorate a persons' self-image. As a result, reducing tourists' intention to visit a post-disaster destination (Zheng et al., 2018). Following the discussion, a hypothesis is stated as follows:

H1. There is a negative effect between perceived risks and intention to visit.

Travel constraints might impede tourists' intention to visit a destination. Lack of money, time, information, absence of companion and safety generally become the reasons of constraints among travelers. Accordingly, travel constraints would have a negative relationship toward intention to visit a destination. For example, past study found that lack information on a destination and absence of companion become the young women constraints on their intention to visit India (Khan et al., 2019). Meanwhile, potential radiation contamination and anti-Japanese sentiments are the constraints that impede Chinese college students's intention to visit Japan (Yang and Tung, 2017). Finally, social expectations and approval from significant others impede the intention of Malaysian Muslim women to conduct their travel activities (Ratthinan & Selamat, 2019). Following the discussion, the hypothesis is stated as follows:

H2. There is a negative effect between travel constraints and intention to visit.

Future travel behavior is largely affected by perceived images of safety and risk. People tend to avoid revisiting places deemed as risky and such behavior may depend on the types of risks (Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2019). Similarly, different types of risks may contribute in different ways to image formation. Therefore, in this study risks would capture both physical and socio-psychological risks, which are the type of risks that experienced mostly by tourists within the post-disaster tourism

context. Previous research conducted by Chairunnisa and Siregar (2019), the results indicated that physical risk and socio-psychological risks had a negative and significant effect on cognitive image. Similarly, the research conducted by Chew & Jahari (2014) revealed that Physical Risk and socio-psychological risks had a negative and significant effect on destination image. Drawing from the discussion, the hypothesis is stated as follows:

H3. There is a negative effect between Perceived Risk and Destination image.

Tourists' visit on a destination would be hindered if they face constraints, both internally and externally. As a result, tourists would not be compensated even when a destination has a positive image and excellent reputation. Previous studies have documented the negative relationship between travel constraints and destination image. Khan et al. (2017) found that young Malaysian women's constraints lack of travel interest among peers and expensive ticket price have a negative relationship with destination image. Chinese tourists' feeling lack of security and safety and current nuclear weapon testing have damaged North Korea's destination image, indicating a negative relationship (Li et al., 2018). Another study found that extreme cultural and religious difference are the constraints among Taiwan students which have a negative impact toward Brunei's destination image (Chen et al., 2013). Following the discussion, the hypothesis is stated as follows:

H4. There is a negative effect between travel constraints and destination image.

As tourists' total belief and evaluation, destination image represents the overall performance perceived by tourists. It also comprises of both physical tourism infrastructure and subjectively evaluated experience that attract tourists into a destination. In turn, destination image would have a positive relationship toward intention to visit. Previous studies have confirmed such positive relationships. Cuba's destination image such as local festivals, beautiful landscape, and quality restaurants have a positive influence on US tourists' intention to visit the country (Chaulagain et al., 2019). Khan et al. (2017) reported that natural attractions, appealing local food, and historical attractions become the image of India among young Muslim women, which led to the increase of intention to visit the country. Meanwhile, unique, and delicious food along with rich food culture are Hong Kong's destination image which positively influence inbound tourists' intention to visit the country as a culinary destination (Choe & Kim, 2018). Following the discussion, the hypothesis is stated as follows:

H5. There is a positive effect between destination image and intention to visit.

The image of a destination acts as an external stimulus that attracts tourists to visit a destination (Rahman et al., 2016). Further, people would evaluate whether their travel motivation are aligned with a destination image, where both tangible and intangible attributes of tourism are able to fulfill their needs. As a result, when tourists' motivation are aligned with a destination image, their intention to visit would be generated. Accordingly, destination image would link a tourists' motivation and their intention to visit, which also become the mechanism of before, after, and during a travel. In other words, destination has a mediating effect that explain tourists' behavior to conduct various reason of travel. Such mediating effect of destination image has been documented by previous studies (Alcázar et al., 2014; Chew & Jahari, 2014; Rahman et al., 2016; Su et al., 2020), which conducted from various context. Following the discussion, the hypotheses are stated as follows:

H6. Destination image will mediate the relationship between perceicevd risks and intention to visit.

H7. Destination image will mediate the relationship between travel constraints and intention to visit.

Following the hypotheses development, the research framework is depicted on Figure 1.

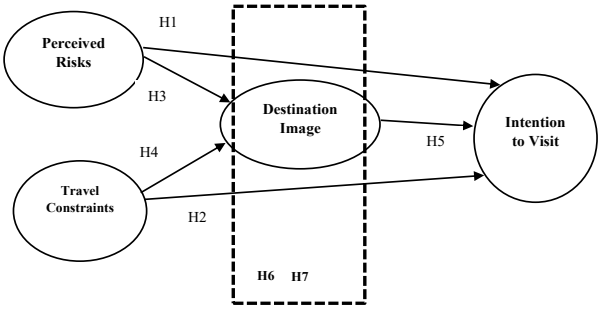

Figure 1. Research Framework

METHODS

Based on the study's problem characteristic, the explanation between identified variables are the concern of the study (Sekaran and Bougie 2016). Following this reasoning, the quantitative methodology would be used to address the problem of this study. This study would adopt the correlational study to investigate the problem. The first reason is that the current study would examine if the relationship between the variables do exist. Secondly, the existing variables are considered to be associated with the problem, which would not lead to a causal relationship (Sekaran and Bougie 2016). Finally, the variables would not be manipulated as the study is aimed to observe them in a normal condition. Therefore, the correlational study is the most appropriate type of investigation in this study.

This study employs a 5 Likert-scale (1=strongly disagree – 5=strongly agree). Measurement scale with 7 items for Perceived risk (PR) was adapted from Chew and Jahari (2014), 5 items for travel constraints (TRC) were adapted from Khan et al. (2017), 5 items for destination image were adapted from Khan et al. (2017), and 5 items for visit intention were adapted from Ubjaan (2017). Further, this study would collect data from Indonesian tourists that already visited Lombok. Thus, a non-probability purposive sampling was employed to ensure that the respondents have a travel background (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Accordingly, the following screening question were asked: "Have you been on travel for the last 5 months?".

The data would be collected through questionnaire distribution with 7-point Likert scale. Data would be collected through an online questionnaire, in order to reach the targeted population on a wider scale. Additionally, the online questionnaire distribution would be conducted as the compliance with Covid-19 safety protocol. Internet users are mostly concentrated on Java Island and its respective province's Capital Cities (i.e., Jakarta, Bandung, Semarang, and Surabaya) (APJII, 2018). For this purpose, the questionnaire would be distributed through online platform using Google Form and social networking sites, such as Twitter and Facebook to reach the respondents on four Capital Cities of the Java Island. In addition, questionnaire is a sufficient tool for data collection in this study to evaluate the psychological response from the respondents (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). The sample size is calculated using G Power 3 software to meet 80% of predictive accuracy with the following parameters: effect size=0.15; α error=5%; power=0.95%; and 3 predictors (Faul et al., 2009; Hair Jr et al., 2017). Based on the calculation, the minimum amount of sample required are 119, thus, 200 questionnaires would be distributed.

The collected data would be analyzed with SmartPLS version 3.3.2. It is a structural equation modeling (SEM) software which is intended to analyze the significance on each relationship. Due to the variance based on its statistical algorithm, the fit indices are not necessary to be conducted (Hair et al., 2016). Data analysis would be conducted on two steps: (1) outer model, which includes the testing of composite reliability (CR), discriminant and convergent validity, outer loading, and collinearity assessment; (2) structural model, which includes the evaluation of t-value for hypotheses testing, coefficient of determination (R^2), effect size (f^2), and predictive relevance (Q^2). The mediation analysis in this study would follow the bootstrapping and confidence interval criteria (Zhao et al., 2010).

RESULTS and DISCUSSION

Respondents' profile

The majority of the respondents are female (55,1%), with the range of age between 25-35 years old (34,8%). The respondents' occupation are mostly within the private sector (38,5%), with monthly income of Rp. 5.000.000 – 10.000.000 (25,1%). Lastly, the majority of the respondents are bachelor graduates (46,5%). Measurement model

On this stage of analysis, the reliability and validity of the constructs would be evaluated. It was conducted by using the Partial Least Square (PLS) algorithm procedure with 300 iterations. The result revealed that the outer loading values for DI constructs ranged between 0.717 – 0.788; ITV construct ranged between 0.757 – 0.835; PR construct ranged between 0.813 – 0.907; and TRC construct ranged between 0.915 – 0.957. All loading values met the cut-off values as specified by Hair et al. (2016), hence there are no items deleted during the assessment. Meanwhile, the reliability analysis showed that all constructs have met the cut-off values. Both Cronbach's Alpha (lower bound reliability) and composite reliability (upper bound reliability) values are above the cut-off values of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2016): DI (α = 0.876, CR = 0.904); ITV (α = 0.914; CR = 0.931); PR (α = 0.939; CR = 0.951); and TRC (α = 0.963; CR = 0.971).

Finally, the convergent validity is assessed by looking at the average variance extracted (AVE) value, which should be greater than 0.5 (Hair et al., 2016). The AVE value of greater than 0.5 indicates that a construct contains its own meaning. The AVE value of DI construct is 0.573; ITV construct is 0.660; PR construct is 0.766; and TRC construct is 0.870. Based on this output, the AVE values for all constructs have met the cut-off value, and thus, possess the adequate level of convergent validity. Overall, the outer (factor) loading, Cronbach's Alpha, CR, and AVE values are within the acceptable cut-off values. Therefore, deletion of indicators is not necessary to be performed. Table 1 summarizes the measurement model evaluation for first-order model.

Table 1. Measurement model evaluation

Construct	Items	Loadings	Alpha	CR	AVE
DI	DI1	0,757	0,876	0,904	0,573
	DI2	0,717			
	DI3	0,761			
	DI4	0,788			
	DI5	0,775			
	DI6	0,758			
	DI7	0,743			
ITV	ITV1	0,835	0,914	0,931	0,660
	ITV2	0,849			
	ITV3	0,822			
	ITV4	0,810			
	ITV5	0,824			
	ITV6	0,785			
	ITV7	0,757			
PR	PR1	0,813	0,939	0,951	0,766
	PR2	0,860			
	PR3	0,872			
	PR4	0,898			
	PR5	0,897			
	PR6	0,907			
TRC	TRC1	0,940	0,963	0,971	0,870
	TRC2	0,957			
	TRC3	0,915			
	TRC4	0,924			
	TRC5	0,926			

Discriminant validity

The next analysis would be conducted to evaluate the discriminant validity for all constructs. Discriminant validity analysis is performed to assess whether each construct carry its own conceptual meaning and different from the other constructs (Hair et al., 2016). Failure to establish the discriminant validity would result to error on further analysis, as redundancy would occur. In this study, discriminant validity is performed through two analysis. First, the Fornell-Larcker criterion is conducted to assess the square root of AVE value on each construct. This analysis requires that all square root of AVE value on each construct that greater than its adjacent values. The Fornell-Larcker criterion analysis revealed that the requirement is met, and all square root of AVE values of each construct that greater than its adjacent values are indicated with bold fonts. Table 2 summarizes the result.

Table 2. Fornell-Larcker Criterion

Construct	DI	ITV	PR	TRC
DI	**0,757**			
ITV	0,738	**0,812**		
PR	0,313	0,169	**0,875**	
TRC	0,244	0,053	0,786	**0,933**

Second, the discriminant validity is evaluated by using the Heterotrait – Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio (Henseler et al., 2015). HTMT computes the ratio between correlations of items measuring different constructs and correlations of items measuring the same constructs. In addition, HTMT requires that all correlations ratio for all constructs should be below the value of 0.90 (Henseler et al., 2015; Hair et al., 2016). The result of HTMT ratio evaluation revealed that all ratio correlation values are below 0.90, which indicated that discriminant validity for all constructs have met the required value. Table 3 summarizes the result.

Table 4. HTMT criterion

Construct	DI	ITV	PR	TRC
DI				
ITV	0,815			
PR	0,335	0,184		
TRC	0,261	0,074	0,824	

Following the result of both Fornell - Larcker criterion and HTMT Ratio, discriminant validity has been established in this study. This indicates that all constructs carry its own meaning and different from each other. Furthermore, there are no indicators necessary to be deleted during the analysis. Therefore, the PLS analysis would proceed to the next stage of analysis: the structural model or the inner model. Figure 2 depicts the measurement model performed by the PLS algorithm.

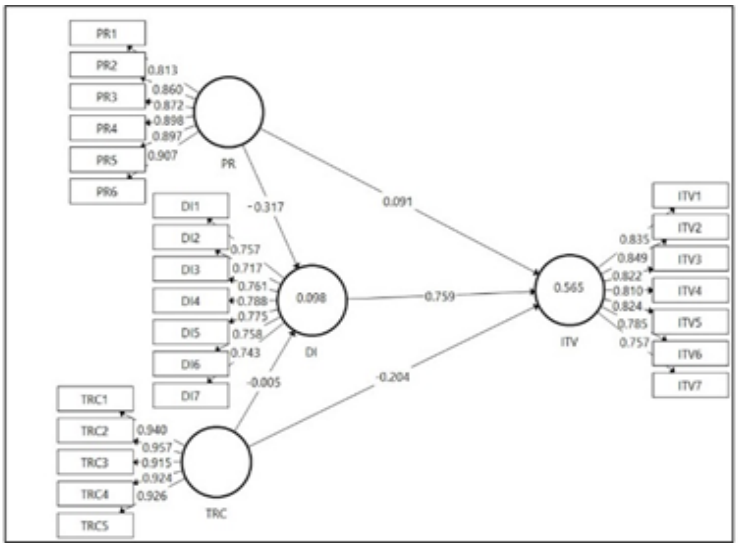

Figure 2. Measurement Model Output

Collinearity assessment

Prior to perform the structural model analysis, the collinearity assessment should be conducted (Hair et al., 2016). Collinearity assessment is conducted to ensure to eliminate redundancy on the observed relationships. To this end, the value of variance inflated factors (VIF) on the observed relationships should be below 5. VIF analysis is conducted through the PLS algorithm, and showed that the inner VIF values on the observed relationships are below 3.3. Therefore, redundancy would not occur on the later stage of the analysis. Table 4 summarizes the result.

Table 4 Collinearity Assessment

Relationships	VIF
PR->ITV	2,727
TRC->ITV	2,615
PR->DI	2,615
TRC-> DI	2,615
DI->ITV	1,109

Structural model

The structural model assessment would analyze the predictive accuracy of the model developed in this study. Specifically, R-square, f-square, and Q-square would be evaluated as the parameters of the model predictive accuracy. Subsequently, the analysis is followed by the hypotheses testing, on both direct and indirect relationships (i.e., mediation). In this regard, the structural model assessment is performed by using the bootstrapping procedure with 5000 iterations (Hair et al., 2016).

The predictive model assessment begins with assessing R-square, as it represents the overall variance that is caused by the independent variables toward the dependent variable. The values of R-square are within the range of 0.19, 0.33, and 0.67, which represent weak, moderate, and strong, respectively. In this study, the value of R-square is 0.565, which indicates that the coefficient of determination value is strong. In other words, the independent variables in this study are able to explain 56.5% of variance on the dependent variable. Meanwhile, effect size (f^2) represents the effect value of a particular independent variable towards a dependent variable (Hair et al., 2016). The range of f^2 values are 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35, which represent weak, medium, and strong effect, respectively. Effect size values in this study is found to be ranged between no effect to large effects of the observed relationships. Specifically, TRC->DI (f2 = 0.000); PR->ITV (f^2 = 0.007); TRC->ITV (f^2 = 0.037); PR->DI (f^2 = 0.043); and DI->ITV (f^2 = 1.195). Finally, the predictive model analysis would be analyzed through

the value of Q^2. Predictive relevance is conducted to assess the predictive ability of the model with the omission of several data. The assessment is performed using the blindfolding procedure to determine the data omission. The blindfolding procedure in the SmartPLS provide the range of data omission (D), with the range between 5 – 12 (Hair et al., 2016). Since the default omission value is 7, this study applied the value on the blindfolding procedure. The Q^2 value should be greater than 0 in order the model to be classified to have an adequate predictive relevance. The result of the blindfolding procedure showed that the Q^2 is greater than 0 (Q^2 = 0.357). Thus, together with the value of R^2, f^2, and Q^2, the model developed in this study has a sufficient level of predictive ability. Table 5 summarizes the result of the predictive model assessment.

Table 5. predictive model assessment

Relationships	R^2	Q^2	f^2	Effect Size
PR->ITV			0,007	Small
TRC->ITV			0,037	Small-Medium
PR->DI	0,565	0,357	0,043	Small-Medium
TRC-> DI			0,000	No effect
DI->ITV			1,195	Large

Hypotheses testing

The hypotheses testing for direct relationships revealed that two hypotheses are not supported: H1 (PR->ITV; t = 1,298, p=0.194), and H4 (TRC->DI, t = 0.045, p = 0.964). Meanwhile, the rest of the hypotheses are supported: H2 (TRC->ITV, t=2,975, p=0.003); H3 (PR->ITV, t=2,975, p=0.003). Meanwhile, the hypotheses testing for indirect relationship revealed that H6 is supported: (PR->DI->ITV, t=2,717, p=0.007, CI [UL,LL]=[0,060, 0,411]). On the other hand, H7 is not supported: (TRC->DI->ITV, t=0.045, p=0.964, CI [UL,LL]=[-0,147,0,179]). Table 6 summarizes the result of hypotheses testing.

Table 6. Hypotheses testing result

Hypotheses	Relationships	β	T Statistics	P Values	CI (LL)	CI (UL)	Supported
H1	PR -> ITV	0,091	1,298	0,194			No
H2	TRC -> ITV	-0,204	2,975	0,003			Yes
H3	PR -> DI	-0,317	2,877	0,004			Yes
H4	TRC -> DI	-0,005	0,045	0,964			No
H5	DI -> ITV	0,759	12,987	0,000			Yes
H6	PR -> DI -> ITV	0,241	2,717	0,007	0,060	0,411	Yes
H7	TRC -> DI -> ITV	-0,004	0,045	0,964	-0,147	0,179	No

CONCLUSION

This study aims to investigate the factors related to Indonesian tourists' intention to visit a post disaster destination, which Lombok become the object. Perceived risk and travel constraints are investigated in the study's conceptual framework, while destination image acts as the mediating variable. This study revealed that perceived risk has a negative and significant relationship towards destination image. The result shows that the Indonesian tourists have little concern related to the risks related to visiting a post disaster destination of Lombok. The risks related to time, safety, food provision and tourism infrastructure seem to have no impact. Such little concern towards risk is strongly enhanced by the image of Lombok as one of the most favorite tourism destinations in Indonesia. As such, Lombok is apparently possessing a very strong image, where the tourists perceived very capable to restore its tourism infrastructure that formed their image. Such image is formed mainly from Lombok's beautiful natural landscape, favorite spots, and various attractions. Therefore, this would explain the full mediation effect of destination image, where Lombok's destination image is capable to reduce the tourists' perceived risk. As the result, strengthen their intention to visit Lombok as a post disaster destination.

On the other hand, travel constraints have a negative and insignificant effect on destination image. The result revealed that Indonesian tourists seem to have no constraints related to Lombok's image as a post disaster destination. Perhaps, they already evaluate such concern using their risk assessments. Thus, several constraints that potentially hinder the Indonesian tourists' evaluation of Lombok's image, such as information availability, companion absence, weather, and other commitments do not become the crucial elements on their decision to travel. Interestingly, travel constraints do have a negative and significant effect toward intention to visit. This implies that Indonesian tourists would relate directly their constraints with the final decision to visit Lombok. Moreover, such constraints are evaluated in the absence of destination image, which explains that destination image do not possess a mediating effect on the relationship. Thus, travel constraints are considered as the tourists' motivation that are assessed separately with perceived risk.

Several managerial implications could be derived from the above discussion. Lombok does still possess a strong image as one of the most favorite tourism destinations in Indonesia, despite the recent earthquake disaster. However, it is worth to be classify the Indonesian tourists as an adventurous type of traveler. They tend to plan their trip based on the image of the destination, and resulting in the minor contribution of risks related with a post disaster destination. On a separate note, once they perceived strongly on the destination's image, they also tend to disregard any constraints that might hinder their trip. Such behavior is plausible because the respondents' background are mostly came from the capital city of Jakarta, where hectic lifestyle and 24/7 professional routines take place on a daily basis. Hence, the requirement of leisure is considered to an important aspect that need to be fulfilled to accommodate their well-being. Following the discussion, the Lombok tourism board should focus on assuring the safety of the tourists, particularly on areas that was hit severely by the disaster. They should prioritize to rebuild the tourism attractions, such as beaches, hotels, cultural attractions and food providers to further increase the tourists' intention to visit Lombok. Further, since risks and personal constraints are apparently having no significant effect to slow the inbound tourists to Lombok, issues related to the macro tourism infrastructure also need to be considered. This would include the coordination between local governments and stakeholders to ensure that tourism is capable to perform on the operational level.

Some limitations in this study also acknowledged by the authors, and hence provide avenues of research for future studies. Firstly, the respondents in this study are restricted to tourists that reside in the capital city of Jakarta. Future studies need to expand the geographical demography to have a better understanding regarding the Indonesian tourists. Secondly, future studies should also consider other variables to be introduced as mediating variables, particularly on motivations that have negative consequences, such as anxiety and possible negative word of mouth related with post disaster destination. Finally, the model developed in this study could also be utilized on other destinations that are classified as post disaster.

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