

PREDICTING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ANTECEDENTS AND POSTCEDENT OF TRAVEL DESIRE: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF THE INDONESIAN CONTEXT

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ABSTRAK

Keinginan turis untuk berwisata merupakan sebuah faktor penting yang perlu dipelajari untuk memahami intensi mereka untuk berwisata. Meskipun demikian, belum terdapat penelitian yang komprehensif mengenai keinginan turis untuk berwisata, khususnya selama pandemi Covid-19. Oleh sebab itu, penelitian ini ingin mempelajari mengenai keinginan (*desire*) turis untuk berwisata dengan menggunakan model *Goal-Directed Behaviour* yang dikembangkan dengan mengidentifikasi variabel *risk perception* yang sangat relevan dengan kondisi pandemi. Penelitian ini mengkaji *antecedents* dan *postcedent* variabel *desire*. *Antecedents* tersebut berupa *attitude*, *positive anticipated emotions*, *negative anticipated emotions*, *subjective norm*, dan *perceived behavioural control*, sementara *postcedent* tersebut berupa *intention to travel*. Penelitian ini memperoleh data dari 438 responden yang dipilih secara *purposive sampling*. Data tersebut dianalisis dengan metode *Structural Equation Modeling*. Penelitian ini menunjukkan bahwa *risk perception* tidak dapat memprediksi *attitude* secara signifikan, *attitude* dan *subjective norm* tidak dapat memprediksi *desire* secara signifikan, *positive anticipated emotions* dan *perceived behavioural control* dapat memprediksi *desire* secara positif dan signifikan, *negative anticipated emotions* dapat memprediksi *desire* secara negatif dan signifikan, serta *desire* dapat memprediksi *intention to travel* secara positif dan signifikan. Selain itu, *desire* dapat memediasi secara signifikan prediksi *positive anticipated emotions*, *negative anticipated emotions*, dan *perceived behavioural control* terhadap *intention to travel*, tetapi *desire* tidak dapat memediasi secara signifikan prediksi *attitude* dan *subjective norm* terhadap *intention to travel*.

Kata Kunci: *desire, goal-directed behaviour model, risk perception, intention to travel*

ABSTRACT

Tourist's desire to travel is an essential factor to understand their intention to travel. However, there has not been any comprehensive studies regarding their intention to travel, especially during the Covid-19 pandemic. Therefore, this study aims to learn about tourist's desire to travel by using the Goal-Directed Behaviour model which was developed by adding risk perception, which is very relevant with pandemic condition. This study identified the antecedents and postcedent of tourist's intention to travel. The antecedents are attitude, positive anticipated emotions, negative anticipated emotions, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control, while the postcedent is intention to travel. This study collected data from 438 respondents who were selected by using the purposive sampling method. The data were analyzed by using the Structural Equation Modeling method. This study concluded that risk perception doesn't predict attitude significantly, attitude and subjective norm doesn't predict desire significantly, positive anticipated emotions and perceived behavioural control predict desire positively and significantly, and negative anticipated emotions predict desire negatively and significantly. Moreover, desire significantly mediates the prediction of positive anticipated emotions, negative anticipated emotions, and perceived behavioural control toward intention to travel, but desire doesn't significantly mediate the prediction of attitude and subjective norm toward intention to travel.

Keywords: *desire, goal-directed behaviour model, risk perception, intention to travel*

1. INTRODUCTION

Tourism was a sector that had been severely disrupted by the COVID-19 pandemic (OECD, 2020). Travel restrictions, lockdowns, and new variants of Covid-19 had severed this sector even worse. UNWTO (2020) showed that international tourism (i.e., through international tourist arrivals) in 2020 decreased by more than 70%. UNWTO even stated that this drastic decline shows the number of figures in 2020 is back to the figure of 30 years ago. Furthermore, this decline in the number of tourists also showed a decrease of 900 million international tourist arrivals and resulted in the loss of export revenue from international tourism of US\$ 935 billion (UNWTO, 2020).

The pandemic had refrained travelers from traveling. However, for some Indonesian society, traveling has been a primary need because they want to travel longer, farther, and more often (Handayani, 2015). In the current state of the pandemic, traveling that can be done is domestic tourism. However, the desire to go abroad has also been possible, especially for those who have been vaccinated. Countries in Europe, Japan, Israel, and others are starting to enforce vaccine passports that allow tourists to travel internationally to certain destinations without having to be quarantined. With the vaccine passport, tourists who have been vaccinated will be refrained from quarantine and travel restrictions (CNN Indonesia, 2021).

The revenge tourism trend is predicted to emerge soon (Bologna, 2021). This trend will be strengthened when people are enthusiastic about getting the Covid-19 vaccine. The Covid-19 pandemic has made many people experience boredom amid the implementation of social restrictions. Many people must resist the urge to go on vacation both at home and abroad. Although not a basic need, traveling is a human activity that provides many benefits for one's life, such as: releasing the fatigue of routine, getting new positive energy, adding new insights, getting new experiences, making it a job (travel blogger), and others.

Prior researches on tourism related to the Covid-19 pandemic showed several variables to predict intention to travel, such as destination image (e.g.: Yang et al., 2021), media exposure (e.g.: Meng et al., 2021; Seyfi et al., 2021), trustworthiness (e.g.: Ozdemir & Yıldız, 2020), risk perception (e.g.: Bratić et al., 2021; Meng et al., 2021).

However, there are only a few studies that have used the desire construct to predict intention to travel (e.g., Xu et al., 2021). In fact, researches showed that if someone has a strong desire, this positive emotion will give them a wide attention span to focus on doing something (Science Daily, 2017). In terms of emotions, a survey by Amex Trendex showed that people really miss to travel to reduce their fatigue and emotional burden. The survey showed that 48 percent of respondents felt that being unable to travel made them feel anxious and stressed. Furthermore, 78 percent of respondents noted that traveling is one of the 'top activities' they miss the most today.

Therefore, this study aims to examine the antecedent and post-occurrence relationship of desire using the Goal-Directed Behaviour Model (GDBM) framework where this model places desire as the most proximal construct of one's intentions and places anticipated emotions as predictors of desire (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2021). A traveller's desire to travel abroad will encourage his intention to do so, especially after the pandemic subsides and travel restrictions are lifted. To address the mentioned gap, this study applies GDBM and adds one variable, namely risk perception to predict intention to travel abroad during the endemic.

Literature review

Risk perception and Covid-19

One of the things that many people feel the most during the Covid-19 pandemic is related to risk. Even though this pandemic has been running for more than a year, the perception of the risks caused by the Covid-19 virus must not decrease. The Indonesian government, for example, often conveys that it should not be lax in implementing health protocols despite a decrease in cases caused by Covid-19. The risk that the next wave will occur, or the emergence of new variants is something that the public is constantly reminded of.

In everyday life, sometimes we are faced with a different point of view. For example, when we are going to travel in the current state of the Covid-19 pandemic. Some will think it's okay to travel during a pandemic, but there are also those who discourage their intention to travel. Thus, there are people who really care about risk, on the other hand, there are people who care less. This is basically caused by differences in one's perception of risk, which is influenced by various factors, including social background, culture, experience, and knowledge.

Perceived risk is the uncertainty when a person cannot predict the consequences of his behaviour (Schiffman & Wisenblit, 2015). In tourism, risks can occur when a tourist travel, such as flight delays and food incompatibility. Risk perception is something subjective that is known, seen, felt, and heard (Grima et al., 2021). Furthermore, risk perception is a subjective factor that influences the way people interpret threats (Davis et al., 2003).

The Goal-Directed Behaviour Model (GDBM)

GDBM is the improvement of the planned behaviour theory (TPB), which is one of several prominent theories in explaining individual behaviour (Richards & Johnson, 2014). In other words, GDBM aims as the theory deepening of TPB by adding new variables to provide theoretical mechanism that can be better understood (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2011). Furthermore, this extension is to improve the TPB because the variables in the TPB do not capture whether people want to do something, related to their emotions (Esposito et al., 2016).

Specifically, GDBM adds the desire (to represent someone who wants to do something because of his excitement) and anticipated emotion which is aimed at demonstrating goal achievement and goal failure. Desire represents an explicit motivational element that provides energy in pushing intention to act (Davis, 1984).

In GDBM, desire is the most proximal determinant of intention (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Furthermore, many previous studies support the use of GDBM in many contexts such as entrepreneurship (e.g., Kim & Hall, 2019; Riquelme et al., 2016), tourism (e.g., Xu et al., 2021; Meng & Choi, 2016), health (e.g., Esposito et al., 2016), purchase behaviour (e.g., Chiu & Cho, 2021; Chiu & Choi, 2018).

Hypotheses development

Risk perception (RP) and attitude (AT)

Perception is the way a person interprets information through the five senses. Through the learning process, the stimulus received by the individual will shape the individual's attitude towards an object or behaviour. Thus, that perception is a predictor of attitude. Previous studies have shown a significant effect on risk perception on individual attitudes (Dang & Tran, 2020; Rivas et al., 2021). Therefore, it is hypothesized as below:

H1: RP has a significantly negative effect on AT.

Attitude (AT) and desire (DE)

In GDBM, attitude is a predictor of desire. In addition, the Theory of Self-Regulation (TSR) by Bagozzi (1992) shows the role of attitude as a predictor of desire. Bagozzi (1992) shows that attitude can be understood as an assessment regarding which attitude that will lead to intention toward the targeted action. However, evaluative judgments do not imply a motivational commitment. Thus, intentions cannot arise in the absence of a motivational drive (desire). Moreover, attitudes can stimulate desires and desires will drive a person's intention to act. Previous research shows the positively significant relationship between attitude and desire (e.g.: Kim et al., 2021; Qiao et al., 2021; Song et al., 2016). Therefore, this research hypothesis is as follows:

H2: AT has a significantly positive effect on DE.

Anticipated positive and negative emotions (PE & NE) and desire (DE)

Before conducting an action, people often consider whether the action can be done or not. This anticipation involves emotions, so to achieve goals, there is often a mixture of positive and negative emotions (Kotabe et al., 2019). Anticipated emotions are like prospects views based on emotions and ideas about hope for success and fear of failure as an antecedent of approach and avoidance behaviour in the context of goal attainment (Bagozzi et al., 2003). The anticipated positive emotion (PE) can prompt an action while the anticipated negative emotion (NE) can make the person avoid the action. In other words, when people try to act or not in a goal-directed manner, they consider the emotional consequences of achieving or not achieving (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Previous studies have shown a relationship between PE and DE, and the relationship between NE and DE (e.g., Qiao et al., 2021; Song et al., 2016).

H3: PE has a significantly positive effect on DE.

H4: NE has a significantly negative effect on DE.

Subjective norm (SN) and desire (DE)

Subjective norms are closely related to the influence of the closest people on the actions that will be taken by someone. Traveling with family and friends is becoming more common than traveling alone. Durko and Petrick (2016) showed that traveling provides positive benefits for adults, children, and couples. Specifically, travel is a means to take advantage of limited family time to improve communication. Moreover, traveling can strengthen family bonds and increase the sense of well-being in adults and children (Durko & Petrick, 2016). Previous studies have shown a significant effect of SN on DE (e.g., Kim et al., 2021; Qiao et al., 2021; Choi & Park, 2020; Kim et al., 2020; Chiu & Choi, 2018).

H5: SN has a significantly positive effect on DE.

Perceived behavioural control (PBC) and desire (DE)

PBC refers to the person's beliefs and evaluations of their control over the available resources and opportunities (Ajzen, 1991). PBC denotes subjective degree of control over performance of the behaviour (Ajzen, 2002). Previous research shows the positive relationship between PBC and DE (Kim et al., 2021; Qiao et al., 2021; Choi & Park, 2020; Chiu & Choi, 2018). Therefore, a hypothesis is proposed as follows:

H6: PBC has a significantly positive effect on DE.

Desire (DE) and intention (IN)

DE is different from IN (Malle & Knobe, 2001). Desire and intention are both a state that represents a positive attitude towards a situation. However, there are important differences between them. Desire represents wish, hope, and want, while intention refers to a condition to decide, plan, and intend (Malle & Knobe, 2001). Desire gives energy to intention (Perugini &

Bagozzi, 2001), which contains the motivational element in intention (Davis, 1984), and as the main driver of intention formation (Toyoshima et al., 2021; Bagozzi et al., 2003; Davis, 1984). Previous research showed the relationship between desire and intention (Qiao et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2021; Choi & Park, 2020; Song et al., 2020; Esposito et al., 2016; Song et al., 2016). Thus, a hypothesis is proposed as follows:

H7: DE has a significantly positive effect on IN.

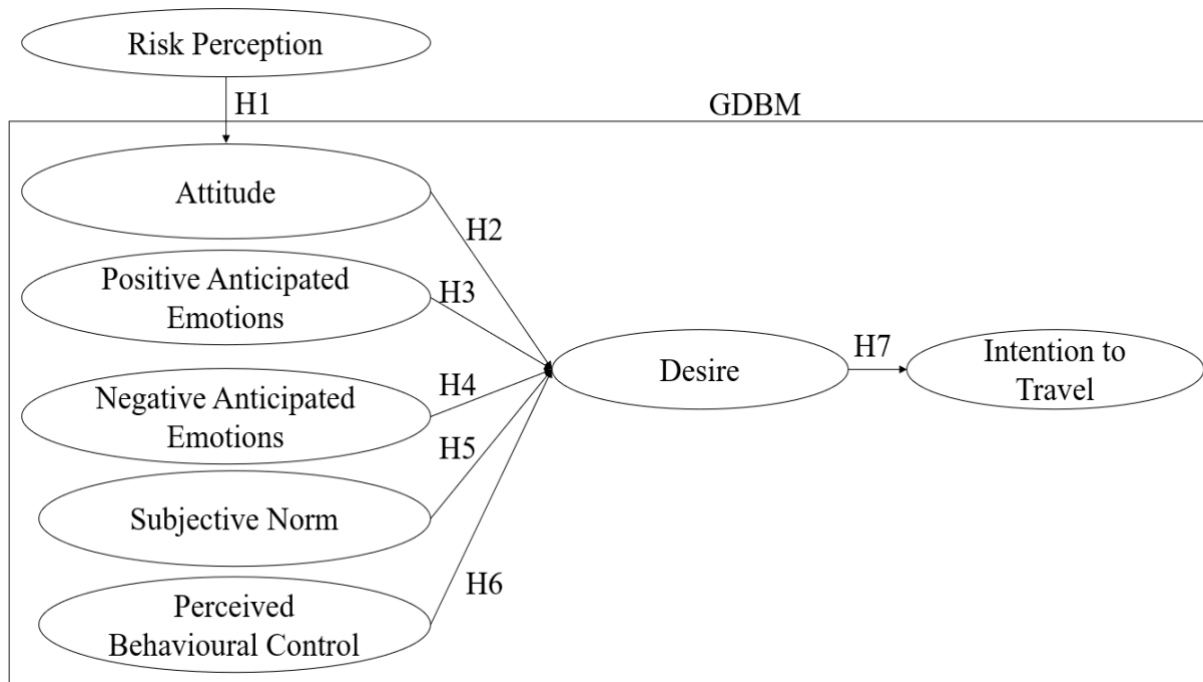


Figure 1. Research model

2. RESEARCH METHOD

Sampling and sample size

The population selected for empirically assessing the research model presented as Figure 1 involved potential travellers in Indonesia. Since there was no population frame available, the study used a non-probability purposive sampling technique, with the main criteria for individuals filling out filter questions related to the possibility that these individuals will travel abroad after the pandemic. Respondents in this study are those who choose a number above 5 (on a scale of 1-10) which indicates the possibility that the person will travel abroad. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was applied in this study for hypothesis testing. The number of samples in this study was set at no less than 300 as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013).

Questionnaire development

Primary data collection was carried out through Google Form which was conducted in a cross-sectional study. Each indicator was measured using a 5-point Likert Scale, with points 1 = strongly disagree to points 5 = strongly agree. The questionnaire has two parts: the demographic characteristics of the respondents and travel preferences, and the research indicators. In developing this questionnaire, face validity must be conducted first in checking each item. Hair et al. (2019) pointed out that face validity is important because it can show an understanding of the content of each item. In particular, content validity is achieved when the empirical measure covers the conceptual definition (Hair et al., 2019).

Table 1. Indicator of variables

Construct	Item	Indicator	Source
Risk Perception	RP1	I think it is dangerous to travel right now because of the Covid 19 virus.	Kemen et al. (2020) and Bratic et al. (2021)
	RP2	The Covid 19 virus is a scary disease.	
	RP3	The Covid 19 virus makes me worry about my health.	
Attitude	AT1	In my opinion, traveling abroad after travel restrictions are lifted is useful.	Perugini and Bagozzi (2001)
	AT2	In my opinion, traveling abroad after travel restrictions are lifted it's fun.	
	AT3	I think traveling abroad after the travel restrictions are lifted is an interesting thing.	
Positive Anticipated Emotions	PE1	If I succeed in achieving my goal of traveling abroad after the travel restrictions have been lifted, I feel happy.	Perugini and Bagozzi (2001)
	PE2	If I succeed in achieving my goal of traveling abroad after the travel restrictions have been lifted, I feel satisfied.	
	PE3	If I succeed in achieving my goal of traveling abroad after the travel restrictions have been lifted, I feel happy.	
	PE4	If I succeed in achieving my destination of traveling abroad after the travel restrictions have been lifted, I feel joy.	
Negative Anticipated Emotions	NE1	If I do not succeed in reaching my destination of traveling abroad after the travel restrictions have been lifted, I feel angry.	Perugini and Bagozzi (2001)
	NE2	If I do not succeed in reaching my destination I travel abroad after the travel restrictions have been lifted, I feel sad.	
	NE3	If I do not succeed in reaching my destination of traveling abroad after the travel restrictions have been lifted, I feel disappointed.	
	NE4	If I do not succeed in reaching my destination traveling abroad after the travel restrictions have been lifted, I feel frustrated.	
Subjective Norms	SN1	My parents approved of me traveling abroad after the travel restrictions were lifted.	Ajzen (2006)
	SN2	My friends supported me traveling abroad after the restrictions the trip is lifted.	
	SN3	People who are important to me approve of me traveling abroad after the travel restrictions are lifted.	
Perceived Behavioural Control	PB1	I believe I can travel abroad as soon as the travel restrictions are lifted.	Ajzen (2006) and Perugini and Bagozzi (2001)
	PB2	I have the financial resources to be able to travel abroad after the travel restrictions are lifted.	
	PB3	I have time to be able to travel abroad after the travel restrictions are lifted.	
	PB4	I have reference sources of information to be able to travel abroad after the travel restrictions are lifted.	
Desire	DE1	I desire to travel abroad after the travel restrictions are lifted to have more experiences.	Perugini and Bagozzi (2001)
	DE2	I have desire to travel abroad after the travel restrictions are lifted to enjoy the beauty of tourism in that country.	
	DE3	I want to travel abroad country after travel restrictions were lifted to refresh the mind from the daily routine.	
Intention	IN1	I plan to travel abroad after the travel restrictions are lifted.	Fishbein and Ajzen (1975)
	IN2	I intend to travel abroad after the travel restrictions are lifted.	
	IN3	I will try to travel abroad country after travel restrictions are lifted.	

The collected data is then tested for reliability and validity. Reliability uses Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability, while validity uses construct validity, namely convergent and discriminant validity. Then, the data were analyzed using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). Researchers can accept or reject the theoretical model tested with CB-SEM by assessing how closely the theoretical model fits the observed data. Furthermore, the the use of SEM CB-SEM is based on its ability to test theory-driven hypotheses (Richter et al., 2016). This research applied the χ^2 value and degrees of freedom (df), CFI, TLI, and RMSEA to provide sufficient information for evaluating a model (Hair et al., 2019; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001).

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Of the 504 responses from Google form, 438 responses could be processed further. The number of 438 respondents who stated the possibility (with an answer above 5 on a scale of 1-10) they will travel abroad after the travel restrictions are lifted. More than half (57.1%) of the respondents were women. Most of them (68.5%) are both undergraduate and postgraduate students. Generally, they travel with their family (61%) with a frequency of 1x/year (54.8%) for 7 days (51.6%) with a casual travel style (74%). Table 2 shows the characteristics of the respondents.

Table 2. Demographics of the sample

Characteristic	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	188	42.9%
Female	250	57.1%
Occupation		
Students (undergraduate/ post graduate)	300	68.5%
Public companies	12	2.7%
Private companies	61	13.9%
Entrepreneur	39	8.9%
Others	26	6.0%
Travel frequency (abroad)		
One a year	240	54.8%
2-3 times a year	76	17.4%
3 times a year	122	27.8%
Travel duration		
1-3 days	0	0
4-6 days	212	48.4%
7 days	226	51.6%
Travel style		
Business	13	3%
Backpacking	95	21.7%
Casual	324	74.0%
Others	6	1.3%
Travel preference		
Single traveller	36	8.2%
With friends	93	21.2%
With boyfriend/girlfriend	38	8.7%
With family	267	61.1%
Others	4	1.0%

Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics of the data and the reliability results which are represented by Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability. Reliability is an indication of convergent validity (Hair et al., 2019). The convergent validity was assessed by Cronbach's α , Composite Reliability (CR), and Average Variance Extracted (AVE). The value of composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha must be greater than 0.70 (Hair et al., 2011). The results showed that Composite Reliability value is between 0.724-0.909 and Cronbach's α value is between 0.719-0.906. Furthermore, the value of AVE is more than 0.5 (Hair et al., 2019). The results showed that the AVE value is in the range of 0.472 – 0.769. There is only one value below 0.5, namely the AVE for perceived risk (0.472). However, according to Fornell and Larcker (1981), even if the AVE is less than 0.5, it is still acceptable if the composite reliability is higher than 0.6. Then, the Cronbach's alpha, CR, and AVE values indicate that convergent validity has been achieved. Moreover, Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics of the data. The data is considered normal if the skewness is between -2 to +2 and kurtosis is between -7 to +7 (Byrne, 2010). Table 3 shows the reliability results which are represented by Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability.

Table 3. Statistic descriptive, reliability, and validity tests

Construct	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	RP	AT	PE	NE	SN	PB	DE	IN
RP	4.405	0.671	-1.424	1.775	0.472 (0.687)							
AT	4.016	0.774	-0.806	0.554	0.087	0.549 (0.740)						
PE	4.218	0.733	-1.024	0.913	0.138**	0.715**	0.706 (0.840)					
NE	2.553	1.059	0.494	-0.309	0.072	0.287**	0.217**	0.588 (0.766)				
SN	3.372	0.973	-0.753	0.276	0.066	0.564**	0.510**	0.363**	0.721 (0.849)			
PB	3.741	0.817	-0.393	-0.309	0.147**	0.532**	0.478**	0.381**	0.611**	0.538 (0.733)		
EM	4.268	0.715	-1.050	0.753	0.121*	0.500**	0.582**	0.132**	0.441**	0.480**	0.769 (0.876)	
IN	3.895	1.005	-0.925	0.177	0.087	0.581**	0.556**	0.363**	0.582**	0.663*	0.534**	0.636 (0.797)
Cronbach's α					0.719	0.763	0.905	0.869	0.884	0.827	0.838	0.906
CR					0.724	0.785	0.906	0.845	0.885	0.822	0.840	0.909

Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level. Bold: AVE, Italics: The square root of AVE

This study applied the Fornell-Larcker criteria to assess discriminant validity, whereas the square root of each AVE construct must be greater than the correlation with other latent constructs. Table 3 shows that the square roots of AVE of the eight latent constructs were greater than the inter-construct correlation. Thus, all constructs had fulfilled the criteria of discriminant validity. In addition to Cronbach alpha, internal consistency was assessed using corrected item-total correlation. Specifically, the assessment showed the relationship between individual items responses and overall score on the questionnaire. The results showed that all corrected item-total correlation values are above 0.4, meeting the requirements (Gliem & Gliem, 2003) (Table 4).

Table 4. Internal consistency – item analysis

Construct	Item	Corrected item – total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted	Cronbach's alpha
RP	RP1	0.464	0.714	0.719
	RP2	0.565	0.597	
	RP3	0.596	0.556	
AT	AT1	0.652	0.626	0.763
	AT2	0.639	0.641	
	AT3	0.523	0.792	
PE	PE1	0.756	0.888	0.905
	PE2	0.781	0.879	
	PE3	0.807	0.870	
	PE4	0.805	0.871	
NE	NE1	0.707	0.838	0.869
	NE2	0.686	0.846	
	NE3	0.751	0.820	
	NE4	0.739	0.824	
SN	SN1	0.748	0.861	0.884
	SN2	0.780	0.832	
	SN3	0.799	0.813	
PB	PB1	0.660	0.779	0.827
	PB2	0.650	0.783	
	PB3	0.641	0.787	
	PB4	0.661	0.779	
DE	DE1	0.672	0.805	0.838
	DE2	0.709	0.767	
	DE3	0.723	0.754	
IN	IN1	0.839	0.842	0.906
	IN2	0.828	0.853	
	IN3	0.773	0.900	

Table 5 shows the measurement model (Confirmatory Factor Analysis). The CFA model contains 27 observational variables and eight latent variables. The results showed that all factor loading is greater than the minimum criterion of 0.5 with a significant critical ratio value, supporting the convergent validity of the measurement model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Furthermore, the model showed a good fit.

Table 5. Measurement model (CFA)

Indicator	Standardized Regression Weight	Critical Ratio	Goodness-of-Fit Statistic
RP1 \leftarrow RP	0.546		χ^2 : 711,279 df: 295 χ^2 /df: 2,411 CFI: 0,944 TLI: 0,933 RMSEA: 0,057
RP2 \leftarrow RP	0.706	9.052	
RP3 \leftarrow RP	0.788	8.737	
AT1 \leftarrow AT	0.770		
AT2 \leftarrow AT	0.769	15.697	
AT3 \leftarrow AT	0.681	13.827	
PE1 \leftarrow PE	0.808		
PE2 \leftarrow PE	0.828	19.762	
PE3 \leftarrow PE	0.867	21.053	
PE4 \leftarrow PE	0.857	20.709	
NE1 \leftarrow NE	0.882		
NE2 \leftarrow NE	0.551	12.260	
NE3 \leftarrow NE	0.632	14.621	
NE4 \leftarrow NE	0.933	21.243	
SN1 \leftarrow SN	0.802		
SN2 \leftarrow SN	0.866	20.155	
SN3 \leftarrow SN	0.877	20.408	
PB1 \leftarrow PB	0.819		
PB2 \leftarrow PB	0.698	15.173	
PB3 \leftarrow PB	0.683	14.778	
PB4 \leftarrow PB	0.726	15.898	
DE1 \leftarrow DE	0.745		
DE2 \leftarrow DE	0.809	15.924	
DE3 \leftarrow DE	0.836	16.310	
IN1 \leftarrow IN	0.901		
IN2 \leftarrow IN	0.900	27.219	
IN3 \leftarrow IN	0.827	23.271	

Assessing multicollinearity was carried out before assessing the structural model (Hair et al., 2019). VIF was applied to check for multicollinearity by the maximum VIF value is 3 and no collinearity tolerance values fall below 0,1 (Hair et al., 2019). Furthermore, the correlation between variables was also assessed using the recommendation that the highest correlation value between construct was 0,85 (Kline, 2005). Table 6 shows that the VIF value is less than 3 and tolerance value is higher than 0,10. Table 3 shows the correlation value between constructs is also lower than 0,85. Thus, there is no multicollinearity between constructs.

Table 6. Multicollinearity test

Construct	Collinearity Tolerance	VIF
RP	0.966	1.035
AT	0.417	2.398
PE	0.413	2.420
NE	0.813	1.231
SN	0.520	1.922
PB	0.517	1.936
EM	0.595	1.682

Table 7 shows the results of hypothesis testing. There are four supported hypotheses. Furthermore, the structural model fit was acceptable with following index: $\chi^2 = 841,769$, $df = 301$, $\chi^2/df = 2,797$, CFI = 0,927, TLI = 0,913, RMSEA = 0,064. The data analysis showed that RP has no significant effect on AT ($\beta = 0,096$; $p < 0.123$), AT has no significant impact on DE ($\beta = 0,080$; $p < 0.453$), similarly SN has no significant effect on DE ($\beta = 0,051$; $p < 0.644$). The results show that PE has significant positive effect on DE ($\beta = 0,427$; $p < 0.01$) and NE has significant negative effect on DE ($\beta = -0,104$; $p < 0.014$). Furthermore, PB has significant positive impact on DE ($\beta = 0,375$; $p < 0.01$) and DE has significant positive impact on IN ($\beta = 0,686$; $p < 0.01$).

Table 7. Structural model (hypothesis testing)

Path	Standardized Regression Weight	Standard Error	Critical Ratio	Goodness-of-Fit	Conclusion
AT \leftarrow RP	0.096	0.101	1.541	χ^2 : 841.769 df: 301 χ^2/df : 2.797 CFI: 0.927 TLI: 0.915 RMSEA: 0,064	Not supported
DE \leftarrow AT	0.080	0.102	0.750		Not supported
DE \leftarrow PE	0.427	0.097	4.482		Supported
DE \leftarrow NE	da	0.026	-2.464		Supported
DE \leftarrow SN	0.032	0.051	0.462		Not supported
DE \leftarrow PB	0.375	0.058	5.003		Supported
IN \leftarrow DE	0.686	0.078	13.538		Supported

Table 8 implied that desire plays a mediating role with the type of complimentary mediation. Zhao et al. (2010) showed that complimentary mediation occurs when both the mediated effect and direct effect exist and point at the same directions. However, Table 7 also shows non-mediation results. Non-mediation is neither direct effect nor indirect effect exists (Zhao et al., 2010).

Table 8. Indirect effect analysis

Relationship	Mediator	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Type of Mediation
PE \rightarrow IN	DE	0.427**	0.293**	complimentary
NE \rightarrow IN	DE	-0.104**	-0.071**	complimentary
PC \rightarrow IN	DE	0.375**	0.257**	complimentary
AT \rightarrow IN	DE	0.080	0.055	direct only non-mediation
SN \rightarrow IN	DE	0.032	0.022	direct only non-mediation

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the antecedent and potential variables of desire. The results showed that desire was a significant predictor of intention to travel. This is in line with the results of a survey conducted by Agoda's digital travel platform 'What Matters 2021' where traveling is one of the most anticipated things in 2021 (Prakoso, 2021). Not only that, quoting from the statement in the survey results by Tim Hughes (Vice President of Corporate Development Agoda) "2020 is the year when we survive and strive to do our best. Despite all the efforts and obstacles, our research shows that there is a worldwide desire to travel, connect, find meaning, and spend time with friends and family.

The results showed that the significant antecedent of desire was the anticipation of positive and negative emotions, as well as perceived behavioural control. Emotions can be said to be the driving force of desire. Likewise, individual control over himself can support the formation of a strong desire. The results of this study are in line with previous studies which showed a significant effect of positive and negative emotions on desire (e.g., Song et al., 2016), as well as a significant influence of perceived behavioural control on desire.

Risk perception is added to the GDBM because it is adjusted to the conditions of the Covid-19 pandemic where risk is a form of people's threat over the perceived uncertain situation. Risk is one that is often experienced in everyday life, including in traveling context. Most people tend to avoid risk. In terms of traveling, people try to avoid risks to protect their health, property, and other things. However, the results of this study indicate that the perception of risk does not have a significant positive relationship with attitudes towards traveling. This can be explained that the risk perception indicators used are related to Covid-19. Because Covid-19 has hit the world and includes Indonesia, for more than 1 year, respondents are "used to" with the conditions of the Covid-19 pandemic. Moreover, the campaign from the Indonesian government and the news that is exposed to the public so that people can then "make peace" with Covid-19 makes this risk perception no longer significant.

This study also show that attitudes and subjective norms are two insignificant predictors of desire. A person's attitude represents that person's belief in something. This belief will then shape one's desire for it. It's just that, in the current state of the Covid-19 pandemic, a person's positive attitude towards traveling may not affect his desire to travel. In other words, in the context of this study, a positive attitude towards traveling abroad is not a driver of one's desire. This is because a positive attitude towards traveling abroad is not the main thing that shapes a person's desire to travel abroad in this Covid-19 pandemic condition. For many travellers, a positive attitude towards the destination country remains in their minds, but the Covid-19 pandemic makes this positive attitude less meaningful. The results of the analysis show that the influence of people around the individual does not affect a person's desire to travel. During the Covid-19 pandemic, recommendations from the closest people such as family and friends to travel after travel restrictions were lifted became insignificant as a driving force for the desire to travel. Suggestions and opinions from people around the individual to immediately travel when conditions permit, are less significant than control factors from within individuals who believe they can travel abroad whenever possible, such as when overseas travel restrictions are not enforced. The results that are not significant on the influence of subjective norms and desires are also like the results of research conducted by Song et al. (2016).

4. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Covid-19 pandemic has affected many industrial sectors, including tourism. This study makes a practical contribution by predicting the intention of tourists to travel abroad. The results of this study indicate that a person's desire to travel, especially if traveling becomes a revenge trip, is more influenced by a person's emotions and perceived behavioural control that they can travel. Surveys on traveling show that many people want to travel, therefore, the tourism industry is important to know the intention of tourists to travel during the current COVID-19 pandemic. The results showed that desire was a strong predictor of intention to travel. The results of this study can be a "fresh breath" in line with other surveys related to traveling which show that many people hope to be able to travel as soon as conditions allow, such as more people being vaccinated, a decrease in the number of people infected with the virus, and others.

This study also contributes where the research model uses a solid model, namely GDBM and adds one variable, namely risk perception in the model. Although not all paths in the model are significant, insignificant results can provide an understanding that in the context of tourism during the Covid-19 pandemic it does not have a significant influence such as subjective attitudes and norms on a person's desire to travel. This research is not free from limitations. One of them is related to this research by using a purposive sampling design (non-probability sampling) which is intended only to select the right respondents for this study, but consequently this research cannot

be generalized to either the same or different contexts. This study only reflects the results of the sample used, namely respondents in Indonesia. Thus, future research can use the same model using various samples from various countries so that later it can give the same or different results but then contribute to the development of GDPM into a more solid model.

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