Jurnal Organisasi dan Manajemen

Journal Homepage : http://jurnal.ut.ac.id/index.php/JOM

The Effect of Fear of COVID-19 on Destination Image, Tourist Satisfaction, and Revisit Intention: Protection Motivation Theory Perspective

Muhammad Ihwanudin[*], Sri Hartini, Harris Prasetya Rahmandika

Faculty of Economics and Business, Universitas Airlangga, Indonesia
*corresponding author e-mail: ihwanudin.edu@gmail.com

Article Info	Abstract
	Purpose – This study examines the effect of fear of COVID-19, tourist satisfaction, and destination image on the revisit intention. **Methodology** – Data was collected through social media surveys to 370 total domestic tourist respondents. Then, the data was processed with IBM SPSS version 26 to describe demographics and SmartPLS 3.2.9 to test structural equation modelling between variables. **Findings** – This study showed that the fear of COVID-19 significantly affected destination image, tourist satisfaction and revisit intention. **Novelty** – This study has presented that health risks (COVID-19) are not a problem for domestic tourists when travelling. Thus, the threat of COVID-19 does not affect tourists' perceptions of destination image, tourist satisfaction, and revisit intention.

1. Introduction

The tourism sector is one of the industries that has fallen due to a disaster or crisis, such as COVID-19. This health crisis is a challenge because the pandemic impacts socio-economic and public health worldwide, one of which is the tourism sector. Indonesia is a tourist destination country affected by the pandemic, with the number of foreign tourist visits falling by 60.98 per cent or around 1.58 billion people in 2021. Domestic tourists are predicted to increase by 12 per cent from 2020, with 260-280 million visits. On an economic scale, the role of domestic tourists contributes to the tourism sector by 4.3 per cent of Indonesia's GDP in 2022 (Yanwardhana, 2021). During the pandemic, restrictions on social activities force foreign tourists to be unable to visit Indonesia, so domestic tourists will be the driving force of the tourism industry. However, domestic tourists have different characteristics, which tend to be challenging to control, rule-abiding, and undisciplined. Tourist destinations are vulnerable to the spread of viruses that threaten tourists. Therefore, the issue of tourism in the post-pandemic COVID-19 era is an important topic to study, especially to study the behaviour patterns of tourists when facing a pandemic. However, few still examine health risks or the pandemic (COVID-19) in tourist attractions (Bhati et al., 2021).

Protection motivation theory (PMT) is an approach to identifying a person's perspective on a threat. Previous research found differences in psychological responses and perceived risk or health risks to travel behaviour or future travel intentions (Bhati et al., 2021). In addition, other factors are considered in travelling, such as destination image, satisfaction, and revisit intention. Destination image implies an assessment of the quality of a particular destination and the overall impression of the destination. A destination image is a dynamic system of thoughts, feelings, images, and intentions in a specific destination. In addition, according to Wu et al. (2018), tourist satisfaction is the overall feeling that a person gets from visiting a tourist attraction. Several tourism experts have discussed the reasons why someone travels for tourism. They investigated tourist behaviour and found that the image of the destination is essential (Stylos et al., 2016). This impression affects the pleasure of tourists (Kim, 2018). Tourism image has a favourable impact on satisfaction (Chaulagain et al., 2019). Research has found that higher satisfaction levels lead to stronger intentions to return in the future (Chaulagain et al., 2019; Kim, 2018). The performance appraisals of destination image quality can influence efforts to change travellers' attitudes and intentions. Such good performance evaluation is a necessary antecedent to positive behavioural intentions (Seetanah et al., 2020). This study aims to test and provide an overview of the application of the Potential Motivation Theory (PMT) concept in abnormal conditions or a health crisis (COVID-19). In addition, this study also examines the relationship between tourist satisfaction and destination image on tourists' revisit intentions. The results of this study are expected to contribute to tourism business managers and the government to create a good tourism business climate to increase tourism visits.

1.1 Potential Motivation Theory (PMT)

PMT is a theory that explains individual motivation in responding to a threat or dangerous action. In this theory, individuals will assess the severity level, the likelihood of exposure to a hazard, the ability to prevent a hazard, and the way they change their attitudes accordingly. It allows individuals to respond to a threat through two cognitive approaches, they are the threat and coping assessment. Threat assessment refers to risk assessment based on severity and vulnerability. Severity refers to how people perceive the seriousness of the consequences of a threat. In contrast, vulnerability refers to assessing the likelihood that a threat will cause harm and loss (Rogers, 1975). In this study, severity indicates the psychological threat associated with COVID-19 while travelling to a destination.

Meanwhile, vulnerability refers to a person's sensitivity and expectation of being exposed to COVID-19 while travelling. Therefore, tourists who perceive a high level of severity and vulnerability tend to experience a high level of personal threat of being exposed to COVID-19, increasing tourists' awareness when travelling. According to Liu et al. (2022), coping assessment consists of response efficacy and self-efficacy. Response efficacy is a person's belief in the efficacy of the recommended action steps in avoiding a threat (e.g., strict health protocols, self-quarantine, vaccinations, and keeping a safe distance). Meanwhile, self-efficacy shows a person's confidence and ability to perform tasks by the recommendations received. Coping assessment increases the individual's likelihood of engaging in effective protective behaviour. Therefore, tourists' protective motivation will increase along with their behaviour, reduce threats effectively (i.e., high response efficacy), and increase their expectation to engage in successful adaptive behaviour (i.e., high self-efficacy).

During the pandemic, the PMT concept is suitable for explaining changes in tourist behaviour when dealing with the risks and fears of COVID-19 (Bhati et al., 2021). Travellers tend to choose places that guarantee their security, safety, and health. The results of the study by Qiao

et al. (2022) show that the strong motivation to protect themselves from the threat of the virus has changed the views and behaviour of tourists in Australia. The PMT concept has been widely applied in health-related research, but few use it to the COVID-19 pandemic phenomena in the tourism industry (see Figure 1).

1.2   Fear of COVID-19 and Destination Image

Risk is the perception of uncertainty about the severity and consequences of a threatening event (Moutinho, 1987; Wahyudi et al., 2020). Physical risk is the potential for a person's health to be threatened with illness and injury due to problems with the law, weather, hygiene, and disease (Foroudi et al., 2021). When travelling, tourists will consider their chosen destination's risk and safety factors (Chew & Jahari, 2014). Risk perception and travel behaviour are condition-specific, so risk perception may differ depending on location and traveller characteristics. Thus, travellers tend to choose safe destinations with low levels of risk (Chew & Jahari, 2014). Risk perception will affect the perception of destination image so that travellers choose destinations with common physical and health risks (Sigala, 2020). According to a study by Loureiro & Jesus (2019), the image of Rio De Janeiro, known to be unfriendly and high in crime, negatively impacts tourists' perceptions even though the city has beautiful tourist destinations. In another study, Chengdu, China, is an industrial city with poor air quality, so tourists have negative perceptions due to health risks (Liang & Xue, 2021). Unhealthy air quality affects the tourist experience and negatively affects the image of Chengdu. Based on the cognitive appraisal theory of emotion (Frijda, 1987), tourists' assessment of perceived destination risk can trigger cognitive, affective and conative reactions. The risk of exposure to COVID-19 will lead to negative cognitive associations, unpleasant affective states, and tourists are not interested in returning to the same destination.
H_1: Fear of COVID-19 influences destination image

1.3   Fear of COVID-19 and Tourist Satisfaction

Risk is seen as a person's subjectivity about the risk of uncertainty in the purchase (profit or loss) (Biswas et al., 2021). Risk perception and unpleasant consumption experiences directly affect the level of satisfaction (Chaudhuri, 1997). It creates feelings of anxiety and concern about whether their travel will be satisfying, otherwise (Johnson et al., 2008). Therefore, risk has a negative and significant effect on customer satisfaction.
H_2: Fear of COVID-19 influences tourist satisfaction

1.4   Fear of COVID-19 and Revisit Intention

Travellers face health risks that influence their decisions, so that previous travelling experiences will influence future decisions. According to Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty (2009), risks are considered obstacles that negatively impact travellers' experience when visiting Thailand. The obstacles are divided into factors such as safety and security (e.g., HIV/AIDS, prostitution, and crime), environment (e.g., pollution and natural disasters), and travel (e.g., distance, cost, accommodation, and congestion). This study shows that travellers who experience many travel barriers are less likely to return to Thailand. Another study showed that 54 per cent of travellers would return to a destination that offers a safe and comfortable experience (Karl, 2018). In addition, tourist destinations with low potential risks are preferred and will be revisited in the future (Nik Hashim et al., 2019).
H_3: Fear of COVID-19 influences revisit intention

1.5   Destination Image and Tourist Satisfaction

A destination image is a traveller's ideas, impressions, and beliefs about a tourist attraction (Zhang et al., 2014). Perceived destination image can influence travel decisions. Destination image can be explained based on cognitive and affective perspectives (Beerli & Martin, 2004). The cognitive perspective evaluates the quality of the destination, such as experiences, attractions, performances, cleanliness, and value for money. At the same time, the affective perspective evaluates the emotional factors of travellers during the trip (Gibson et al., 2008). Destination image, directly and indirectly, correlates with satisfaction (Mahasuweerachai & Qu, 2011). A good destination image will increase traveller satisfaction and vice versa. Tourist satisfaction reflects judgements from previous travel experiences. Tourists who perceive a positive destination image will have better satisfaction and behavioural intentions (Lee et al., 2005). This study uses the general destination image construct. It has been tested in many tourism destinations and has positively influenced overall satisfaction.

H_4: Destination image influences tourist satisfaction.

1.6   Destination Image and Tourist Satisfaction

Destination image is considered one factor that tourists want to visit again to travel. Destination image can shape tourists' behaviour when they make travel decisions. These travel decisions will influence their future experiences, judgements and decisions (Lee et al., 2005). All destination resources and attractions can represent destination image attributes influencing tourists' intention to visit again (Ha Nam Khanh, 2020).

H_5: Destination image influences revisit intention

1.7   Tourist Satisfaction and Revisit Intention

Satisfaction is essential in a tourism travel (Stamolampros et al., 2019). According to the classic expectation-rejection paradigm (Oliver, 1980), customer satisfaction compares what customers expect and receive in the consumption experience. Satisfaction is a combined form of a person's feelings of pleasure after travelling (Lee et al., 2005). Empirically, tourists' interest in returning to visit a destination in the future is strongly influenced by previous experiences and satisfaction (Assaker et al., 2011). (Fornell, 1992) suggests that the more customers are satisfied with the service they receive, the greater their intention to engage in good behaviour for their service provider. The smaller their choice to switch to an alternative service provider. Satisfaction can influence repurchase intentions. Customer satisfaction acts as one of the main precursors of post-purchase intentions. It increases customer insight into a product or service. A recent study showed that traveller satisfaction significantly influences revisit intention to Semenggoh Nature Reserve, Malaysia (Chan et al., 2022). So, the overall satisfaction influences repeat visits and recommendations.

H_6: Tourist satisfaction influences revisit intention
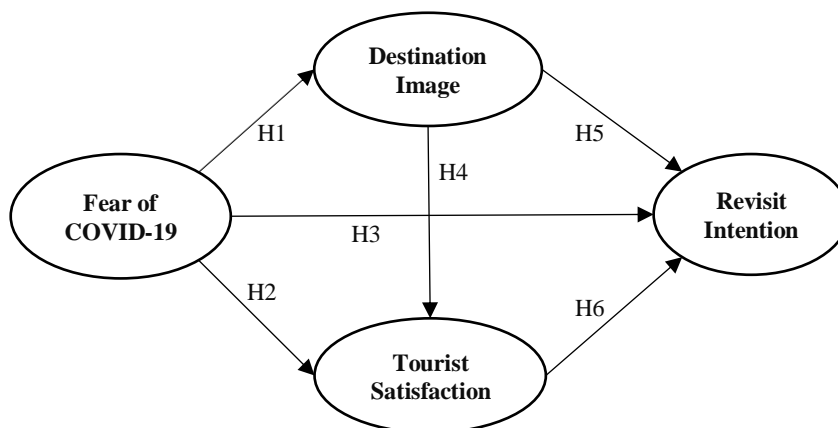
Thus, the model of the research framework is:

Figure 1. Research Model

2.   Research Methods

This study had specific criteria where respondents were domestic tourists who visited Bali and planned to return to Bali during the pandemic. Thus, a quantitative approach was applied with a combination of sampling techniques, namely purposive sampling (non-probability sampling). Social media was utilised to find respondents who fit the criteria, then questionnaires were given to be filled in with a collection period spanning from January to March 2022. Respondents qualified to participate in this study were 370 people with varying socio-economics and demographic profiles (see Table 1). The PLS-SEM approach was very suitable for explaining phenomena related to travel behaviour, especially travel plans in the post-pandemic future. IBM SPSS version 26 was used to implement demographic profiling and common method bias (CMB). Otherwise, SmartPLS 3.2.9 was used to implement PLS-SEM. The PLS-SEM approach can explain the research model in two stages. First, test the reliability and validity of the measurement model including questionnaire item reliability, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. Second, testing the structural model and the proposed hypothesis (Hair Jr et al., 2017).

3.   Results and Discussions

3.1 Respondent Profiles

Table 1 shows the demographics of the respondents, and there are 370 respondents.

Table 1. Demographics

Categories	Frequency	%
Gender		
Male	273	74
Female	97	26
Age		
17-26	187	51
27-36	105	28
37-46	51	14
>46	27	07

Categories	Frequency	%
Education level		
Bachelor	211	57
Master	147	40
Doctor	12	3
Occupation		
Student	119	32
Housewife	7	2
Civil Servant	12	3
Private Employee	217	59
Entrepreneur	15	4
Income per month (IDR)		
1,000,000 - 1,999,999	14	4
2,000,000 - 2,999,999	34	9
3,000,000 - 3,999,999	90	24
4,000,000 - 4,999,999	134	36
> 5,000,000	98	26
Travel Style		
Solo Travel	257	69
Tour Agent	113	31
Total Visits to Bali		
Once	135	36
Twice	196	53
Three times	19	5
Four times	13	4
More than five times	7	2

Source: processed data

The demographic table shows that males (74 per cent) dominated with an age range of 17-26 years (51 per cent) and Bachelor's level of education (57 per cent) and worked as private employees (59 per cent) with a monthly salary (IDR) of around 4,000,000-4,999,999 (36 per cent). Specifically on tourist behaviour, respondents with a solo vacation style (69 per cent) and the number of visits to the island of Bali about two times (53 per cent) were the most. The respondents were dominated by the millennial generation, who had a reasonably good education, job, and monthly income. Related to this research, respondents were assumed to be able to travel several times (e.g., Bali) and are up-to-date about COVID-19 in Indonesia.

3.2   Common Method Bias (CMB)

This study applied the Harman single-factor test, variance inflation factor (VIF) collinearity and Correlation Matrix Procedure to evaluate the risk of common method bias (Kock, 2015; Podsakoff et al., 2012). Harman's single factor test recommends a cumulative percentage of variance value of less than 50 per cent. Then, the variance collinearity inflation factor (VIF) test requires a maximum weight of 5 basis points for composite-based approaches (Kock & Lynn, 2012). The Correlation Matrix procedure assesses the relationship between variable construct values with a recommended value of less than 0.90. This study produced a Harman single factor result value of 33.87 per cent, meaning that the total variance can be explained by a single factor of 33.87 per cent <50 per cent. Thus, the results showed that the full collinearity VIF for all constructs ranged from 2.323 to 3.149 (see Table 3, lower than 5). The correlation between constructs was 0.615-0.884 (see Table 3, they were less than 0.90). It indicates common method bias was not found.

3.3   Measurement Model Assessment

The measurement model of all constructs in this study was reflective, measured by the reliability and validity approach. Survey research with a questionnaire that applies 5 Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree). Table 2 shows all indicator factor loading values (0.705 to 0.923), Cronbach's alpha values (0.859 to 0.898), and composite reliability values (0.914 to 0.924) with significance values smaller than 0.001 (p<0.001), which was greater than 0.70 (Hair Jr et al., 2017). Therefore, based on these values, the measurement model fulfilled the reliability and validity requirements.

Table 2. Construct Reliability and Collinearity Measurement

Construct/items	Mean	SD	FL	CR	α	VIFs
Fear of COVID-19 (Ahorsu et al., 2020)						
FOC1. I am most afraid of COVID-19	4.45	0.72	0.820			
FOC2. It makes me uncomfortable to think about COVID-19	4.45	0.76	0.812			
FOC3. My hands become clammy when I think about COVID-19	4.35	0.84	0.801			
FOC4. I am afraid of losing my life because of COVID-19	4.38	0.74	0.773	0.918	0.895	3.149
FOC5. I am nervous and anxious when I watch COVID-19 news on social media	4.49	0.76	0.790			
FOC6. I can not sleep because I am worried about getting COVID-19	4.49	0.74	0.786			
FOC7. My heart races or palpitates when I think about getting COVID-19	4.39	0.78	0.705			
Destination Image (Chi & Qu, 2008)						
DI1. Bali is a safe place to visit	4.23	0.83	0.836			
DI2. Bali is an important place to visit	4.21	0.82	0.846			
DI3. Transportation within Bali is convenient	4.45	0.69	0.826	0.924	0.898	2.606
DI4. Bali offers a variety of activities for visitors to do	4.50	0.79	0.834			
DI5. Bali is an affordable place to visit	4.48	0.78	0.868			
Tourist Satisfaction (Fuller et al., 1999)						
TS1. Overall, I was satisfied with my visit to Bali	4.78	0.67	0.923			
TS2. Compared to my expectations, I was satisfied with my visit to Bali	4.74	0.65	0.837	0.915	0.860	2.382
TS3. Compared to an ideal situation, I was satisfied with my visit to Bali	4.75	0.69	0.889			
Revisit Intention (Hellier et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2018)						
RI1. I intend to return to Bali when the pandemic has subsided	4.40	0.89	0.863			
RI2. I may return to visit Bali in the future when the pandemic has declined	4.58	0.78	0.922	0.914	0.859	2.323
RI3. The likelihood of me returning to visit Bali for travel is very high when the pandemic has declined	4.41	0.79	0.865			

Note: SD = Standard Deviation, FL = Factor Loading, CR = Composite Reliability, α = Cronbach's Alpha, VIFs = Variance Inflation Factors

Source: processed data

Table 3 displays the results of the variable construct validity assessment. The first step is to calculate the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) value which is known to be between 0.615 and 0.781, which is greater than 0.50 (Hair Jr et al., 2017). The second step calculating the square root value of the AVE of each construct (0.785 to 0.884), must be greater than the correlation between constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The third step is calculating the Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio of Correlations (HTMT) value, which is obtained between 0.733 to 0.851, far below 0.85 to 0.90 (Hair Jr et al., 2017). In conclusion, the model had fulfilled convergent and discriminant validity requirements.

Table 3. Construct Validity Assessment

Constructs	AVE	Fornell-Larcker criterion				HTMT		
		1	2	3	4	1	2	3
FOC-19	0.615	**0.785**						
DI	0.709	0.666	**0.842**			0.737		
TS	0.781	0.655	0.754	**0.884**		0.745	0.851	
RI	0.780	0.645	0.708	0.694	**0.883**	0.733	0.805	0.802

Note: AVE = Average Variance Extracted; $\sqrt{AVE}$ = diagonal numbers in bold

Source: processed data

3.4 Structural Model Assessment

A structural model was evaluated by using various criteria. Model fit resulted in SRMR = 0.072, d_ULS = 0.881, d_G = 0.649, Chi-Square = 1316.819, NFI = 0.754, and rms Theta = 0.209. Standardised root-mean-square residual (SRMR) test result of 0.072 is smaller than 0.10, meaning that the model has fit the required criteria. The prediction power of the model was examined using R^2 (Explained Variance) and Q^2 (Predictive Relevance) values of predicted variables. Falk & Miller (1992) suggested that the R^2 values must be higher than the 0.10 level (DI=0.442, TS=0.609, RI=584). Also, all the Stone-Geisser's Q^2 values for endogenous constructs (DI=0.306, TS=0.457, RI=0.449) were positive, which corroborated the adequate predictive relevance of the proposed model (Hair Jr et al., 2017). Furthermore, the effect size (f^2) was assessed based on Cohen's cut-off values: 0.02 (small); 0.15 (medium); and 0.35 (strong) effect of exogenous variables on endogenous factors (Cohen, 2013; Hair Jr et al., 2017). The effect size (f^2) values were FOC19->DI = 0.769; FOC19->TS = 0.109; FOC19->RI = 0.066; DI->TS = 0.467; DI->RI = 0.104; TS->RI = 0.078. The effect size (f^2) values for paths ranged from 0.066 to 0.769, indicating Medium-Strong effects.

Table 4. Results of The Inner Model and Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis	β	T-Stat	P-Value	Decision
H₁. Fear of COVID-19 -> Destination Image	0.666	10.333	0.000	Supported
H₂. Fear of COVID-19 -> Tourist Satisfaction	0.275	2.714	0.007	Supported
H₃. Fear of COVID-19 -> Revisit Intention	0.233	4.129	0.000	Supported
H₄. Destination Image -> Tourist Satisfaction	0.571	6.506	0.000	Supported
H₅. Destination Image -> Revisit Intention	0.335	5.411	0.000	Supported
H₆. Tourist Satisfaction -> Revisit Intention	0.288	4.355	0.000	Supported

Note: β = Coefficients

Source: processed data

Table 4 shows the test results of the six proposed direct impact hypotheses. The fear of COVID-19 had a significant positive effect on destination image (β=0.666, t=10.333, p=0.000), tourist satisfaction (β=0.275, t=2.714, p=0.007), and revisit intention (β=0.233, t=4.129, p=0.000). The destination image had a significant positive effect on tourist satisfaction (β=0.571, t=6.506, p=0.000). Then, the destination image (β=0.335, t=5.411, p=0.000) and tourist satisfaction (β=0.288, t=4.355, p=0.000) had a significant positive effect on revisit intention. Based on the results, all hypotheses were supported.

4.   Conclusions

The results of hypothesis testing showed significant effects that the COVID-19 health crisis affected destination image, tourist satisfaction, and intention to return to Bali. This research has made a theoretical contribution to applying the Protective Motivation Theory (PMT). With a low threat assessment and perceived vulnerability for tourists, the severity of the perceived threat of COVID-19 is considered harmless. The PMT concept suggests that alleviating fear can change attitudes and behaviour (Hovland et al., 1953). However, this research has produced a behavioural anomaly in which tourists did not feel the risk of contracting COVID-19 when they decide to travel. The limitations of this study have not accommodated foreign tourist respondents because there may be differences in travel behaviour. Then, the research objects were less diverse, so a comparison is needed to make precise comparison results. This research can be developed further by conducting qualitative research with the help of apt sources and examining the mediating and moderating effects of existing models. Regarding managerial recommendations, this research recommends tourist managers comply with the supervision and compliance with the COVID-19 protocol according to government recommendations. When managers can guarantee tourists' safety, security and health, they are not worried about travelling even though the conditions are still a COVID-19 pandemic.

References

Ahorsu, D. K., Lin, C.-Y., Imani, V., Saffari, M., Griffiths, M. D., & Pakpour, A. H. (2020). The fear of COVID-19 scale: development and initial validation. *International Journal of Mental Health and Addiction*, 1–9. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1007/s11469-020-00270-8

Assaker, G., Vinzi, V. E., & O'Connor, P. (2011). Examining the effect of novelty seeking, satisfaction, and destination image on tourists' return pattern: A two factor, non-linear latent growth model. *Tourism Management*, *32*(4), 890–901. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2010.08.004

Beerli, A., & Martin, J. D. (2004). Factors influencing destination image. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *31*(3), 657–681. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2004.01.010

Bhati, A. S., Mohammadi, Z., Agarwal, M., Kamble, Z., & Donough-Tan, G. (2021). Motivating or manipulating: The influence of health-protective behaviour and media engagement on post-COVID-19 travel. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *24*(15), 2088–2092. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2020.1819970

Biswas, C., Deb, S. K., Hasan, A. A.-T., & Khandakar, M. S. A. (2021). Mediating effect of tourists' emotional involvement on the relationship between destination attributes and tourist satisfaction. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights*, *4*(4), 490–510. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1108/JHTI-05-2020-0075

Chan, W.-C., Wan Ibrahim, W. H., Lo, M.-C., Mohamad, A. A., Ramayah, T., & Chin, C.-H. (2022). Controllable drivers that influence tourists' satisfaction and revisit intention to Semenggoh Nature Reserve: The moderating impact of destination image. *Journal of*

Ecotourism, *21*(2), 147–165. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1080/14724049.2021.1925288

Chaudhuri, A. (1997). Consumption emotion and perceived risk: A macro-analytic approach. *Journal of Business Research*, *39*(2), 81–92. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S0148-2963(96)00144-0

Chaulagain, S., Wiitala, J., & Fu, X. (2019). The impact of country image and destination image on US tourists' travel intention. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *12*, 1–11. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2019.01.005

Chew, E. Y. T., & Jahari, S. A. (2014). Destination image as a mediator between perceived risks and revisit intention: A case of post-disaster Japan. *Tourism Management*, *40*, 382–393. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.07.008

Chi, C. G.-Q., & Qu, H. (2008). Examining the structural relationships of destination image, tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty: An integrated approach. *Tourism Management*, *29*(4), 624–636. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2007.06.007

Cohen, J. (2013). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Routledge.

Falk, R. F., & Miller, N. B. (1992). *A primer for soft modeling*. University of Akron Press.

Fornell, C. (1992). A national customer satisfaction barometer: The Swedish experience. *Journal of Marketing*, *56*(1), 6–21. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1177/002224299205600103

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). *Structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error: Algebra and statistics*. Sage Publications Sage CA: Los Angeles, CA. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1177/002224378101800313

Foroudi, P., Tabaghdehi, S. A. H., & Marvi, R. (2021). The gloom of the COVID-19 shock in the hospitality industry: A study of consumer risk perception and adaptive belief in the dark cloud of a pandemic. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *92*, 102717. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102717

Frijda, N. H. (1987). Emotion, cognitive structure, and action tendency. *Cognition and Emotion*, *1*(2), 115–143. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1080/02699938708408043

Fuller, J. B., Morrison, R., Jones, L., Bridger, D., & Brown, V. (1999). The effects of psychological empowerment on transformational leadership and job satisfaction. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *139*(3), 389–391. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1080/00224549909598396

Gibson, H. J., Qi, C. X., & Zhang, J. J. (2008). Destination image and intent to visit China and the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games. *Journal of Sport Management*, *22*(4), 427–450. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1123/jsm.22.4.427

Ha Nam Khanh, G. (2020). How Destination Image Factors Affect Domestic Tourists Revisit Intention to Ba Ria–Vung Tau Province, Vietnam. *Ha Nam Khanh GIAO, Nguyen Thi Kim NGAN, Nguyen Pham Hanh PHUC, Huynh Quoc TUAN, Ha Kim HONG, Huynh Diep Tram ANH, Duong Thi Huynh NHU7, Ngo Thi LAN/Journal of Asian Finance, Economics and Business*, *7*(6), 209–220.

Hair Jr, J. F., Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C. M., & Gudergan, S. P. (2017). *Advanced issues in partial least squares structural equation modeling*. saGe publications.

Hellier, P. K., Geursen, G. M., Carr, R. A., & Rickard, J. A. (2003). Customer repurchase intention: A general structural equation model. *European Journal of Marketing*, *37*(11/12), 1762–1800. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1108/03090560310495456

Hovland, C. I., Janis, I. L., & Kelley, H. H. (1953). *Communication and persuasion*.

Johnson, M. S., Sivadas, E., & Garbarino, E. (2008). Customer satisfaction, perceived risk and affective commitment: an investigation of directions of influence. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *22*(5), 353–362. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1108/08876040810889120

Karl, M. (2018). Risk and uncertainty in travel decision-making: Tourist and destination perspective. *Journal of Travel Research*, *57*(1), 129–146. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287516678337

Kim, J.-H. (2018). The impact of memorable tourism experiences on loyalty behaviors: The mediating effects of destination image and satisfaction. *Journal of Travel Research*, *57*(7), 856–870. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287517721369

Kock, N. (2015). Common method bias in PLS-SEM: A full collinearity assessment approach. *International Journal of E-Collaboration (Ijec)*, *11*(4), 1–10.

Kock, N., & Lynn, G. (2012). Lateral collinearity and misleading results in variance-based SEM: An illustration and recommendations. *Journal of the Association for Information Systems*, *13*(7).

Lee, C.-K., Lee, Y.-K., & Lee, B. (2005). Korea's destination image formed by the 2002 World Cup. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *32*(4), 839–858. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2004.11.006

Liang, X., & Xue, J. (2021). Mediating effect of destination image on the relationship between risk perception of smog and revisit intention: a case of Chengdu. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *26*(9), 1024–1037. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2021.1941156

Liu, Y., Draper, J., & Dawson, M. (2022). The relationship between work experience and career expectations: career decision-making self-efficacy as mediator. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 1–12. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1080/10963758.2022.2034118

Loureiro, S. M. C., & Jesus, S. (2019). How perceived risk and animosity towards a destination may influence destination image and intention to revisit: The case of Rio de Janeiro. *Anatolia*, *30*(4), 497–512. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1080/13032917.2019.1632910

Mahasuweerachai, P., & Qu, H. (2011). *The impact of destination image on value, satisfaction, and loyalty: Moderating effects of tourist characteristics and involvement*.

Moutinho, L. (1987). Consumer behaviour in tourism. *European Journal of Marketing*, *21*(10), 5–44. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1108/EUM0000000004718

Nik Hashim, N. A. A., Yusoff, A. M., Awang, Z., Aziz, R. C., Ramlee, S. I. F., Bakar, N. A., Noor, M. A. M., & Fatt, B. S. (2019). The effect of domestic tourist perceived risk on revisit intention in Malaysia. *International Journal of Innovative Technology and Exploring Engineering (IJITEE)*. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.35940/ijitee.J1085.0881019

Oliver, R. L. (1980). A cognitive model of the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decisions. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *17*(4), 460–469. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1177/002224378001700405

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2012). Sources of method bias in social science research and recommendations on how to control it. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *63*, 539–569. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-120710-100452

Qiao, G., Ruan, W. J., & Pabel, A. (2022). Understanding tourists' protection motivations when faced with overseas travel after COVID-19: the case of South Koreans travelling to China. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *25*(10), 1588–1606. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2021.1928011

Rittichainuwat, B. N., & Chakraborty, G. (2009). Perceived travel risks regarding terrorism and disease: The case of Thailand. *Tourism Management*, *30*(3), 410–418. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2008.08.001

Rogers, R. W. (1975). A protection motivation theory of fear appeals and attitude change1. *The Journal of Psychology*, *91*(1), 93–114. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1080/00223980.1975.9915803

Seetanah, B., Teeroovengadum, V., & Nunkoo, R. (2020). Destination satisfaction and revisit intention of tourists: does the quality of airport services matter? *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *44*(1), 134–148. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348018798446

Sigala, M. (2020). Tourism and COVID-19: Impacts and implications for advancing and resetting industry and research. *Journal of Business Research*, *117*, 312–321. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2020.06.015

Stamolampros, P., Korfiatis, N., Chalvatzis, K., & Buhalis, D. (2019). Job satisfaction and employee turnover determinants in high contact services: Insights from Employees' Online reviews. *Tourism Management*, *75*, 130–147. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2019.04.030

Stylos, N., Vassiliadis, C. A., Bellou, V., & Andronikidis, A. (2016). Destination images, holistic images and personal normative beliefs: Predictors of intention to revisit a destination. *Tourism Management*, *53*, 40–60. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2015.09.006

Wahyudi, R., Diniyya, A. A., Satyarini, J. N. E., & Maulida, S. (2020). The Effect of Debt-Based Financing and Equity-Based Financing on Islamic Banks Profitability in Indonesia. *International Journal of Islamic Business and Economics (IJIBEC)*, *4*(2), 106–114. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.28918/ijibec.v4i2.2771

Wu, H.-C., Li, M.-Y., & Li, T. (2018). A study of experiential quality, experiential value, experiential satisfaction, theme park image, and revisit intention. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *42*(1), 26–73. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348014563396

Yanwardhana, E. (2021, February 2). Kunjungan 2021 Anjlok Parah, Wisman Masih Ogah ke Indonesia? *CNBC Indonesia*. https://www.cnbcindonesia.com/news/20220202144404-4-312340/kunjungan-2021-anjlok-parah-wisman-masih-ogah-ke-indonesia

Zhang, H., Fu, X., Cai, L. A., & Lu, L. (2014). Destination image and tourist loyalty: A meta-analysis. *Tourism Management*, *40*, 213–223. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.06.006

Zhang, H., Wu, Y., & Buhalis, D. (2018). A model of perceived image, memorable tourism experiences and revisit intention. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *8*, 326–336. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2017.06.004