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Pezeshki, Fereshteh; Saeida Ardekani, Saeid; Khodadadi, Masood; Alhosseini Almodarresi, Seyed Mahdi; Sadat Hosseini, Faride

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Cognitive structures of Iranian senior tourists towards domestic tourism destinations: A means-end chain approach

Abstract: This study constructed a hierarchical value map (HVM) which specified how Iranian senior tourists linked various attributes of domestic tourism destinations to definite consequences, and how such consequences helped them to satisfy their individual values. To do so, the present study, for the first time, demonstrated the cognitive structure of destination image on more abstract levels using the means-end chain (MEC) approach. Through the laddering technique and in-depth interviews with 30 Iranian senior citizens (ISTs), the hierarchical value map of the Iranian senior tourists was constructed, as a result of which seven key MECs were identified. The investigation revealed 12 attributes, 11 consequences, and five values that the Iranian senior tourists wished to achieve. Given the shortage of qualitative studies dealing with senior tourists’ behaviour, the findings of this study could serve as a key basis for the segmentation of the senior tourism market and the formulation of destination positioning strategies in Iran.

Keywords: cognitive structures; destination image; Iran tourism; laddering technique; means-end chain; senior tourism

1. Introduction

In the attempt to attract more visitors, tourism destinations normally compete with each other. Although international tourism appears to be the main source of interest for tourists, domestic tourism can still serve a variety of destinations (Huybers, 2003) and has a salient contribution to the national economy (Stylidis, Belhassen, & Shani, 2015). Destinations provide a composite of places, products, services, attributes, activities, attractions and experiences (Pearce & Schaenzel, 2015) which meet the needs of tourists. Tourists may visualise stereotypical images of different travel locations; in response, tourism managers need to promote the image of their site to maximise the number of visitors (Sirgy & Su, 2000). Destination image is a mental structure that
represents thoughts, beliefs, emotions and impressions about a destination (Kim & Chen, 2016). Similar to consumer brands, destination image is a vital factor for future visitors as it offers “a pre-taste of the destination” (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991, p. 10). Understanding how the destination image is shaped can be extremely helpful for destination promoters in terms of creating an appropriate image of their destination products (Hernández-Mogollón, Duarte, & Folgado-Fernández, 2017).

Suggesting that a destination image is the consumer’s “reasoned and emotional interpretation”, Beerli and Martin (2004, p. 658) have added a distinct dimension to the definition of destination image. An image is shaped through a broad spectrum of informational and promotional resources, coupled with travellers’ personal knowledge and direct experience of the location; an image, therefore, is the force that motivates a visitor to evaluate and choose a destination (Gartner, 1994). According to Baloglu (1999), an image is composed of two distinct but interrelated components: affective (feelings) and cognitive (beliefs). An affective image involves an individual’s emotional response to a product or place, while a cognitive image reflects product knowledge or place characteristics. A specific tourist destination's attractions or attributes are measured as a cognitive dimension of destination image (Becken, Jin, Zhang & Gao, 2017).

Focusing on the cognitive element represents a trend in cognitive psychology that has been widely recognised and suggests that an individual’s acquired knowledge in a specific domain has strong impacts on a significant proportion of his/her cognitive processes and outcomes (R. Lachman, Lachman, & Butterfield, 1979). Mental processes occurring between stimuli and behaviour can be understood by cognitive psychology (Skavronskaya et al., 2017). Kanwar, Olson, and Sims (1981, p. 123) explain that the content and organisation of the knowledge held in cognitive structures as well as their
effects have been considered by many cognitive theorists (Tulving & Donaldson, 1972; Kintsch, 1974; Anderson, 1976). Cognitive structures fundamentally influence processes such as attention, encoding, evaluating, storing, and applying information (Marks & Olson, 1981).

The cognitive structure of destination image has been investigated in previous studies (San Martín & Del Bosque, 2008). In most of these studies, the cognitive structure of destination image is based on attributions of the destination and is examined for various types of tourists. The number of senior tourists are increasing due to the global rise in aging population (Le Serre, Weber, Legohérel, & Errajaa, 2017). Therefore, investigating senior tourists' knowledge of the destination and their knowledge of themselves in the form of cognitive structures of destination image could enhance our understanding of the behavior of these tourists. This enhanced understanding could therefore, act as the foundation for formulation of effective strategies for senior tourism market as one of the emerging and attractive markets for the tourism industry.

Our comprehensive review of the relevant literature in relation to cognition, destination image, and senior tourism revealed three main gaps in the literature. (1) The cognitive dimension of tourists' destination image is mostly exclusive to their knowledge about destinations’ attributes (Echtner, & Ritchie, 1991; Alcañiz, Garcia, & Blas, 2009; Stylidis et al. 2015). (2) The destination image of senior tourists has been relatively overlooked, and the limited studies available, focus primarily on Western tourists (Neves, 2012; Utama, 2017). This is despite the growing global population of senior citizens, especially in Asia (Lee, 2016), and consequently the increase in the number of senior tourists, the study of the behavior of Asian senior tourists has been relatively overlooked (Le Serre, Legohérel, & Weber, 2013). (3) Finally, there are
limited studies focusing on the Iranian senior tourism market. This research therefore, aims to investigate the cognitive structure of Iranian senior tourists (ISTs) toward domestic destination. To do so the following questions have been developed and must be answered:

• Which attributions of domestic destination are of particular interest to Iranian senior tourists?

• What are the benefits/consequences of experiencing these attributes in the minds of the tourists and which values these benefits are associated with?

• What are relationships between these cognitive categories in the cognitive structure of senior tourists?

The contributions of this research are therefore, twofold. (1) Our research, for the first time, explores the cognitive dimension of destination image in relation to the Means-End Chain (MEC) theory and identifies the components of consequence and value. It also demonstrates how they are linked to the concrete attributions of the destination. (2) Considering the lack of studies focusing on destination image of Iranian senior tourists (ISTs), this study therefore sheds new light on this relatively under-investigated area.

The paper is organised as follows: first, the literature of senior tourism, destination image and cognition is reviewed, following which the potential of the MEC method for investigating cognitive structures is addressed. Subsequently, the MEC is used for a qualitative study of destination image in a domestic tourism context. Finally, research findings are reported and discussed, and their implications for further research and applications are highlighted.
2. Literature Review

2.1. Background to Senior Tourism

The world is dealing with population ageing. In 2017, 13% of the global population was aged 60 and above and the elderly population is increasing at a rate of about 3% per year. It is predicted that by 2050, nearly a quarter or more of the global population will be 60 or older (World Population Prospects, 2017). Although senior people are usually identified by “calendar age”, there is no consensus about when this period of life starts (Caber & Albayrak, 2014). The lowest age suggested for recognising a person as “senior” is 50 (Patuelli & Nijkamp, 2016). Improved health conditions have aided senior population growth (Ji, 2012). Having more free time and active lifestyles are the characteristics of most contemporary seniors which have encouraged higher levels of interest in travel (Alén, Losada, & Domínguez, 2016). Seniors have significant disposable time and money to spend on travel (Nyaupane, McCabe, & Andereck, 2008) and both the size and purchasing power of this cohort of consumers are steadily increasing (González, Rodríguez, Miranda, & Cervantes, 2009). Consequently, the travel industry cannot overlook the senior travel market as a promising market segment (Losada, Alén, Nicolau, & Domínguez, 2017; Wang et al., 2013).

Tourism and travel literature has been experiencing a considerable amount of growth in the number of studies specifically focusing on the senior tourist market since 2000. These studies have primarily attempted to identify different aspects of the senior market by exploring factors such as travel motivations, travel satisfaction, travel constraints, perceived health status and the associations of those factors with the segmentation of senior tourists, their travel choices and travel purchase decisions (Caber & Albayrak, 2014). Nielsen (2014) provided an overview of the literature on seniors’
tourist behaviour and described different methods of approaching it as analysis of constraints, comparative analysis, analysis of heterogeneity and temporal analysis. Because of the relation between how seniors’ tourist behaviour has been approached and how seniors are viewed, in Nielsen's (2014, p.118) study, two broad views were suggested: (1) seniors are seen as an ageing group or (2) as a heterogeneous group. Following the comprehensive study of Nielsen (2014), the senior tourist market has encouraged researchers to investigate in this field and examine various topics, especially in relation to constraints (Huber, Milne, & Hyde, 2018); accommodation (Anuar, Musa, Khalid, & Anderson, 2017; Losada et al., 2017); length of stay and frequency of travel (Alén, Nicolau, Losada, & Domínguez, 2014; Losada, Alén, Domínguez, & Nicolau, 2016); motivation and spirituality (Alén, Losada, & de Carlos, 2015; Moal-Ulvoas, 2017; Moal-Ulvoas, 2016; Patuelli, & Nijkamp, 2016); and cognitive age (Le Serre et al., 2017).

Cognitive age, such as cognitive structure, stems from the field of cognitive psychology and is often used in senior consumer behavior research. The cognitive age is connected to self-perception of the individual and determines what age the person feels regardless of his/her calendar age (Le Serre et al., 2017). Barak (1987) creates a new multidimensional age scale (cognitive age) to replace the identity age scale. The cognitive age scale successfully merges the identity age with personal age to gain an appropriate reliability and validity. The relationship between cognitive age and behavior of the seniors, including values (Sudbury & Simcock, 2009) and the motivations of tourists (González et al., 2009) have been investigated before. However, considering that cultural and personal definitions of age often differ (Barak, Stern, & Gould, 1988), in one recent study concerning cognitive age, Le Serre et al. (2017) identified culture as a moderating variable in relation to cognitive age and senior behavior. The findings of
this study show that in Asian culture (Chinese), cognitive age relation with travel perceived risk was stronger than European culture (France).

A number of studies have been conducted since 2000 which focus on the perspectives of senior tourists in relation to tourist destination choice. For example, Shoemaker (2000) identified a number of criteria for choosing a tourism destination by American senior tourists. The most important of these criteria were: beautiful natural scenery, accommodation prices, special discounts for seniors, and transportation costs. Norman, Daniels, McGuire & Norman (2001), similarly provided an analysis of the push/pull motivational factors and reported 6 important motivations/benefits (e.g. family, escape and relaxation) and 9 remarkable attributions (e.g. culture, climate, people and historical attractions) for the American senior tourists. Furthermore, Huang & Tsai (2003) found that Taiwanese senior tourists pay attention to historical, natural landscapes attributes and religious and Western programs. Neves (2012) identified Portuguese tourism destinations’ attractions for domestic senior tourists and analyzed the relationship between these perceived attractions (nature, shopping, the environment, health care facilities, and history) and the socio-demographic characteristics of this type of tourists. Lee (2016) also identified four attribute-level satisfaction factors for the Taiwanese senior tourists in his study. These factors were (1) diversity of natural and cultural resources, (2) barrier-free access to tourism and recreation attractions, (3) provision of senior-related facilities and services, and (4) quality of senior-only tour operations (Lee, 2016, p.18). Utama (2017) presented the destination image model of Bali Tourist Destination. In this model, the effect of three variables of push motivations, destination identity and destination creation on the destination image variable was measured from the perspective of foreign national senior tourists. The findings of this
study show that the destination creation and push motivations affect the destination
image.

2.2. An Overview of Senior Tourism in Iran

In the latest census in Iran (2016), the elderly aged 60 and older, make up 9.3% of the
population, which has been steadily growing since 1976 (Statistical Centre of Iran,
2017); it is expected that by 2050, the elderly will account for about 30% of the Iranian
population (Secretariat National Council of the Elderly, 2017). By 2011, Iran had
passed the second phase of the age transition (young stage), and by 2031, the third
phase of age transition (middle aged increase) will finish. After 2031, the aging phase
will dominate Iran's demographic structure (Moshfq & Mirza'i, 2010).

With regard to the movement of the Iranian population towards middle age and
aging, issues such as hygiene, health, the provision of comfort and the wellbeing of the
elderly in the community are becoming more widespread every day (Motie Haghshenas,
2011). Paying attention to the development of senior travel and planning for special
tours can be considered as a way to fill part of the leisure time for Iranian seniors
(Asadi, Rahimzadeh & Ahmadkhani, 2016).

As far as senior tourism is concerned, very limited research has been conducted
in Iran. Ghalamkari (2014) divided the market of Iranian senior tourists based on travel
motives and individual characteristics into three segments: younger seniors, rich seniors
and pluralist seniors; this study presented strategies for the development of domestic
tourism for these groups. Asadi et al. (2016) provided a comprehensive framework for
identifying and exploring the direct and indirect effects of each of the factors affecting
the development of the senior tourism industry in Iran. The results of this research
revealed that security, relaxation and comfort of the residence are the most important factors in Iran’s senior tourism development model. Using a cognitive mapping approach, Asadi, Boroumand Zad & Maleki Nejad (2017) provided a qualitative model for explaining the development of senior tourism in Yazd province. Their research findings demonstrate that factors like security, insurance, health standards, special services and transportation status play an important role in the development of senior tourism in Yazd province.

Despite the rising median age of Iran's population in recent years and the formation of the emerging market of senior tourism in Iran, limited studies have been carried out in the field of Iranian senior tourists. Since the definition of marketing strategies requires the recognition of consumer behaviour and the amount of research done on the behaviour of the senior tourist is insignificant, the need to study the factors affecting the behaviour of Iranian senior tourists is clear.

2.3. Cognition and Destination Image

Many researchers who have dealt with tourism regard destination image as a multidimensional construct which essentially rests on two dimensions: affective evaluation and cognitive evaluation (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a; San Martín, Herrero, & García de los Salmones, 2018). These dimensions create a general image of the location in question (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999b), although the cognitive image has a greater impact on general destination image (Hernández-Mogollón et al., 2017). Cognitive evaluation is determined by reference to knowledge and beliefs held about a location, whereas affective evaluation involves all feelings about the location in question (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a; Pike & Ryan, 2004). Through cognitive
evaluation, the tourist relies on the objective attributes of the location within the limits
of his/her knowledge (San Martin & Del Bosque, 2008). The attributes which may
persuade a tourist to visit a destination include natural and historical background, rich
heritage, lodging facility, the climate, among others (Stylidis et al., 2015). That is, the
more the tourist is aware of the positive features of the location, the more reliable
his/her cognitive evaluation will be (Sahin & Baloglu, 2011). Drawing on
sociolinguistic models explaining the formation of the destination image, Dann (1996)
and Gartner (1994) have identified three elements of an image: (a) affective (b)
cognitive and (c) conation. According to Agapito, Oom do Valle, and da Costa Mendes
(2013), these three dimensions of destination image are hierarchically interrelated and
the influence of the cognitive component on the conative dimension is higher when
mediated by the affective component. Moreover, Alcañiz et al. (2009) attempted to
advance knowledge of the cognitive dimension of a destination’s image by analysing its
composition and posited three positions (functional, mixed and psychological attributes)
on a continuum. They added the third position, called the "mixed", to Echtner and
cognitive component of destination image was to provide a continuum of Functional
(based on tangible or measurable perceptions) - Psychological (intangible and abstract
characteristics) that different attributions of destinations were posited in its different
position. Given that the destination image is the representation of destination in tourist's
mind (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991), we can use the concepts of cognitive psychology to
define this representation as a hierarchy of categories. This constitutes different levels
of abstraction in the mind, and the destination attributions have the lowest abstraction.
Early cognitive psychologists were remarkably influenced by computational
analogy, which was increasingly growing as a method of exploring mental functioning
(Gardner, 1985). The mind was conceptualised as a data processor or “software” and the brain was seen as the hardware. Interaction with the external environment was visualised as informational input; primarily, the mind was described as being a representation tool that converted sensory input into internal representations, which produced adjustive behaviour and processes as an output (Garfield, 1990). Knowledge of the world was an amalgamate of internal representations that were mostly stored in long-term memory. This primary configuration of cognitive psychology soon developed into a study of knowledge representation/process which advocated a radically rationalist explanation of behaviour (Moore, Smallman, Wilson, & Simmons, 2012).

The notion of cognitive structure, as far as the encoded representations of information are concerned, has become a central concept in consumer behaviour models. Such models assume that information is encoded and stored in organised networks of representations known as knowledge structures or cognitive structures (Kanwar et al., 1981). In an individual’s memory, these representations can be organised as schemata (schemas) or cognitive structures which are associated with a given product. A product schema involves coded representations of brand knowledge, product attributes, conditions of use, general information about categorising the product, and selection/evaluation rules. The coded information may be perceived to be organised or interrelated and may be stored in memory as a structural framework of knowledge (Norman & Bobrow, 1975). As a result, the schemata or cognitive structures of the product may encompass both real knowledge and evaluations/emotions, whilst storing purchase criteria and even decision rules and strategies (Olson, 1978). According to Ghosh and Gilboa (2014), representation of knowledge about a concept including its attributes and the relations among those attributes happens in a schema as a cognitive structure. Many researchers recognise knowledge structures or structured knowledge
(Jonassen, Beissner, & Yacci, 1993) as a state through which the individual sorts out facts, concepts, propositions, theories, and raw data (Taber, 2000). More specifically, knowledge structures are regarded as a hypothetical construct that organises the association between concepts in memory (Shavelson, 1972). Therefore, it is assumed that the order of information retrieved from long-term memory can, to some extent, reflect how an individual cognitive structure defines concepts and their links (Ifenthaler, Masduki, & Seel, 2011). It is generally accepted that individuals use the information in their long-term memory to understand, interpret, and store new information (Olson, 1980). Broadly speaking, cognitive structures are expected to leave a strong impact on individuals’ cognitive processes and behaviours (Marks & Olson, 1981).

The term hierarchy or cognitive structure refers to a hypothetical link between three interrelated constructs: product/brand attributes, consequences (e.g. perceived benefits) of using special attributes, and consumers’ orientations or end-states of being (e.g. personal values including security, happiness, and self-esteem) (Krystallis, 2015). The foundation of the MEC theory is a model of cognitive structures which represents the path through which concrete product characteristics are linked with consumer values (McIntosh & Thyne, 2005). In the literature, people’s inner thinking and cognitive structures in relation to a given product or event have been widely investigated through MEC theory (Lin & Fu, 2017). There are two approaches to the MEC theory: motivational and cognitive. The motivational perspective uses MEC to gain an insight into consumers’ purchase motivations. For instance, this approach attempts to detect the consequences that may follow the use of the marketing mix characteristics of a given product and the way such consequences are interlinked. The cognitive approach, on the other hand, employs MEC as a model of the "consumption-related cognitive structure" which stores and organises the information about consumption in memory. In other
words, the cognitive structure is hypothesised as a basic hierarchal model in which cognitive categories with differing levels of abstraction "are interlinked in chains and networks" (Grunert & Grunert, 1995, p. 210).

Applying the MEC theory to the tourism and leisure context primarily concentrates on tourist behaviour in terms of the choice of destination (Jiang, Scott, & Ding, 2015; Klenosky, Gengler, & Mulvey, 1993; Klenosky, 2002; Pike, 2012), museum and heritage visiting (Thyne, 2001), nature-specific experiences (Lin, Fu, & Li, 2017), choice of accommodation (Mattila, 1999), and other possible areas of investigation. In these cases, both MEC theory and the laddering technique are used. These theories can formulate qualitative research methods, as well as conceptual models, used to interpret the meanings that tourists and hosts associate with buying, consuming or experiencing tourism-related products/services. Meanwhile, they can facilitate an understanding the personal values underlying tourists’ and hosts’ behaviours (McIntosh & Thyne, 2005).

3. Methodology

3.1. MEC Theory and Laddering Technique

Broadly speaking, in studies concerned with marketing, MEC is employed to understand consumer behaviour (e.g. Jeng & Yeh, 2016; Walker & Olson, 1991). MEC is governed by expectancy-value theory and tries to outline the hierarchical relations established between product attributes (means), consequences arising from these attributes for consumers (benefits), and personal values (ends) which are reinforced by the consequences. The rationale behind MEC suggests that products (e.g. commodities, services, destinations, and ideas) are meaningful to consumers and that consumers evaluate meanings when making decisions about buying and consumption (Gutman,
MECs are hierarchical cognitive chains whereby consumers’ product knowledge is connected to their self-knowledge. The lower levels of the MEC hierarchy encompass objective knowledge about product attributes and their perceived associations with functional (concrete) consequences arising from product use. Such functional consequences may be associated with more abstract knowledge regarding psychological consequences of product use. Finally, some MECs may associate psychosocial consequences with concrete or completely abstract self-knowledge about consumer values and consumers tend to perceive products as *self-relevant* when their product knowledge regarding functional attributes and consequences is associated with their self-knowledge of favourable psychosocial consequences and values (Walker & Olson, 1991).

In MEC research, there is a semi-structured, one-on-one interviewing technique called *laddering*, which is normally used to recognise the components of consumers’ MECs (Klenosky et al., 1993; Reynolds & Gutman, 1988). The laddering technique involves a tailored interview format that draws on “a series of directed probes” revolving around the question “Why is that important to you?”. The ultimate purpose of this questioning is to identify the sets of linkages between key conceptual elements across the range of product attributes (A), consequences (C), and personal values (V) (Krystallis, 2015). The interview technique provides the respondents with an opportunity to speak openly, utter long sentences without being interrupted by the researchers, and communicate more than one consequence for each attribute or more than one value for each consequence (Botschen, Thelen & Pieters, 1999).

The attributes of products used by consumers can be identified through a variety of techniques (Krystallis, 2015). Such attributes are then selected as a starting point for in-depth interviews. Following an analysis of the content of laddering data, a summary
table (i.e. the implication matrix) is reached in which all direct or indirect linkages between Cs, As and Vs (the “A-C-V ladders”) are outlined. Next, most frequently emerging connections are represented as a tree diagram called the hierarchical value map. This map is inherently structural and reflects the associations across all levels of abstraction (Reynolds & Gutman, 1988). Gutman (1982) and, Olson and Reynolds (1983) adopt a cognitive structure perspective, stating that the hierarchical value map acquired from laddering data is “an aggregate map of cognitive structure” (Olson & Reynolds, 1983).

3.2. Data Collection and Sampling

In this study, the interviewees were Iranian senior citizens (over 50 years of age) who had undertaken a minimum of three trips to domestic destinations over the past five years and had plans for subsequent travels. A qualitative investigation requires information-rich participants, and individuals with travel experience would be more likely to have a clear idea of destination characteristics and their own desires. As a result, a purposive sampling method was used to identify the primary participants who were predominantly the friends and acquaintances of the researchers. The participants were then asked to introduce other candidates. The data was collected from March 2017 to June 2017 through 30 interviews conducted in Shiraz, Iran. Generally, a sample size ranging from 30 to 60 participants would be acceptable for a MEC-specific study (Reynolds & Gutman, 1984). The time and place of the interviews were arranged based on the participants’ preferences.

Each interview was initiated with a short introduction. The interviewees were informed of the purposes of the interview and the researchers were allowed to record the conversations. The respondents were first asked about their next destinations, and
they specified at least three different places. Next, the respondents were asked to
describe the considerable attributes of the destinations in question. On average, every
respondent would mention 4-6 cognitive elements concerning attributes. Subsequently,
the attributes which seemed to be more important to the respondents were designated as
the starting point of the laddering procedure. Based on these attributes, through the
conventional probe “Why is that important to you?”, the interviewees were asked to
subconsciously associate product attributes with consequences and/or their personal
values. The same process was continued until the respondents could no longer provide
an answer to the question raised. Interviews with the participants ranged from 30 to 75
minutes and were audio recorded.

3.3. Data Analysis Approach
Interviews were transcribed and content analysis was conducted to identify content
codes which represented the cognitive elements relevant to destinations. First, in the
coding process, the interview data were classified as concept codes. Then, concept
codes with close meanings were classified into content codes. Due to the focal
importance of terminal values in directing the entirety of the cognitive hierarchy, such
values were coded according to Rokeach (1973) and Schwartz’s (2012) theory of basic
human values. Schwartz's theory of value classified 10 "motivationally distinct values"
into four categories. As part of the coding process, some concept codes were grouped
according to the values of Schwartz's universalism, benevolence and security values.
Codes related to spirituality were also included in the Rokeach's (1973) terminal value
of salvation.
Through the coding process, 101 concept codes were identified, which were then
categorised into 28 summary content codes for subsequent analysis (see Table 1). The
content summary codes included 12 attributes, 11 consequences, and 5 values. The
reliability of the codes was assessed through the opinions of two evaluators, with 85% agreement on the codes assigned. Due to the software constraints in analyzing Persian data as well as the researchers' decision to present the results of this study in English, content codes were translated from Persian into English. Following the coding process, ladders based on the A-C-V levels were mapped. Each participant could create several ladders. The ladders of each respondent were entered into the LadderUX software and the data was analysed to construct both the implication matrix and the hierarchical value map (HVM) that represent the Iranian senior tourists’ cognitive structure of destination images (see Figure 1).

To establish a comprehensive HVM, direct linkages across A-C-V items were compared with a cut-off level (Krystallis, 2015). Although Gengler and Reynolds (1995) proposed a cut-off level at 5% of the sample size, the value was considered to be 2 in this study. In other words, every definite linkage in the HVM had to be mentioned at least once by at least three respondents. On average, for each respondent, 4.7 ladders were obtained from a total of 141 ladders and the average element / content code per ladder was estimated at 2.7 by the software.

Table 1. Summary Content Codes

Figure 1. Iranian Senior Tourists’ HVM

4. Results and Analysis

All of the respondents had already travelled to domestic destinations in Iran. The experiences they gained made it possible for them to discuss their knowledge of and beliefs about the destinations. Table 2 provides a summary of the respondents’
demographic information. The study sample included Iranian senior tourists (ISTs) who
were above 50 years of age. In this study, the mean age of the respondents was 64 years
(50 ≤ respondents’ age ≤ 82); 13% had lost their spouse, and 53% were female.
Furthermore, 60% held academic degrees.

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<th>Table 2. Demographic Profile of the Respondents</th>
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Out of the laddering data, seven major MECs were extracted that yielded a good understanding of the Iranian senior tourists’ cognitive structures (see Table 3). In the present study, key MECs are those cognitive chains in the aggregate map of cognitive structure of Iranian senior tourists, which relationships between cognitive categories are strong or moderate. While a key MEC can start with several different attributes, it ultimately leads to a single value.

MEC 1 dealt with “historic attractions- national pride-universalism”. Table 3 illustrates (in)direct linkages in MEC 1 across A-C-V levels; the numbers to the left of the decimal point clarify how many direct relations at various levels of abstraction were established between two cognitive categories, whereas the numbers to the right of the decimal point in every cell show the number of indirect relations (Reynolds & Gutman, 1988). For instance, in MEC 1, “historic attractions” had ten relations with “national pride”; that is to say, this direct relation was mentioned by the respondents ten times.

Similarly, there were 14 indirect relations between “historic attractions” and “universalism”; this suggested when the researchers probed into the cognitive categories beyond “historic attractions” during the laddering process, the respondents mentioned “universalism” 14 times at the level of values.
**MEC 1**

As Figure 1 depicts, *historic attractions* was linked with the consequence of *national pride*. With a history of about 10,000 years, Iran is a country that enjoys a rich culture and history and its contributions to human history heritage are well understood (Khodadadi & O’Donnell, 2018). The ISTs expressed a sense of *national pride* as an achievement gained from visiting the monumental heritage, which helped them realise the *universalism* value. For example, according to respondent 8, “I am proud to be Iranian when I see historical monuments of the Achaemenid period”. *Universalism* value in turn contributed to a sense of accomplishment, originality, and inner harmony. MEC 1 demonstrated a total of 19 direct relations and 14 indirect relations.

**MEC 2**

*Culture* and *historic attractions* were sources of interest for the respondents because these sources generate more knowledge, thus satisfying individual curiosity and leading to broad-mindedness and wisdom. In the coding procedure used, *historic attractions* included historic background and tangible objects, for instance old houses and palaces, museums, caravanserais and castles, old neighbourhoods, the tombs of eminent individuals, mosques/shrines, and bridges. *Culture* was regarded as an intangible entity and included artistic background, literature, rites and rituals, local accents and dialects, handcrafted artworks, foods, and agricultural products. The respondents preferred destinations with historic attractions and cultural background because such sites offer diverse experiences and new knowledge and ultimately help the respondents to meet the *universalism* value which, as they expressed, is founded upon curiosity, wisdom, and broad-mindedness.
For the respondents, *experience differences* was interpreted as a source of experiencing new and distinct feelings, visiting new places, and comparing them. Furthermore, *know more* was interpreted as gaining knowledge in a specific area, learning a lesson from history, and tracing the genealogy of interesting topics. Historical and cultural attractions brought about similar consequences, *experience of difference*, *know more*, and finally the *universalism* value. For example, according to respondent 9, “historical anecdotes can be taken into consideration, and subsequently change the view of life”; alternatively, respondent 4 stated that “I compare old Kashan's homes with old Shiraz homes and learn a lot”. As Table 3 shows, there were 55 direct relations and 40 indirect ones in MEC 2.

**MEC 3**

Natural landscapes and shrines are important to the respondents because such places are considered to be pacifying and reflections of God’s majesty, inspiring them to have (perceived) intimacy with God. Viewing natural landscapes and being present in saints’ sanctuaries helped the respondents return to their “inner selves” and experience positive energy. By experiencing *relaxation* in a peaceful place, the respondents mean receiving positive energy by releasing negative energy, overcoming sadness and worry, achieving distance from the urban lifestyle, and connecting with their inner selves. In the respondents’ own words, the main examples of *natural landscapes* are: seas, forests/jungles, rivers, mountains/plains, caves, palm tree fields, deserts and desert nights, richly green spaces, and pristine nature. *Relaxation*, with 23 direct relations, was one of the significant consequences that the ISTs tried to realise in the travel destinations they visited. Through inner peace and a contemplation of God’s creation, the respondents sought to feel intimacy with God and to be relieved from the burden of
their sins; in other words, their intention was to realise a sense of salvation in their lives. According to respondent 1, “the silence of nature relaxes me”, while respondent 11 stated that “by pilgrimage, I become relax, my negative energies are evacuated and I feel closer to God”. In total, 36 direct relations and 13 indirect relations were observed in MEC 3.

**MEC 4**

As Figure 1 illustrates, attributes such as activity in nature and previously unvisited locations released the ISTs from their normally monotonous lifestyle and consequently helped them to develop a sense of joy and happiness. For activity in nature, some activities in travel destinations were mentioned including cooking out in nature, fishing, canoeing, swimming and scuba diving, using warm fountains, walking along the shore, hiking, and enjoying flowers and plants. Respondent 6 made the following statement: “observing the flowers and plants of other areas is my hobby and creates variety in my life”. Old-fashioned markets / shopping centres in travel destinations were also desirable and interesting locations for the respondents. For example, according to respondent 12, “I enjoy the variety of colours and designs in the old markets”. Moreover, respondent 1 specified that “shopping changes my mood, it's better to say shopping therapy”. Better feeling / joy, with 19 direct relations and eight indirect relations, was an important consequence that the ISTs tried to realise by recourse to various facets. Several of them stated that better feeling / joy inspired positive emotions which were, in their own words, happiness, cheerfulness, and a life with diversity, joy and excitement. In MEC 4, 50 direct relations and 26 indirect relations were observed.
Discipline and cleanliness in cities, urban infrastructures, and new tourism attractions (e.g. flower gardens, bird gardens, and aquariums) were all elements of the code urban order (see Figure 1), and were interesting and enjoyable to the ISTs. The code security involved values expressed by the respondents such as social order, cleanliness, and protection of the environment. In total, there were 13 direct relations and five indirect ones in MEC 5.

Memory loss is one of the characteristics of old age. Aging adults may even experience severe forms of memory loss. Some of the respondents expressed that they might be more likely to remember the names and specifications of historic attractions by visiting such locations. Although they might have heard the names or seen the pictures of such locations, the ISTs tended to forget the attractions quite quickly. Yet, visiting such locations in person could make them more memorable (durability in mind) to the ISTs and help them enhance their mental and psychological health. According to respondent 10, for example, “my memory is weakened. Seeing the historic buildings in person makes them more memorable”. Security as a value represented wellbeing in MEC 6. This chain showed a total number of 10 direct relations and 5 indirect ones.

As expressed by the respondents, visiting family and friends and buying gifts/souvenirs were two attributes of the destination. Such gifts would primarily include food and agricultural products, as well as handcrafted artworks, in the travel destination. A tourist will buy such commodities as gifts for friends and family members living
close to home to please them, reinforcing friendship/kinship relationships, and expressing a pure sense of sincerity. In the Iranian culture, to sustain friendship/kinship relationships, it is particularly important to respond positively to people’s kindness, make others happy, and show concern. In Islamic traditions, Muslims are advised to maintain their relations with their kin, and the ISTs, who are generally faithful to religious principles, considered such recommendations even when choosing a travel destination. **Benevolence** as a value in MEC 7 referred to love, friendship and assistance. As Table 3 shows, there were 30 direct relations and 14 indirect ones in MEC 7.

Table 3. MECs of the Participants

5. **Discussion**

According to San Martín and Del Bosque (2008) some studies have explored “the cognitive structure of destination image”; however, the notion of cognitive structure mainly focuses on concrete cognitive categories (destination attributes) in these studies, whilst abstract cognitive categories of consequence and value have not been investigated. In the present study, the cognitive structures shaping the destination image revealed a path in which various concrete destination attributes were linked to values. In other words, the content of knowledge in the cognitive structure of the destination image was identified in three categories: attribute, consequence, and value. Then the way in which these categories could be organised or linked in the means-end chain was investigated. Considering the current gap in the destination image literature in relation to Iranian seniors and Middle Eastern culture, the Iranian senior tourists’ cognitive structure of destination image was studied.
The content of knowledge in the Iranian senior tourists’ (ISTs) cognitive structures of domestic destinations included 12 attributes, 11 consequences and five values. Concrete cognitive categories/destination attributes, including historic attractions, culture and natural landscapes, were perceived to be the most interesting categories. These attributes are of interest to the majority of the senior tourists from different nationalities. This is for example, highlighted in a number of studies focusing on destination attributes perceived by senior tourists (Alen et al., 2015; Huang & Tsai, 2003; Neves, 2012; Norman et al., 2001; Shoemaker, 2000; You & O'leary, 1999).

Further attributes such as activity in nature, previously unvisited locations, buying gifts/souvenirs, and pilgrimage sites constituted another set of domestic destination specifications important to the ISTs. However, previous studies have only investigated the first two attributes (e.g. Norman et al., 2001; Shoemaker, 2000; You & O'leary, 1999). Pilgrimage sites at the destination are important for some Iranian senior tourist. Similar attribute was highlighted by Huang & Tsai (2003) as "religious programs" for Taiwanese senior tourists. It is worth noting that majority of Iranians are religious and visiting pilgrimage sites is part of the religious duty. This behaviour tends to become more prominent with ageing (Moshfeg & Mirza'i, 2010). The attribute of buying gift / souvenirs in travel destinations has not been mentioned in previous studies. However, Jiang, et al. (2015) identified this destination attribute as "gift to relatives and friends" for Chinese tourists (younger and older age groups) who travel abroad.

The respondents mentioned such attributes as old-fashioned markets/shopping centres, visiting family and friends, urban order, good people, and good climate less than ten times. The presence of shopping centers in the destination, particularly those which are historical, was somewhat considered as important by some Iranian senior tourists. This is similar to European senior tourists who also pay attention to shopping
centers (Neves, 2012; Alen et al., 2015 You & O'leary, 1999). The opportunity to meet friends and family at the destination was also important to the Iranian senior tourists. This issue has similarly been reported in other researches as one of the travel motivations for the senior tourists (Esichaikul, 2012; Horneman, Carter, Wei, & Ruys, 2002; You & O'leary, 1999). Iranians are collectivist as far as family and religion are concerned (Rahmani, Mirzaei, & vosughi, 2005). They endeavour to maintain their relationships with family members and friends, and the findings of this research also suggested that the ISTs paid attention to the possibility of visiting friends and family members whilst deciding on a destination. The findings of this study show that the climate and people have lower priority which is in line with Huang & Tsai's (2003) study.

In the cognitive structure of the destination image extracted based on the theory of the MEC chain, the benefits / consequences of the destination attributes are considered as part of the knowledge formed in the individual's mind. In this study, 11 consequences were identified. The most frequent consequences in the study were better feeling / joy, relaxation, and know more. MEC-focused studies in tourism have mainly viewed consequences and values from a motivational perspective (e.g. Ho, Lin, & Huang, 2014; Jiang, et al., 2015; Klenosky, et al., 1993; Klenosky, 2002); consequently, these studies have regarded the consequences (better feeling / joy, relaxation, and know more) along with other consequences such as experience of difference, break from routine and improved communication as motivations behind non-senior tourists’ travel choices. The benefits of senior tourists have been investigated in previous studies, either from motivation or push factors perspectives (Lehto, O'leary, & Lee, 2002; Patuelli & Nijkamp, 2016). Four initial consequences were identified in the study of You and O'leary (1999); Shoemaker (2000); Lehto et al. (2001) and Esichaikul (2012).
Esichaikul (2012) reported relaxation as the most important motive for European senior tourists. The two consequences of break from routine and improved communication are also in line with the studies of You and O'leary (1999); Shoemaker (2000); Boksberger and Laesser (2009) and Norman et al. (2001).

Five consequences including pain relief, durability in mind, recollection, pleasing others, and national pride, were also identified in this study. The consequence of the pain relief and durability in the mind were similarly reported as the motive of "health / well-being" in the studies of Alen et al. (2015) and Utama, (2017). recollection of the sweet memories of the past and the memories of those who are no longer alive (recollection) were presented as" nostalgia" motive in Sellick (2004) and Moal-Ulvoas (2016) studies. The consequence of the national pride has also been similarly reported in the LeSerr et al. (2013) study as motive of "pride and patriotism" for senior tourists in China.

In this study, the values expressed by the respondents were categorised into five codes, out of which the following three categories occurred most frequently: (a) universalism (a sense of accomplishment, originality, inner harmony, curiosity, wisdom, broad-mindedness, assiduity and a world filled with beauty); (b) positive emotions (happiness, cheerfulness, life with diversity, joy and excitement); and (c) security (health, social order, cleanliness, and environmental protection). Azadarmaki, Venus, and Karami (2013) observed a dichotomy between tradition and modernity in terms of cultural values in Iran. The main traditional values included religion, family, seniority and collectivism, whereas modern value included variety seeking, hedonism, opportunism, dependence, individualism, and new experiences. Japanese senior consumers also attach great importance to security and enjoyment values (Kohlbacher & Chéron, 2012). Security and safety have also been identified as key values for
American senior consumers (Schewe, 1990). Sudbury and Simcock (2009) concluded that senior consumers with younger cognitive ages valued entertainment and pleasure in life, whereas those who were cognitively older prioritised security. However, there was a strong positive correlation between the cognitive age of the European senior (British) consumers and the value of security.

In the present study, however, the respondents also emphasised values such as salvation (intimacy with God and release from the burden of sins) and benevolence (love and friendship, kindness, helpfulness, loyalty, and integrity). In their travels to domestic destinations, the respondents tried to satisfy these values. Accordingly, Schewe (1991) described spirituality and social connectedness as key values for senior consumers. Moal-Ulvoas, (2017), stated that "Spirituality and focus on emotions" are the remarkable characteristics of the seniors, and in his study, identified traveling consequences for the seniors as creating "self-transcendent positive emotions" and contributing to "spirituality".

Investigating how the ISTs organised cognitive categories in their cognitive structures was another purpose of this study. As Figure 1 shows, in the cognitive structures of the ISTs, seven key MECs can be observed. In MECs 1, 2 and 3, the linkage between cognitive categories are strong. As the respondents explained, visiting historic attractions in destinations brought about three consequences: national pride (MEC 1), new experience, and know more followed by the experience itself (MEC 2). Achieving these consequences could reinforce the respondents’ value of universalism. According to Klenosky (2002), cultural and historic attractions are sources of interest for American students on spring holidays because these sources generate more knowledge, more learning and new experiences associated with accomplishment at the
value level. There is a Persian proverb that explains this research finding. An Iranian proverb suggests that travelling and life experience are conceptually associated; in other words, it is believed that travelling could enrich an individual’s knowledge and experience. Accordingly, experienced people who have visited different parts of the world are respected in the Iranian culture. Gaining knowledge, especially about history, culture and geography, was one of the main reasons the respondents visited travel destinations. Domestic tourism, due to its inexpensiveness, could provide the opportunity for travellers to gain a considerable amount of experience and knowledge and move beyond their daily routine.

The respondents further explained that the major consequence arising from the two attributes pilgrimage sites and natural landscape was relaxation, which could consequently realise the ultimate goal of salvation (MEC 3). Relaxation, with 27 direct cognitive linkages, following better feeling /joy, was the most basic benefit that the ISTs obtained from destination attributes. Jiang et al. (2015) found that major consequences motivating Chinese tourists (senior & non-senior) to travel to foreign countries are pleasure, a sense of calm, experience of difference and enrichment of personal life as achievements gained from visiting natural landscapes. Although individuals may prioritise different attributes in a travel destination, they may have similar consequences and values. For instance, the three attributes activity in nature, previously unvisited places, and old-fashioned markets/shopping centres, with moderate cognitive linkages, reflected the shared consequence better feeling / joy and ultimately brought about positive emotions as a value for the respondents (MEC 4). There was a clear perception that better feeling / joy to some extent resulted from good climate and good people. Buying gifts/souvenirs and visiting family/friends, with moderate linkages, reinforced friendship/family relationships as a shared consequence and reinforced benevolence as a
value (MEC 7). The realisation of security as a shared value depended on urban order and historic attractions; naturally, in this path, there were two different consequences with moderate linkages: durability in mind and better feeling / joy (MEC 5, MEC 6).

6. Conclusion

Previous research often studied the cognitive structure of the destination image with a continuum of functional-psychological attributions and using survey studies. Also, some previous studies reported tangible attributes of the destination in the form of pull motivational factors that were interacting with the push factors (internalized from the person) (Kim, & Lee, 2002). In this research, the cognitive dimension of the destination image was examined from a new perspective. Our study makes a new theoretical contribution to the field by investigating the cognitive structure of the destination image based on the means-end chain theory. The aim was to penetrate the inner layers of the mind of the individual and, in addition to the attributes of the destination, identifies the benefits/ consequences of those attributes and the personal values which determine his/her consequences. In other words, the individual's knowledge of the destination connects to his/her knowledge of himself/herself. The hierarchical value map resulting from the implementation of the laddering quality technique offers the integrated cognitive structure of individuals towards the destination.

Additionally, this study contributes to advancing our understanding of the senior tourists' behavior. There has been an increasing interest in the area of senior tourism within the tourism literature since 2000. Particularly, researchers based in Europe, the United States, and South East Asia have played a significant role in advancing our understanding of this area. However, senior tourism remains relatively unexplored in other countries that are facing the phenomenon of aging population. Among these countries is Iran, which despite an emerging senior tourism market, the behavior of
Iranian senior tourists has rarely been investigated before. This study therefore, has contributed to enhancing our understanding of the Iranian senior tourists. This in turn has contributed to the body of knowledge on senior tourism. In our study, we have identified the destination's attributes of the Iranian senior tourists and extracted their benefits from the choice of these attributes and subsequently the values governing the behavior of tourists. The findings of this study has shed light on important attributes for Iranian senior tourists such as the possibility to buy souvenirs and having access to pilgrimage sites, and the consequences of durability in mind and the sense of national pride. Also the result suggested that a single factor could have different ends. For instance, the results revealed that historic attractions led to different sets of MECs (experience differences, know more, national pride, recollection, and durability in mind). Within these sets of associations, durability in mind as a benefit led to security as a value; likewise, know more as a benefit led to universalism as a personal value.

In addition to the theoretical contributions of this research, tourism destination managers can also utilise the findings of this research. For example, promoting products and services based on their features is considered to be the most basic form of advertising, which can have a better impact on the target market by integrating product / service benefits. Considering that in this research the benefits of destination attributes in the mind of senior tourists have been identified, this knowledge can therefore, be used to design effective advertising. Different levels of cognitive structure of destination image of senior tourists may also lead to the segmentation and formulation of effective marketing strategies for tourism destinations. Also, tourism managers can focus on key MECs in order to strengthen the attributes of the destinations identified in these chains. The aim would be to meet the hidden benefits and values behind these attributes, and create the driving force necessary to influence destination choice by senior tourists.
7. Limitations and Possibilities for Future Research

This study had some limitations. The age-related specifications of the sample of respondents made it difficult to ensure consistent focus during the interview process. For example, early exhaustion during an interview, impatience, difficulty in communicating, or having a delay in remembering particular material slowed down the interview process. On the other hand, the willingness of some interviewees to ‘confabulate’ and find someone to ‘lend an ear’ also posed some challenges. Meanwhile, it was difficult to gain access to respondents who fell under the age group under study, considering the inclusion criteria. The lack of sufficient information sources about the income and purchasing power of Iranian senior individuals also proved to be challenging.

This study addresses the means-end chain (MEC) theory from a cognitive structure perspective and its integration with the destination image literature. It can be suggested that the model of the cognitive structure of destination image presented in this study, be examined in other cultural contexts and the variations between cognitive categories due to intercultural differences be further studied. Further research may also study the effects of the cognitive structure of destination image on the behavior of senior tourists. The investigation of the correlation between this model and the senior tourist behavior variables with the destination image based on the attributions and behavior of the senior tourist can also be a suitable topic for future research. Finally, it is necessary to address the cognitive dimensions of senior tourists according to their age characteristics. Therefore, further studies could contribute to the richness of the literature in this field.
8. References


Ifenthaler, D., Masduki, I., & Seel, N. M. (2011). The mystery of cognitive structure and how we can detect it: tracking the development of cognitive structures over time. *Instructional Science, 39*(1), 41-61.


Secretarian National Council of the Elderly (http://www.snce.ir/)


Statistical Centre of Iran (https://www.amar.org.ir/)


Table 1. Summary Content Codes

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Table 3. MECs of the Participants

### MEC1: Historic attractions → Universalism

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### MEC2: Culture, Historic attractions → Universalism

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Table 3. (Continued)

**MEC4: Activity in nature, previously unvisited locations, … → Positive emotion**

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<th>Better feeling/joy</th>
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**MEC5: Urban order → Security**

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**MEC6: Historic attractions → Security**

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**MEC7: Visiting family & friends, Gift/ Souvenir → Benevolence**

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<th>Gift/ Souvenir</th>
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<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|                         |                           |                |               | Total                  |             | 30.14    |
Figure 1. Iranian Senior Tourists’ HVM