

Determining the willingness to pay for visiting Nelson Mandela's Heritage Sites

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DECLARATION OF PERSONAL WORK

I, Babalwa Bongekile Mgxekwa (25871854) with ID No. 8403090576081, hereby declare that this dissertation registered as “Determining the willingness to pay for visiting Nelson Mandela’s Heritage Sites” as part of the completion of my Master of Arts in Tourism Management at the Potchefstroom Campus of the North-West University, is being submitted as my own work. It complies with the Code of Academic Integrity, as well as other relevant policies, procedures, rules and regulations of the North-West University; and has not been submitted before to any institution by myself or any other person in fulfilment (or partial fulfilment) of the requirements for the attainment of any qualification.

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DEDICATION

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ABSTRACT

In South Africa, the niche area of cultural heritage tourism holds particular promise for the racial transformation of the tourism sector and the empowerment of previously marginalised communities. As a result, many new heritage sites, museums, monuments, memorials and statues are being erected throughout the country to encourage more visitors to visit this destination. These cultural heritage products provide a unique opportunity for transmission of cultural knowledge between local communities and tourists, as well as increase the participation of local communities in the tourism industry, thereby, playing a pivotal role in the economic empowerment, skills development of people and social benefits within the communities. This is particularly important for provinces such as the Eastern Cape where tourism continues to decline both in value and volume despite the potential it has due to the rich cultural heritage it possesses, in terms of being the birthplace of struggle heroes such as Nelson Mandela, the first elected black South African president in the country's first democratic election.

A handful of authors have emerged as leading authors on South Africa's cultural heritage tourism development. However, this entails only few research studies whose focus have mainly been on cultural heritage tourism as the fastest growing type of tourism and confirmed its potent ability to bring substantial economic benefits to South Africa's cultural heritage products with only a miniature amount of academic literature that exists on aspect of willingness to pay for cultural heritage goods. This study attempts to determine the willingness to pay of visitors and non-visitors to the Nelson Mandela Heritage Sites. The research question addressed by this dissertation is: "What are visitors and non-visitors willing to pay when visiting or intending to visit Nelson Mandela Heritage Sites (NMHS)?"

In order to put the investigation in its proper perspective, various objectives were formulated. First, it critically analysed the concept of cultural heritage tourism and how this concept relates to cultural heritage goods which encapsulates the history of apartheid whilst interpreted as an integral part of the new South African national identity. This assisted in the understanding of the new class of cultural heritage attractions representative of the new rainbow nation of the explicitly multiracial South Africa. Second, the study was intended to critically analyse valuation of cultural heritage goods. This was done in order to understand the concept of economic valuation for cultural heritage assets, how and why these cultural heritage goods are valued and what

methods are used to determine willingness to pay. The third objective was to determine whether visitors and non-visitors were willing to pay or not in order to visit NMHS as well as amounts willing to pay. This assisted in identifying variables that influenced willingness to pay as well as variables that served as determinants and predictors of amounts willing to pay.

The data were collected by means of a survey, using self-administered questionnaires distributed to visitors of Nelson Mandela Youth and Heritage Centre in Qunu, one of the three components of the Nelson Mandela Museum in Mthatha, Eastern Cape. Also, it was collected from the online survey which included a link to the online questionnaire in Google Forms which targeted national and international visitors and non-visitors who follow tourism and cultural heritage tourism organisations as well as on Facebook pages.

The data were captured using Microsoft® Excel and appropriate statistical analyses. An initial analysis (descriptive statistics) was used to determine the profile characteristics of NMHS respondents. Thereafter, statistical analyses such as Exploratory Factor Analysis, independent t-tests and cross tabulations, Spearman's rho tests, as well as stepwise linear regression analysis were used according to respective objectives and descriptors.

The results of the descriptive statistics showed that about 89% of the respondents are willing to pay extra in order to see these sites. The factor analysis was conducted to create correlated variable composites from the original 43 attributes of memorable visitor experiences where these 43 attributes resulted in seven factors being isolated: technology, quality service, amenities, accessibility, modern technology, interpretation, as well as convenience. Quality service, followed by accessibility and convenience factors were perceived as the most important factors that contribute to the NMHS establishing a memorable visitor experience. The results of independent t-tests and cross-tabulations, Spearman's rho tests as well as linear regression analyses were implemented on aspects of socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics as well as factors of memorable visitor experience to identify variables that influenced willingness to pay as well as amounts willing to pay. From independent t-tests, statistically significant differences were found on some of these aspects with both medium and small effect sizes, while the results of cross-tabulations did not reveal any statistically significant differences. However, it did reveal variables that had small effect sizes. For Spearman's tests only very few instances were found where variables on these aspects acted as strong predictors for *amount willing to pay for the NMHS*.

It was determined that this study makes multiple contributions towards a valuation of cultural heritage goods literature in tourism, towards the applicable methodology of determining willingness to pay as well as practical contributions that will inform future development and management of cultural heritage sites in other communities.

Based upon the results of this study, several recommendations can be made to encourage willingness to pay for visitors and non-visitors of NMHS. Firstly, identifying which attributes satisfy the visitors who visit cultural heritage sites will help cultural heritage tourism planners develop appropriate strategies to attract them and serve them effectively. Secondly, managers and marketers should employ strategies such as effective media sources that will generate national as well as international awareness of these sites, thereby, encouraging more visitors other than local ones to these sites. Thirdly, extensive educational awareness of local communities about the value of these sites by planners and managers should be employed so as to increase their understanding, thereby encouraging them to be willing to pay.

Key concepts: *cultural tourism; heritage tourism; cultural heritage tourism; economic value; willingness to pay; Nelson Mandela.*

OPSOMMING

In Suid-Afrika kan gesê word dat die nisarea van kulturele erfenistoerisme besondere voordele inhou vir die rasse-transformasie van die toerisme-sektor en die bemagtiging van voorheen-benadeelde gemeenskappe. As 'n gevolg daarvan word baie nuwe erfenisplekke, museums, monumente, gedenkplekke en standbeelde opgerig dwarsdeur die land om meer besoekers aan te moedig om hierdie bestemmings te besoek. Hierdie kulturele erfenisprodukte skep 'n unieke geleentheid vir die oordrag van kulturele kennis tussen plaaslike gemeenskappe en toeriste, en verhoog ook die deelname van plaaslike gemeenskappe in die toerismebedryf, waardeur hulle 'n kernrol speel in die ekonomiese bemagtiging, vaardigheidsontwikkeling van mense en sosiale voordele in gemeenskappe. Dit is veral belangrik vir provinsies soos die Ooskaap, waar toerisme aanhou afneem in waarde en in volume ten spyte daarvan dat dit die potensiaal het as gevolg van hulle ryk kulturele erfenis (synde die geboorteplek te wees van helde van die stryd soos Nelson Mandela, die eerste verkose swart president van Suid-Afrika tydens die land se eerste demokratiese verkiesing).

'n Handjievol outeurs het al na vore getree as leidende outeurs oor Suid-Afrika se kulturele erfenis in terme van toerisme-ontwikkeling. Dit sluit egter net 'n paar studies in waarin die klem merendeels geval het daarop om erfenistoerisme as die vinnigste groeiende soort toerisme te beskryf, en dit bevestig die sterk vermoë daarvan om omvattende ekonomiese voordele in te bring na Suid-Afrika se kulturele erfenisprodukte. Daar is egter slegs 'n baie klein hoeveelheid akademiese literatuur wat bestaan oor aspekte te doen met mense se bereidheid om te betaal vir besoeke aan kulturele erfenisgoedere. Hierdie studie poog om te bepaal hoeveel besoekers en nie-besoekers aan die Nelson Mandela erfenisplekke bereid is om te betaal om die plekke te besoek. Die navorsingsvraag van die verhandeling is dus: "Hoeveel is besoekers en nie-besoekers bereid om te betaal wanneer hulle die Nelson Mandela Heritage Sites (NMHS) besoek of beplan om te besoek?"

Om hierdie ondersoek in 'n behoorlike perspektief te plaas, is verskillende doelwitte geformuleer. In die eerste plek is 'n kritiese analise gedoen van kulturele erfenistoerisme en hoe hierdie konsep saamhang met kulturele erfenisgoedere wat die geskiedenis van apartheid omvat en dit koppel as 'n integrale deel van die nuwe Suid-Afrikaanse nasionale identiteit. Dit het gehelp met die ontwikkel van 'n nuwe klas van kulturele erfenisplekke wat die nuwe identiteit van die nuwe Suid-Afrikaanse reënboognasie weerspieël.

Dit het gehelp met 'n begrip van die nuwe klas van kulturele erfenisaantreklikhede wat die uitgesproke veelrassige samelewing in Suid-Afrika kon uitbeeld. Tweedens is die studie bedoel om waardering van die kulturele erfenisgoed te help doen. Dit is gedoen om te probeer verstaan wat die konsep van ekonomiese evaluering van kulturele erfenisgoed is, hoe hierdie goedere waardeer word, en watter metodes gebruik kan word om bereidheid om te betaal vas te stel. Die derde doelwit was om vas te stel of besoekers en nie-besoekers bereid sal wees om die Nelson Mandela Erfenisplekke te besoek, en hoeveel hulle bereid is om te betaal. Dit het gehelp om veranderlikes te bepaal wat gedien het as determinante en voorspellers in terme van bedrae wat mense gewillig is om te betaal.

Die data is versamel deur 'n ondersoek met die gebruik van selfdoenvraelyste wat uitgedeel is aan besoekers aan die Nelson Mandela Jeug en Erfenissentrum in Qunu, een vandie driekomponente van die Nelson Mandela Museum in Mthatha, Ooskaap. Dit is ook versamel by wyse van die aanlynstudie wat 'n koppeling bevat het na die aanlynvraelys in Google Forms wat nasionale en internasionale besoekers en nie-besoekers geteiken het wat toerisme en kulturele erfenistoerisme organisasies volg, sowel as Facebook-bladsye.

Die data is vasgelê met die gebruik van Microsoft® Excel en toepaslike statistiese ontledingsmetodes. 'n Voorlopige analise (beskrywende statistiek) is gebruik om vas te stel wat die profielkenmerke is van NMHS respondente. Daarna is statistiese analises gedoen, soos Exploratory Factor Analysis, onafhanklike t-toetse en kruistabulasies, Spearman se rho toetse, sowel as stapgewyse liniêre regressie-analises wat gebruik word in terme van die verskillende doelwitte en beskrywers.

Die resultate van die beskrywende statistieke het getoon dat ongeveer 89% van die respondent gewilig is ekstra te betaal om hierdie plekke te besoek. Die faktor-analise is gedoen om gevarieerde veranderlike samestellings van die oorspronklike 43 attribute van besondere besoekerservarings te maak, waar hierdie 43 attribute opgedeel kon word in sewe faktore wat uitgewys kon word, naamlik tegnologie, dienskwaliteit, geriewe, toeganklikheid, moderne tegnologie, interpretasie en gerief. Kwaliteit van diens, gevolg deur toeganklikheid en gerieffaktore is gesien as die belangrikste factors wat bydra tot die daarstelling van 'n besondere besoekerservaring by the NMHS. Die resultate van die onafhanklike t-toetse en kruis-tabulerings, Spearman se rho toetse en die liniêre regressie-analises is gebruik vir die identifisering van goeie besoekerservarings wanneer

dit kom by aspekte van sosio-demografiese en gedragsskenmerke en om veranderlikes te identifiseer wat gewilligheid om te betaal sowel as bedrae te identifiseer.

Uit die onafhanklike t-toets is statisties-beduidende verskille gevind vir sommige van hierdie aspekte, met beide medium en klein effekgroottes terwyl die resultate van die kruistabulerings nie enige statisties-beduidende verskille getoon het nie. Dit het egter veranderlikes vertoon wat klein effekgroottes gehad het. Vir Spearman se toetse is daar slegs enkele gevalle gevind waar veranderlikes in terme van hierdie aspekte as sterk voorspellers gedien het vir *bedrag geillig om te betaal vir die NMHS*.

Daar is bepaal dat hierdie studie vele bydraes gemaak het tot 'n waardebeoordeling van die kulturele erfenisgoedliteratuur in toerisme wat ook kan lei tot die toepaslike metodologie om gewilligheid om te betaal en praktiese bydraes te maak tot kulturele toerisme, en die toekomstige ontwikkeling en bestuur van kulturele erfenisplekke in ander gemeenskappe te verbeter en te bevorder.

Gebaseer op die resultate van hierdie studie, kan verskillende aanbevelings gemaak word om bereidheid om te betaal deur besoekers en nie-besoekers vas te stel. In die eerste plek, as mens vasstel watter attribute aantreklik sal wees vir besoekers wat sulke plekke besoek sal beplanners in staat wees om toepaslike strategieë te ontwikkel om hulle effektief te bedien. In die tweede plek moet bestuurders en bemarkers strategieë in plek stel soos effektiewe mediabronne wat meer internasionale inligting kan versprei en wat daarom in staat sal wees om meer buite-besoekers as net plaaslike besoekers te lok. In die derde plek moet uitgebreide onderriginisiatiewe onderneem word om die bewuswees van plaaslike gemeenskappe oor die waarde van hierdie aspekte op te skerp, en beplanners en bestuurders moet aangestel word om hulle begrip te verhoog, en hulle dus aan te moedig om bereid te wees om te betaal.

Slutelwoorde: *kulturele toerisme; erfenistoerisme; kulturele erfenistoerisme; ekonomiese waarde; gewilligheid om te betaal; Nelson Mandela.*

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT AND METHOD OF RESEARCH

“We did so because we knew that our rich and varied cultural heritage has a profound power to help build our new nation” (Nelson Mandela).

1.1 INTRODUCTION

One of the most prominent figures in South African cultural heritage is Nelson Rolihlahla Mandela, a Xhosa born to the Thembu royal family in the district of Mthatha in the Eastern Cape. After his life's struggle against apartheid, he became the first elected black South African president in the country's first democratic election in 1994. He, together with the national liberation movement (known as the African National Congress or ANC) created a democratic South Africa, believing that this would lead to peace and racial harmony (NDT, 2014a). In his quest for humanity to be free (Dube, 2011), he sacrificed his very liberty as well as his private life to the struggle for freedom (Limb, 2008:11), by becoming actively involved in politics until he was arrested and sentenced to life imprisonment. However, after 27 years, Nelson Mandela emerged from prison and performed a remarkable feat when he led the country, without bitterness about the past, and unified a nation (Limb, 2008:11). He did this by leading by example of how humans should respect one another (Limb, 2008:11).

By the time of his death on 5th December 2013, Mandela had come to be widely considered "the father of the nation and the founding father of democracy" within South Africa (Limb, 2008). Across the world, Mandela earned acclaim for his activism in overcoming apartheid and fostering racial reconciliation (NDT, 2014a:20). The story of the struggle for freedom from the apartheid regime to South Africa's current "rainbow nation" forms an integral part of the country's heritage (Richards, 2007:70), a niche for cultural heritage tourism for the people of South Africa, across the world, and for generations to come. As a result, many new heritage sites, museums, monuments, memorials and statues are being erected throughout the country (Marschall, 2005:103). These new developments form part of the field of cultural and heritage tourism, a strongly emerging sector of the South African tourism Industry (Marschall, 2005:103).

The niche area of cultural heritage tourism holds particular promise for the racial transformation of the tourism sector and the empowerment of previously marginalised communities (NDT, 2012:31), by playing a pivotal role in the economic empowerment

and skills development of people (DAC, 2013:1). Ivanovic (2008:xv) states that “there is no doubt that even in the distant future the authenticity of that footprint will be examined for the purpose of informing, educating, enhancing understanding, conveying a message and satisfying the curiosity of tourists”. These tourists will be keen to buy a vacation package which may include services provided by travel agents, airlines, hotels, and restaurants (Christou, 2005:4). They will make use of informal eateries, local artists, exquisite beadwork and pottery available in craft shops and roadside stalls. Here a series of solid craft stalls could be built along the streets, where a heritage site forms the focal point. This arrangement could allow tourists to shop for curios, watch the makers of the craft items at work, and take a picture of the site.

Since the first democratic elections in 1994 in South Africa, there has been an increased interest in cultural heritage tourism with a particular focus on the local histories, cultures, traditions and a broad range of heritage resources both tangible (museums, historical buildings) and intangible (festivals, music and dance) heritage (NDT, 2012:29). Heritage sites associated with the legacy of Nelson Mandela, for example, are receiving increasing interest from local and international visitors (NDT, 2014a:14). However, although there is a growing recognition of Nelson Mandela’s Heritage Sites (NMHS), limited to no information is available on the estimated economic value of these sites. Estimates of this kind are vital in determining the value of the sites, before deciding whether to further develop tourism in these specific areas (NDT, 2012:31).

When taking into account that Nelson Mandela’s legacy continues to place the country in a positive light and that tourism continues to benefit from his legacy and popularity (NDT, 2014a:14), it is troubling that the value of cultural heritage tourism in South Africa has not yet been fully realised and remains a recurring challenge (NDT, 2012:28). The purpose of this chapter is to examine cultural heritage tourism and valuation of cultural heritage goods. For the purpose of this study, cultural heritage goods (e.g. museums, historical buildings, cultural communities) as well as to formulate aims, the method of research, and to classify key terms which will be used throughout this dissertation.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

In order to better understand the topic of this study, one needs to create a better understanding pertaining to cultural heritage tourism and valuation of cultural heritage goods. Starting with a discussion of cultural heritage tourism, the second part is a discussion of the role and fundamentals of economic valuation of cultural heritage goods.

1.2.1 Cultural heritage tourism

Tourism is firmly established as the number one and fastest growing industry in many countries (Biran, 2008:7). At the same time, there has been a rise in the level of competition in the global tourism market (Biran, 2008:7). Ashworth (2004) argues that this has led to destinations' persistent search for novelty which has come to include an ever-widening search for tourism products and experiences to satisfy the increasing demands of cultural heritage tourists. As part of this process, tourism practitioners have recognised the potential of selling cultural heritage to offer diverse and unique tourism products.

Cultural heritage can be defined in many ways; however, several researchers have adopted definitions of both culture and heritage separately to inform views of this niche area of tourism. Smith (2009:1) postulates that culture is about the past and traditions (history and heritage), creative expressions (works of art, performances) and also about people's ways of living, their customs and their habits. On the other hand, heritage is what is inherited from the past and used in the present day (Timothy, 2011:3). In essence, cultural heritage involves people visiting heritage places at the same time as they participate in cultural displays (Timothy, 2011:4). Richards (2001:7) states that when people journey away from home (i.e. tourism) they are motivated by a particular culture and heritage of a destination. Therefore, their visit to a particular destination might be driven by an interest to a specific cultural heritage attraction such as a heritage site (e.g. Nelson Mandela Museum), artistic and cultural manifestations (e.g. folk arts, crafts, music and dance), outside their normal place of residence (Richards, 2001:7).

Steyn (2007:16) highlights the fact that many destinations have responded to this trend by aggressively marketing their cultural heritage tourism products in order to encourage more visitors to visit their destination. The growing popularity of cultural heritage tourism is evidenced by the World Tourism Organisation's (WTO) recognition of the presence of cultural heritage as a component in 40% of all international trips undertaken and likely becoming a quintessential component of many destinations all over the world (Ramnani, 2012:3). It is further emphasised that cultural heritage tourism has become one of the fastest growing segments within the tourism system (Magnussena & Visser, 2003:1; Tlabela & Munthre, 2012:1).

In South Africa, according to Rogerson (2002 & 2008), Rogerson and Rogerson (2010), as well as Rogerson and Visser (2011), several destinations have sought to capitalise on aspects of cultural heritage tourism as components of local strategies for urban tourism

development and of broader local economic development planning. It is stated by Viljoen and Tlabela (2006:2) that the cultural heritage sector is increasingly viewed as an important sector of the South African economy; with a potential to assume a central role in achieving a range of objectives (Magnussena & Visser, 2003:1). Such objectives include job creation (Massyn & Koch, 2004), poverty alleviation (Ndlovu & Rogerson, 2004), Local Economic Development (LED) and urban regeneration (Rogerson, 2002; Rogerson & Visser, 2005; Rogerson, 2009). In addition, Viljoen and Tlabela (2006:2) attest persuasively that the economic potential of tourism, as a key driver of growth and development in South Africa, is based on the competitive advantages that the country has in its natural and cultural heritage resources. Therefore, these resources allow the country a potential to broaden its tourism base and improve awareness, appreciation and conservation of physical and intangible heritage (NDT, 2010a:5). As a result, South African cultural heritage products are on a pedestal catering to both long-haul and short-haul markets.

Cultural heritage tourism encourages benefits to occur because of induced interactions between people from diverse cultural backgrounds (Archer, Cooper & Ruhanen, 2005:81). Tourists spend money, time and other resources on a trip (Christou, 2005:11), and this can create employment opportunities (Simpson, 2008:3), increasing income for local residents (Huh & Vogt, 2008) and encouraging the creation of additional infrastructure to accommodate a greater number of visitors (Simpson, 2008:3). Presentation of cultural heritage attractions to tourists also brings about a renewed source of community pride (Hashimoto, 2002; Godfrey & Clarke, 2000:26).

A handful of individuals have emerged as leading authors on South Africa's cultural heritage tourism development. These authors are listed in Table 1.1. Their research findings clearly reinforce the perception of cultural heritage tourism as the fastest growing type of tourism and confirmed its potent ability to bring substantial economic benefits to South Africa's cultural heritage products. Some background documents such as the South Africa's National Heritage and Cultural Tourism Strategy (NDT, 2012), National Tourism Sector Strategy (NDT, 2011), and Mzansi's Golden Economy (DAC, 2013), and many other sources promote cultural heritage tourism as an imperative for the development of the South African economy, holding particular promise for the racial transformation of the tourism sector and the empowerment of previously marginalized communities.

Table 1.1: Previous studies done on the cultural heritage tourism

Studies where impacts of cultural heritage tourism played the largest role		
Authors	Title	Study's focus/ findings
Marschall (2005)	Making Money with Memories: The Fusion of Heritage, Tourism and Identity Formation in South Africa	The study focused on the issue of monuments and cultural tourism, highlighting the link between heritage, cultural tourism and identity formation. It investigated to what extent monuments and heritage sites indeed attract tourists and development; which kind of monuments tourists might be attracted to and in which ways local people might benefit. The study results show that memories have become a business opportunity in South Africa as there is an evidence of monetary value arising from the foreign attractiveness of local heritage and iconic leaders. However, the study findings also reveal that the issue of the commodification of heritage is becoming problematic.
Van Zyl (2005)	The role of tourism in the conservation of cultural heritage with particular reference for South Africa	The study aimed to analyse the impact of tourism and its development on the cultural heritage of local communities. The study found that effective conservation of people's cultural heritage is only possible if there is a strong public policy that includes regulations, procedures, guidelines and programmes. Also, the study revealed that the national government is not always in a position to directly influence the implementation of policy at a local level; however, it is incumbent upon the provincial, regional and local levels to ensure that any development that impacts upon a community must be measured against the national policy.
Moeller (2005)	Battlefield tourism in South Africa with special reference to Isandlwana	The aim of this study was to provide a holistic approach in which dissonance at the South African Thana tourism/Dark Tourism

	and Rorke's Drift KwaZulu-Natal	attractions can be reduced through active management within a multicultural post-apartheid society. The findings imply that despite South Africa's colonial and apartheid past, Isandlwana and Rorke's Drift manage their dissonance successfully. It is suggested that in order to sustain this development, cooperation between tourism and heritage should be improved and the guiding environment should be more regulated and controlled.
Dlomo (2007)	Cultural tourism as a development vehicle In Ulundi: perceptions and prospects	The study examined how cultural tourism can be seen as a development vehicle and how local communities can benefit from it. The main findings of the study revealed that there exist positive perceptions towards cultural tourism in the study area. The community also had a variety of expectations as cultural tourism has not brought any remarkable improvements in their area. It was again discovered that the community was aware of cultural tourism benefits. The only setback was that they have long been excluded from enjoying such benefits so they tend to be sceptical where there are no visible and tangible improvements.
Steyn (2007)	The strategic role of cultural and heritage tourism in the context of a mega-event: The case of the 2010 Soccer World Cup	The study aimed to explore the potential cultural and heritage tourism opportunities that can be leveraged by a host destination within the context of a mega-event, in order to secure more sustainable legacies for the community. In this study it was found that host destinations can possibly secure sustainable legacies for their communities by focusing on leveraging cultural and heritage tourism opportunities within the context of the mega-event.
Hou (2009)	An investigation into visitors' satisfaction with Port Elizabeth's heritage	The study focus was based on tourists' satisfaction with their visit to heritage museums by comparing their expectations and

	museums	experiences. The study revealed that a significant difference exists between museum visitors' expectations and their satisfaction with the heritage museum experience.
Snowball & Courtney (2010)	Cultural heritage routes in South Africa: Effective tools for heritage conservation and local economic development?	The study explored the potential for economic development and heritage conservation of the Liberation Heritage Route in South Africa. The authors argued that if the expected financial benefits do not materialise, it is unlikely that all heritage routes will be sustainable in the long run. With their collapse, important cultural heritage clusters may be lost owing to neglect and lack of funds for their protection. Secondly, the study revealed that rather than basing decisions to protect heritage on LED strategies and financial benefits, it is the non-market value of the heritage itself that should be the primary determinant of conservation level and activities. If this cultural capital can also be translated into financial capital in the long run, so much the better, but if this does not happen, the heritage will still be protected.
Ivanovic (2011)	Exploring the authenticity of the tourist experience in culture heritage tourism in South Africa	The study sought to investigate how the tourist experience is formed and what constitutes the authenticity of the tourist experience of tourists visiting political cultural heritage sites in South Africa. The results proved that more than half (56%) of the tourists expressed strong agreement that Constitution Hill provided them with an authentic experience, hence a proof that political heritage sites are not responsible for the overall low experiential ratings of the country's culture and heritage.
Nkwanyana (2012)	The potential of Cultural Heritage Tourism as a driver of rural development in the Zululand District Municipality.	The study revealed that the study area has cultural heritage resources which are available but are not utilised to the benefit of the community as yet. The level of the community participation in the development of cultural heritage tourism is therefore limited.

Ivanovo & Saayman (2013a)	South Africa calling cultural tourists	The study reveals that tourists are interested in South African cultural heritage products but the country has a rather low experiential value of its culture and heritage.
Ivanovic & Saayman (2013b)	Telling or selling? Experiencing South African cultural heritage tourism products	The study found that while South Africa is shouting for cultural heritage tourists, however, the tourists visiting the country are definitely not getting what they want or expect.
Van der Merwe & Rogerson (2013)	Industrial heritage tourism at the 'Big Hole', Kimberley, South Africa	The study revealed that despite optimism and major investment into heritage tourism at the local level, heritage tourism in South Africa is under-performing.
Khumalo, Sebatlelo & Van der Merwe (2014)	"Who is a heritage tourist?" a comparative study of Constitution Hill and the Hector Pietersen Memorial and Museum, Johannesburg, South Africa	Found that heritage tourism is a growing phenomenon in South Africa, but remains a diverse and complicated industry and needs careful planning, effective management and innovative marketing strategies.

Looking at the above-mentioned studies, it becomes evident that tourism's persistent search for novelty has come to include an ever-widening search for tourism products and experiences to satisfy a restless and indecisive market (Ashworth, 2004). As part of this search, the extremes in human experience are being utilised for the tourist who attains a sense of gratification as a participant (Ashworth, 2004). This created new grounds for a multiplicity of ontological approaches to tourism theory in general and cultural heritage tourism in particular (Ivanovic, 2011:58). The best-known specialised forms of cultural heritage tourism are, among others, 'Madiba Magic' and the miracle of peaceful transition which both play a prominent role "as part of the selling of the new South Africa to tourists and visitors" (Ivanovic, 2011:62). And as such is the most probable reason for tourists visiting and experiencing South Africa as a new, 'miracle democracy' (Ivanovic, 2011:62).

The life of Nelson Mandela embodies elements of the post-1994 period. As an icon, the sites associated with his name represent many of South Africa's historic heritage assets located in communities where Nelson Mandela grew up. Bovana (2010:19) identifies such as those that chronicle the historical events of struggle, the heroism of struggle

veterans, as well as their actions which have become symbols for the country. Therefore, in an attempt to determine the economic value, Nelson Mandela Museum is selected for this study. Situated in the Eastern Cape, the museum is conceptualised as a single museum with three interrelated components, namely, Bhunga Building (management and administration centre of the museum); The Nelson Mandela Youth and Heritage Centre (a community museum) at Qunu; The Mvezo homestead (the birth place of Nelson Mandela). The museum is selected as it depicts the story of the life and times of one of South Africa's leaders (see Figure 1.1).



Figure 1.1: Map showing the location of three Nelson Mandela's Heritage Sites (Source: Activity Atlas, 2008:8)

As previously stated, the exigencies of the apartheid era had many unintended consequences in many communities, among them the tourism development largely being a missed opportunity as tourism had a relatively low priority (DEAT, 1996). According to DEDEAT (2013:10), apartheid affected all other aspects of human, social, political and economic life of people. Many communities negatively impacted through the skewed allocation of financial resources, infrastructure and even skills development (DEDEAT, 2013:10). Such communities continue experiencing problems such as high poverty levels, poor infrastructure, and poor education levels, to name a few. Communities in the Eastern Cape Province such as Qunu, Mvezo, and Mthatha central are amongst the communities where the active and sustainable involvement of previously disadvantaged individuals at all levels within a tourism spectrum is yet to be achieved. It is emphasised by Acheampong (2011:61) and Vice (2013:11) that the Eastern Cape Province is one of the poorest and least developed provinces in South Africa with a very poor record of delivery of municipal services such as water, sewerage, sanitation, electricity, housing, roads and many others. A high unemployment level and an intolerable degree of poverty constitute the biggest problem in the province (Acheampong, 2011:62). Furthermore, the O.R. Tambo District Municipality (under which

the administration of the study area falls) is rated the second most deprived local municipality (LM) in the province (DEDEAT, 2013:12), hardest hit by poverty (Acheampong, 2011:62).

As communities were denied resources and facilities to develop their own cultural heritage expressions (DAC, 2013:10), to date, culture and heritage, and most importantly, heritage sites such as NMHS are valued as they have a potential for preserving and communicating the country's historic legacy while also being used to generate financial and social benefits using resources within the communities (Khumalo *et al.*, 2014; Nkwanyana, 2012; Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013b). As a result, efforts are being made to transform old buildings and abandoned sites into new tourist facilities such as the Nelson Mandela Museum (Acheampong, 2011:76). Additionally, to promote tourism and attract investments, tourism routes identified by their unique theme are also being developed (Ivanovic, 2011:90; Acheampong, 2011:66). These include Tsitsikamma Adventure Route; Kouga Region; Sundays River Valley; Sunshine Coast; Frontier Country; Karoo Heartland Route; Amathola Mountain Escape; the Friendly N6 and the Wild Coast (under which the administration of the study falls) (Acheampong, 2011:67). Moreover, 'The Nelson Mandela Freedom Route' incorporating the Eastern Cape, Cape Town, Gauteng is envisaged as the first South African iconic route to stretch from the Robben Island to the Vilakazi Street in Soweto and including the Mandela Museum in Mthatha and the authentic Mandela childhood home in Qunu (Ivanovic, 2011:90).

Therefore, in determining the current value of economic activity generated by NMHS, a number of benefits can accrue primarily through quantifying levels of employment and local income which may be attributed, both directly and indirectly to aiding sustainable growth and economic recovery (Marschall, 2005:103). As a result, levels of poverty in the areas will be minimised, improvement to infrastructure will be enhanced and also there will be an improvement in the standards of living of local communities through the upgrading of tourist facilities that will also be utilised by member communities, and lastly increased foreign business from tourist arrivals (Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013a:139).

1.2.2 Economic valuation of cultural heritage goods

The fundamental concept underlying the assessment of the significance or worth of cultural heritage is the concept of economic value (Throsby, 2007b:1). Economic valuation in its broadest sense plays a central role in research on the cultural heritage

economy. This is evidenced by the growing number of cultural heritage economists who have developed interests in the economic importance of cultural heritage goods (Throsby & Boyd, 2006; Throsby, 2007a; O'Brien, 2010; O'Brien 2012; Throsby, 2012; Lvova, 2013; Dumcke & Gnedovsky, 2013). Their studies often describe the concept of economic value as measured within the standard economic model and also which reflect the worth of the goods when assessed in cultural heritage terms (Throsby & Boyd, 2006; Throsby, 2003:279).

According to Merlo and Croitoru (2005:17) and Throsby (2007a), the value of cultural heritage can be split into two different categories of values. These include use values (direct and indirect) and non-use values (option, existence and bequests). This is often referred to as Total Economic Value (TEV) and can be used to identify and quantify the value of cultural heritage (Merlo & Croitoru, 2005:17). TEV provides help in classifying different types of values in order to measure them typically in monetary terms. Throsby (2006) emphasised that the principle behind TEV is the fact that individuals can experience heritage by direct consumption, by indirect means, or as an external benefit. Basically, TEV is "the sum of all benefits from a resource (Sharp & Kerr, 2005:4). These various categories of value can be organised as shown in Figure 3.1 in chapter 3 where the concept will be discussed in more detail.

According to Pearce and Ozdemiroglu (2002:23), use values are often reflected in market prices and in the willingness to pay for goods or services on offer in a market (the difference between the price and willingness to pay is the consumer surplus). On the other hand, non-use values aim to capture benefits such as the pride people feel towards a local cultural organisation or the importance people attach to the existence of cultural heritage, despite it not being a subject of direct interest to them (Pearce & Ozdemiroglu, 2002:23). In a similar vein, Choi, Ritchie, Papandre and Bennett (2010:213) state that use values include direct-use values (current commercial production) and indirect-use values (multiplier effects), while non-use values (for example, educational, bequest, and altruistic values) are not normally captured in private market transactions.

O'Brien (2010:22) states that the issues associated with cultural heritage value lead to the necessity for finding techniques which can value culture in the economic terms where there is no market price for goods. In this regard, economists have developed a range of techniques to understand economic value (O'Brien, 2010:22). Smith 2010 (as cited in O'Brien, 2010:13) supports this by stating that "the cultural heritage sector needs a method to make value commensurable across the 'mixed economy' of public, private and

voluntary cultural institutions and the range of cultural activities they provide". Furthermore, Bateman, Carson, Day, Hanemann, Hanley and Hett (2002:30) maintain that these methods are of importance as they assess willingness to pay for cultural heritage assets within the cultural heritage discipline. Figure 3.2 in chapter 3 will outline the methods to assess the willingness to pay, namely, stated preference technique and revealed preference technique.

Stated preference techniques comprise two forms, the Contingent Valuation Method (CVM), which is summarised in Mourato and Mazzanti's (2001:89) discussion of how to apply CVM to heritage:

"The aim of a Contingent Valuation study is to elicit individuals' preferences, in monetary terms, for changes in the quantity or quality of a non-market good or service, such as the recorded heritage. By means of an appropriately designed questionnaire, a contingent market is designed where the good or service in question can be traded".

A random sample of people is asked directly to express their maximum willingness to pay (or minimum willingness to accept) for a change in the level of provision of the good or service' (Mourato & Mazzanti, 2001:89). Another main form of stated preference technique is choice modelling (CM) that is based on describing the attributes and characteristics of a good or service and varying the levels of attribute offered by prospective policy options (Pearce & Ozdemiroglu, 2002:54). Individuals are not directly asked for their willingness to pay, but rather their valuations are derived from their responses to a choice of options (O'Brien, 2010:28). This technique is especially appropriate if a policy-maker seeks to understand the value of particular or individual characteristics of a good and how that characteristic relates to others. Secondly, Pearce and Ozdemiroglu (2002:31) discuss another approach to appropriate valuation techniques. These are revealed preference techniques that can be split into hedonic methods and travel cost methods. Both techniques are based on inferring valuations based on the preferences people show in real world situations.

The application of economic techniques and models to the value of heritage sites adds to the understanding of the broader economic value of these assets to society (Choi *et al.*, 2010:214). This is of interest particularly in the case of NMHS because of the increasing demands on them. NMHS are public goods because they provide a variety of public contributions such as historical value and shared experience; therefore, their economic

values cannot be easily determined from transaction in actual markets. In determining the economic value of NMHS as non-market goods, CVM will be applied. This is due, in part, to CVM being appropriate to anyone seeking to understand the value of particular or individual characteristics of a good and how that characteristic relates to others (Pearce & Ozdemiroglu, 2002:31). Moreover, CVM as a valuation method was endorsed and accepted by the Blue Ribbon panel of experts set up by National Oceanographic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) (Arrow, Solow, Portney, Leamer, Radner & Schuman, 1993:43). The report also spells out a set of rigorous guidelines according to which such surveys should be undertaken (Arrow *et al.*, 1993:32). This led to the increasing adoption of this method in various fields, including cultural economics. Dutta, Banerjee and Husain (2007:85) concur that CVM remains the best method to aggregate preferences for cultural resources. In a similar vein, Hanley, Mourato and Wright (2001:435) emphasise that CVM has managed to gain acceptance amongst both academics and policy makers as a versatile and powerful methodology in economic valuation studies. Below is the table summarising a few international studies on the willingness to pay for cultural heritage tourism that used CVM. The CVM is preferred due to its flexibility and ease of analysis. Table 1.2 summarises the outcomes of these studies.

Table 1.2: Willingness to pay case studies summarised

Author (Year)	Objective (s)	Method	Results
Baez-Montenegro, Badate, Herrero & Sanz (2012)	The objective of this study was to determine whether or not citizens of Chile are willing to pay for preservation and protection of cultural historic heritage of the Commune of Valdivia.	CVM	Chile has a higher willingness to pay of 16,432 pesos (\$27, 4) per person per year. The study showed the least amount of 15, 314 pesos that residents would be willing to pay valued at \$25, 5 and a higher amount of 17,919 pesos valued at \$29.9. Chile residents have a strong will to restore their urban cultural heritage.

Dutta <i>et al.</i> (2007)	The objective of this study was to estimate TEV for Prinsep Ghat in Calcutta, India. It asked residence to state their maximum willingness pay for urban regeneration and restoration of this site.	CVM	It is found that 77.35% of respondents are willing to pay whereas 22.65% are not willing to pay.
Kim, Wong & Cho (2007)	The objective of this study was to determine whether or not visiting Changdeok Palace tourists were willing to pay an entrance fee for management and maintenance of the Palace.	CVM	The study results revealed mean WTP values of 5707 Won (\$5.70) in a log-linear model and 6005 Won (\$6.00) in a log-logit model. This implied that respondents are willing to pay at least twice as much as the current price to visit the heritage site which is 2300 Won (\$2, 30).
Salazar & Marques (2005)	The main objective of this study was to determine whether or not residents of Valencia were willing to pay for the restoration of Pirate's Tower in the Valencia region.	CVM	Social benefits generated by the restoration of the Pirate's Tower range from a minimum value of 395,642€ depending on whether the mean WTP considered is 52, 95€ or 59, 30€. Thus it was concluded that the restoration appears to be more desirable as benefits exceed the costs borne by them.
Tuan <i>et al.</i> (2009)	The objective of this study was to determine whether or not citizens from Thailand and Vietnam are willing to pay a one-time	CVM	Thailand had higher WTP of 204 Baht ² (US\$5.09) and 251 Baht (US\$6.27), while the mean WTP for preserving the My Son

	surcharge on their income tax and one-time donation to a trust fund.		temples in Vietnam was found to be 43,495 VND5 (US\$2.74).
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In conclusion, CVM is the most appropriate technique for this study because assessing cultural heritage value of the site naturally involves measurements of its passive-use values. Additionally, this will allow the researcher an opportunity to directly ask the people in a survey about their willingness to pay for NMHS.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

From the background, it is clear that cultural heritage tourism is one of the most prevalent types of tourism in South Africa which has received a great deal of attention since the inception of democracy (Ramchander, 2007; Ivanovic, 2008; Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013a; Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013b; Goudie, Khan & Killian, 1999). Previous research on international studies suggests that increased demands on cultural heritage institutions contribute a growing interest in cultural heritage economics (Mourato & Mazzanti, 2001; Pearce & Ozdemiroglu, 2002; Throsby, 2006; O'Brien, 2010). Furthermore, Mourato and Mazzanti (2002:68) stress that cultural valuation is an important and powerful tool as it leads to valuing of cultural heritage goods and contribute to society's well-being (Choi *et al.*, 2010:213).

However, the situation is different in South Africa. Research on cultural heritage still focuses on the lens of 'impact', whether economic or social (Jiyane, 2009; Khumalo *et al.*, 2014; NDT, 2012; NDT, 2011; DAC, 2013). Moreover, despite cultural heritage tourism increasingly being viewed as an important sector of the South African economy (Magnussena & Visser, 2003:1); with a potential to assume a central role in achieving a range of objectives (job creation, poverty alleviation, local economic development and urban regeneration) (Massyn & Koch, 2004; Ndlovu & Rogerson, 2004; Rogerson, 2002; Rogerson & Visser, 2005; Rogerson, 2009), to date, research on the value of cultural heritage sites has not, to the researchers' knowledge, been undertaken despite the debate over its value to society and the growth of cultural economics as a field of research. Furthermore, NMHS is associated with Nelson Mandela, one of South Africa's most popular icons attracting millions of tourists, especially international tourists (Fulton, 2003:46); however, the ECTMP (2009-2014:22) contends that the province of the Eastern Cape, where this iconic leader was born, is to date one of the poorest provinces in South Africa. Moreover, the province is still facing numerous implications on the

development of higher-valued products such as cultural heritage products which are still under-represented and largely undeveloped (ECTMP, 2009-2014:22).

It is evident from the discussion above that there is a current gap in research pertaining to the economic value of heritage sites in general and especially NMHS. This brings an important question to mind, namely, what are visitors and non-visitors willing to pay when visiting or intending to visit NMHS?

This is important to know as it can help determine if developing tourism around these sites will be viable. One can distinguish who the ones are who are willing to pay, how much they are willing to pay as well as the aspects that influence these decisions.

1.4 GOAL OF THE STUDY

The following goal and objectives guided this research study:

The goal of the study

The goal of this study was to determine the willingness to pay in order to visit NMHS in the Eastern Cape.

Objectives

The following secondary objectives were formulated to support the achievement of the primary objective:

Objective 1

To analyse the concept of cultural heritage tourism and how this concept relates to cultural heritage goods which encapsulates the history of apartheid whilst being interpreted as an integral part of the new South African national identity through a literature review.

Objective 2

To explore the concept of economic valuation, its methods of determining it as well as its potential applications and how these relate to the notion of willingness to pay for cultural heritage goods by means of a literature review.

Objective 3

To conduct a survey in the relevant sample areas in order to measure various aspects, including visitors' willingness to pay in order to visit these sites.

Objective 4

To draw conclusions and make recommendations pertaining to the findings of this study. These will assist both policy-makers and managers of cultural heritage institutions in providing empirical guidance on the relative value that both visitors and non-visitors place on the services and facilities provided by the sites.

1.5 METHOD OF RESEARCH

The study applies mixed-method research based on an empirical study undertaken into two phases: a quantitative phase using self-administered and online questionnaires and a qualitative phase using semi-structured interviews. Methods used in both phases were applied as a means of collecting primary data. Secondary data is sourced from books, academic journals, electronic sources, conference proceedings and other available sources.

1.5.1 Literature study

A vast array of literature is extensively presented on cultural heritage as a legacy and a key that opens a door to the opportunities presented by tourism. The increasing importance of cultural heritage tourism as an engine of growth and development of countries has developed interests in the economic importance of cultural heritage assets, including cultural heritage sites. Thus the literature review examines the main constructs of cultural heritage tourism and valuation of cultural heritage goods. By using key words such as cultural tourism, heritage tourism, cultural heritage tourism, economic value, Nelson Mandela, and willingness to pay; a comprehensive information search has been conducted on the North-West University (NWU) library electronic databases. The main sources used were Science Direct, Ebscohost, Emerald, and the university' repository' of dissertations and thesis. Required books were sourced from many libraries at various universities, namely, the Walter Sisulu University (NMD campus library, Zamukulungisa Campus and Buffalo City campus library) and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (Second Avenue Campus library and South Campus library). Numerous reports and studies were sourced from South African official sites such as NDT, as well as from ATLAS, UN, the European Tourism Commission, and prominent universities worldwide.

Personal notes and hand-outs from attended research methodology schools were also used as an additional source of information. A thorough review of secondary data provided the theoretical framework for the research study and the empirical study.

1.5.2 Empirical study (survey)

This section looked at the various aspects that assisted in obtaining the relevant data for the study.

1.5.2.1 Research design and method

For the purposes of this study a two-pronged research approach was used for data collection, namely a literature study and empirical research methods. A literature review is a review of the existing body of knowledge in the chosen field of study to determine how other scholars have investigated the research problem (Monakhisi, 2008:39). This study followed a mixed-method approach based on primary and secondary data. Primary data is original information collected for the first time and was collected by means of a survey design, from a sample implementing a standardised research instrument in the form of a questionnaire. On the other hand secondary data is information that has been collected previously and that has been put through the statistical process and was obtained by means of literature studies, as for example those in chapters 2 and 3 of this dissertation. Secondary data was sourced from books, academic journals, electronic sources, and conference proceedings, to name a few.

Furthermore, this is an exploratory empirical study, conducted by means of qualitative as well as quantitative research. Qualitative is used predominantly as a synonym for any data collection technique (such as an interview) or data analysis procedure (such as categorising data) that generates or uses non-numerical data (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:151). Maree and Pieterse (2008:145) define quantitative research as 'a process that is systematic and objective in its ways of using numerical data from only a selected subgroup of a universe (or population) to generalise the findings of the universe that is being studied'. In the qualitative phase, thirteen heritage sites associated with Nelson Mandela in South Africa were selected. The heritage sites are selected because they represent Nelson Mandela, his history and legacy. The researcher arranged telephonic interviews with managers of these heritage sites to gain information and understanding on these sites. The interviews were conducted during April 2015 their responses were used to inform the subsequent quantitative phase.

For the quantitative phase, a structured questionnaire served as an instrument for the collection of data and research was conducted in two stages. Firstly, self-administered questionnaires were conducted at Qunu from 17 to 18 July 2015 during the Annual International Mandela Day celebration. Secondly, an online survey ran from the 24th June 2015 to 23rd August 2015.

1.5.2.2 Selection of sampling frame

A sampling frame refers to the population under investigation. According to Ross (2005:3), a sampling frame can be a list of sample units from which a researcher can choose an appropriate unit which can be surveyed in order to achieve the objectives of a research study. These units may include people, households or whole communities (Scholtz, 2014:98). As with many studies, a sampling frame in this study was taken directly from the elements in the population of interest. For self-administered questionnaires the visitors to NMHS were included. With regards to the online survey, both national and international people who follow tourism and cultural heritage tourism as well as Facebook pages were included.

1.5.2.3 Sampling method

According to Latham (2007:1), in any research conducted, people, places, and things are studied. This is referred to by many authors as a population to be studied because it consists of a set of individuals or other entities one would wish to be able to generalise finding. Therefore, to collect data on a smaller scale, researchers gather data from a portion or sample of the population by means of sampling methods. There are two main classes to which sampling methods belong, namely probability sampling method and non-probability sampling method (Chambliss & Schutt, 2003:156; Latham, 2007:3). Teddle and Tashakkori (2009) and Tashakkori and Teddle (2003) adds to Latham (2007) and Chambliss and Schutt (2003) by stating that there is a third type of sampling method, namely mixed sampling method.

According to Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007:281) in both qualitative and quantitative studies, researchers must decide the number of participants to select (sample size) and how to select these sample members (sampling scheme). While the decisions can be difficult for both qualitative and quantitative researchers, sampling strategies are even more complex for studies in which qualitative and quantitative research approaches are combined either concurrently, or sequentially (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007:281).

Studies that combine or mix qualitative and quantitative research techniques fall into a class of research that are appropriately called mixed methods research or mixed research.

In their study, Teddle and Tashakkori (2008:179) maintain that when generating samples for the quantitative phase of mixed methods, researchers typically seek to obtain samples that are representative of the population. On the other hand, when generating samples for qualitative phase of mixed methods research, researchers typically seek to establish samples that will provide information at multiple levels of meaning (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2008:179). Therefore, using mixed-methods research entails that a researcher aims to generate a sample that is representative and that also provides meaningful information (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2008:179).

For the purpose of this study, the exploratory sequential design using multi-level samples for the qualitative mixed sampling design and quantitative mixed sampling design is the main sampling method chosen. The purpose of this study was to determine the visitors and non-visitors' willingness to pay for visiting NMHS. To accomplish this, both qualitative and quantitative components were used, with the qualitative phase first being conducted to inform the subsequent quantitative phase (Collins, Onwuegbuzie & Jiao, 2007:267). Additionally, it is worth noting that the questionnaire was also distributed online on various tourism and heritage site organisations as well as through Facebook pages by means of a link to the online questionnaire in Google Forms.

5.1.2.4 Sample

According to Chambliss and Schutt (2003:149) a sample is a sub-section of a population that is used to study the population as a whole. Lathan (2007:2) describes a sample as a representative "taste" of a group. Krejcie and Morgan (1970, cited in Scholtz, 2014:104) recommend that for a population (N) of 1 000 000 people, the sample size should be (S) 383 in order for it to be representative. Since the projected population size is far less than one million, it was decided to obtain at least 383 questionnaires to ensure that the sample would be representative. 260 questionnaires were completed at Nelson Mandela Youth and Heritage Centre at Qunu, a component of the Nelson Mandela Museum. Fieldworkers distributed the questionnaires to visitors at the four points in the Qunu area: Nelson Mandela Youth Heritage Centre (n=90), Nelson Mandela Youth and Heritage Centre sport grounds (n=35), Nelson Mandela Youth and Heritage Centre Amphitheatre (n=80) and Nelson Mandela Youth and Heritage Centre gardens (n=55). The face to face

questionnaire was employed in order to measure the opinions of people at NMHS which means that they are definite visitors. Also, an online questionnaire was run and contributed 123(n) questionnaires to the total. A total of 383(n) questionnaires were thus obtained, 260(n) at Qunu, while 123(n) questionnaires from the online questionnaire. The purpose of using this survey was also to distribute the questionnaire in order to reach a wider audience (national and international) which would contribute to the group who might not be heritage site visitors. As this group might or might not want to visit, it was deemed important therefore also to obtain their information. The data was pooled in order to achieve an adequate sample size.

1.5.2.5 Development of the questionnaire

With the absence of an existing questionnaire measuring the same constructs as NMHS, a new questionnaire consisting of twelve closed-ended and one open-ended question was developed for the purpose of the research study. It was developed with reference to related previous literature produced by authors such as Richards (2005); Snowball and Courtney (2010); Ivanovic (2011); Csapo (2012); Ivanovic and Saayman (2013a); Marschall (2005); Ivanovic and Saayman (2013b); Christou (2005); Nuryanti (1996); Throsby and Boyd (2006); Throsby (2007b); O'Brien (2010); O'Brien (2012); Throsby (2012); Lvova (2013); Dumcke and Gnedovsky (2013). Secondly, qualitative data was obtained from the interviews conducted with managers of NMHS and also played an important role in the development of the questionnaire. The two A4 pages questionnaire was organised into three sections:

- Section A (question 1-10): respondents' social and demographic information,
- Section B (question 11): Aspects of a memorable experience at NMHS,
- Section C (question 12-13): Willingness to pay.

The same questionnaire was loaded online on Google Forms.

1.5.2.6 Data analysis

The data was captured using Microsoft® Excel®, after which statistical services at the NWU processed it using SPSS and the researcher interpreted the information. Firstly, the study analysed the profile characteristics of NMHS respondents. This included their socio-demographic as well as their behavioural characteristics. Secondly the attributes that create a memorable visitor experience were analysed using Exploratory Factor Analysis. In order to determine aspects that influence willingness to pay, both

independent samples t-tests and cross-tabulation were done on socio-demographics, behavioural characteristics as well as factors of memorable visitor experience to see what aspects affect willingness to pay. After, Spearman's rho tests measured what items influenced the amount that respondents were willing to pay. Lastly, regression analysis served as way of predicting how strongly the various aspects would influence how much people are willing to pay.

1.6 DEFINING THE KEY CONCEPTS

In this section, the key concepts to be used in this study are clearly defined to aid in the understanding thereof.

1.6.1 Cultural tourism

According to NDT (2012:6), cultural tourism refers to cultural aspects that are of interest to the visitor. These interests are varied, and include movements of persons for essentially cultural motivations such as travel to festivals and other cultural events, visit to sites and monuments, travel to study nature, folklore or art or pilgrimages (NDT, 2012:6). Therefore, cultural tourism becomes a significant factor for travelling as visitors are motivated wholly or in part by historical, heritage offering of the tourism destination.

1.6.2 Heritage tourism

Heritage tourism includes both the tangible and intangible elements of the past and is defined by Poria, Butler and Airey (2001:1048) as "a subgroup of tourism, in which the main motivation for visiting a site is based on the place's heritage characteristics according to the tourist's perceptions of their own heritage". Therefore, it gives both domestic and international guests an opportunity to feel experience and understand the unique customs of a particular constituency's heritage while enjoying and exploring the history of those people or country (Graham & Howard, 2008 as cited in Khumalo *et al.*, 2014:1). It thus consists of activities carried out in heritage sites of significance whilst increasing participation of the people of that area in the development of tourism, thereby fostering wider benefits to such areas.

1.6.3 Cultural heritage tourism

According to Christou (2005:5), the term cultural heritage tourism refers to the segment of the tourism industry that places special emphasis on heritage attractions (museums, displays, monuments, and places of memory) and cultural attractions (meals,

performances, festivals, philosophies, traditions, values, ceremonies and art forms). Richards (2001:7) argues that people are thus motivated by a particular heritage and culture of a destination when they journey away from home; and therefore, visit heritage places at the same time as they participate in cultural displays (Timothy, 2011:4). Thus one can conclude that cultural heritage tourism is oriented towards historical and arts-focused attractions in which participants seek to learn about and experience the past and present.

1.6.4 Economic value

Economic value reveals how much a product or service is worth relative to other things as indicated by its price (O'Brien, 2010:15). In a similar vein, economic uses of value are grounded in individual utility and preference satisfaction as expressed in what people are willing to pay for a good or service (Throsby, 2001:19). Throsby (2006:46) emphasises that "the more highly people value things (cultural reasons) the more they will be willing to pay for them". Therefore, the concept of economic value is imperative when determining the value a cultural heritage site (product) should be provided as they have both market and non-market good characteristics that are difficult to value.

1.6.5 Willingness to pay

Willingness to pay (WTP) studies have been used extensively in the valuation of both mixed and public goods in cultural economics (Throsby, 1984; Hanemann, 1994; Noonan, 2003). According to Snowball (2005:3), WTP is a part of a group of stated preference methods that elicit the value of non-market externalities by directly asking respondents what they would be willing to pay to bring about or avoid a specific scenario.

Throsby (2003:281) maintains that WTP is the approach which researchers use when they want to determine how much people are willing to pay for a non-market good. Saayman (2013:184) adds by stating that WTP is when one wants to know how much, in monetary terms, a visitor values a non-market good. Furthermore, Kim *et al.* (2007:219) emphasise that in WTP studies, respondents are asked to express a hypothetical "willing-to-pay for use-value or non-use value of a cultural heritage resource. Therefore, it is of the researchers view that, by asking people how much they are willing to pay for cultural heritage, researchers encourages people to trade-off the benefits they perceive from cultural heritage in the context of their finite payment.

1.6.6 Nelson Mandela

Nelson Mandela, born on 18 July 1918 and died on 5 December 2013, is the first South African black president elected in a democratic election, and is probably the most famous South African in the world (Limb, 2008:11) known as an anti-apartheid activist as he spent 27 years in prison, his life embodies elements of post-1994 period. The life and times of Nelson Mandela highlight a number of events which illustrate the interest in visitation to places of cultural heritage significance. The sites associated with his name represent many of South Africa's historic heritage assets located in communities where Nelson Mandela grew up. Nelson Mandela's legacy continues to put South Africa in a positive light, as tourism is one of the sectors that is largely benefiting from his legacy and popularity (NDT, 2014a:20).

1.7 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

In order to achieve the primary objective of this study, the objectives have been divided into six chapters. The following section describes the layout of the proposed study.

Chapter 1: Introduction, problem statement and method of research

Chapter 1 comprises an introduction to the study, the problem statement of the study, followed by the research goal and objectives, as well as a brief method of research. Key concepts used in this study will also be defined. The aim of this chapter was to create a better understanding pertaining to cultural heritage tourism and valuation of cultural heritage goods. Secondly, through the case of Nelson Mandela, particularly his heritage sites, the study shows how the past can be used in the future for the racial transformation of the tourism sector and the empowerment of previously marginalized communities through the substantial economic benefits arising from cultural heritage products.

Chapter 2: Cultural heritage tourism: Global and South African perspective

Chapter 2 critically analyses literature pertaining to cultural heritage tourism. A better understanding of what cultural heritage entails as well as how it has developed in South Africa was discussed. Statistics on how cultural heritage tourism has grown are provided and were used to review on the impact, either negative or positive, what cultural heritage tourism entails for the South African economy. Also, the study looked at the previous

studies done on cultural heritage tourism to show its importance in the democratic South Africa.

Chapter 3: Valuing cultural heritage: the case of NMHS

Chapter 3 critically analysed the economic value of cultural tourism, from an international and South African perspective, by exploring literature relating to the models and frameworks that describe economic value. The study provides a brief overview on how it is determined, and the importance thereof. Moreover, a few studies on economic value were examined to determine which techniques of economic value are most prevalent.

Chapter 4: Method of data collection

Chapter 4 contains an in-depth discussion of how the research was conducted from a quantitative point of view. Attention was given to the total research design encompassing the sample method, sample area, sample size, the development of a measuring instrument from literature and previous studies, data collection and capturing as well as the various analyses done on the data to achieve the goals of this dissertation.

Chapter 5: Results and findings

This chapter reports on the empirical results and findings from the various analyses conducted on the data of the NMHS.

Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations

Chapter 6 consists of conclusions drawn from the discussions in the previous chapters. A comparison was drawn between the literature and the empirical results of this study which clearly indicated the contribution of the dissertation. Recommendations were made on how much visitors are willing to pay when visiting NMHS.

CHAPTER 2

CULTURAL HERITAGE TOURISM: GLOBAL AND SOUTH AFRICAN PERSPECTIVE

“It is the holy grail of quality tourism
that cares for the culture it consumes
while culturing the consumer”
(Melanie K. Smith).

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism has been firmly established as the number one and fastest growing industry in many countries (Biran, 2008:7). At the same time, there has been a rise in the level of competition in the global tourism market (Biran, 2008:7). Ashworth (2004:1) maintains that this has led to destinations' persistent search for novelty which has come to include an ever-widening search for tourism products and experiences to satisfy the demanding needs and wants of cultural heritage tourists. Researchers on cultural heritage tourism (Marschall, 2005; Dlomo, 2007; Hou, 2009; Ivanovic, 2011; Nkwanyana, 2012; Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013a, 2013b; Khumalo *et. al.*, 2014) argue that as part of this process, destinations have recognised the potential of selling cultural heritage. They further state that cultural heritage is now considered to be the main component of the tourism industry today. Moreover, the diversity and popular appeal of cultural heritage attractions have made cultural heritage tourism a major area of growth, making cultural heritage a special interest type of tourism. As a result, cultural heritage tourism is the most prevalent type of alternative tourism. Thus, it has become common to refer to cultural heritage when speaking of core resources countries possess.

Therefore, this chapter provides a theoretical background on the main component of this research study, namely 'cultural heritage tourism'. This discussion commences with an overview of cultural heritage tourism, with specific reference to its definition. The study will look at what history is used as heritage to promote the destinations. The profile of the cultural heritage tourist will be discussed. Additionally, this chapter examines benefits of cultural heritage tourism. Lastly, this study examines the term 'authenticity' in cultural heritage tourism and concludes by discussing tourism and cultural heritage tourism within the South African context.

2.2 CULTURAL HERITAGE TOURISM IN CONTEXT

The growing popularity of the tourism sector worldwide is evidenced by the rise towards various forms of tourism. This is due to travel experiences which vary according to the varieties of humankind and their geographical distribution (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2006:264). In recent years, the fast-growing tourism industries of countries have come to complement a worldwide trend towards forms of tourism such as cultural tourism. Furthermore, Goeldner and Ritchie (2006:264) feel that the development of cultural factors within a nation is a means of enhancing resources to attract visitors. The authors further argue that successful tourism is not simply a matter of having better transportation and hotels; successful tourism is something that adds a particular national flavour in promoting traditional ways (i.e. culture) of life and projecting a favourable image of the benefits to tourists. Also, cultural tourism enables each nation's products to be distinguishable from those of others, thereby encouraging cultural diversity. In this context, cultural tourism has emerged as an alternative with the cultural heritage sector as its specialised niche. According to Ivanovic and Saayman (2013b:173), when cultural tourism developed, it became a leading component in global tourism with the cultural heritage sector becoming a dominant form of touristic consumption. This supports Ivanovic's (2011:79) assertion that the cultural heritage tourism sector is currently the most prevalent type of tourism in the world. Furthermore, in terms of the world's perception of South Africa's performance as a tourist destination, the country retained its ranking on the World Economic Forum (WEF) Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index (TTCI) in 2010, ending up 66th out of 139 countries (NDT, 2010b:4). In this, the country compares favourably with other destinations as far as variables such as price competitiveness, travel and tourism policies and regulations, and cultural and natural resources are concerned (NDT, 2010b:4).

Steyn (2007:16) highlights that many destinations have responded to this trend by aggressively marketing their cultural heritage tourism products in order to encourage more visitors to visit their destination. An indication provided by Ramnani (2012:3) is that the growing popularity of cultural heritage tourism is evidenced by the UNWTO recognition of the presence of cultural heritage as a component in 40% of all international trips undertaken and likely becoming a quintessential component of many destination areas all over the world. It is further emphasised that cultural heritage tourism has become one of the fastest growing segments within the tourism system (Magnussena & Visser, 2003:1; Tlabela & Munthre, 2012:1).

In South Africa, according to Rogerson (2002 & 2008), Rogerson and Rogerson (2010), as well as Rogerson and Visser (2011), several destinations have sought to capitalise on aspects of cultural heritage tourism as components of local strategies for urban tourism development and of broader local economic development planning. It is stated by Viljoen and Tlabela (2006:2) that the cultural heritage sector is increasingly viewed as an important sector of the South African economy; with a potential to assume a central role in achieving a range of objectives (Magnussena & Visser, 2003:1). Such objectives include: job creation (Massyn & Koch, 2004), poverty alleviation (Ndlovu & Rogerson, 2004), Local Economic Development (LED) and urban regeneration (Rogerson, 2002; Rogerson & Visser, 2005; Rogerson, 2009). In addition, Viljoen and Tlabela (2006:2) assert persuasively that the economic potential of tourism, as key driver of growth and development in South Africa, is based on the competitive advantages that the country has in its natural and cultural heritage resources. Therefore, these resources allow the country a potential to broaden its tourism base and improve awareness, appreciation and conservation (NDT, 2010a:5). As a result, South African cultural heritage products are on a pedestal catering to both long-haul and short-haul markets.

South Africa, to date, has seen a spectacular expansion of international tourist arrivals (Rogerson & Visser, 2003:10). In South Africa alone, the tourism industry has grown significantly over the past decade and now accounts for not less than 8.2% of the South African Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Ferreira, George, Rivett-Carnac & Vosloo, 2013:167; NDT, 2012:1). In the global arena, South Africa is ranked among the world's most successful tourism destinations (Ivanovic, 2011:86). In terms of the global tourism system, South Africa has since 1994 experienced some of the largest increases in tourist arrivals worldwide (Magnussena & Visser, 2003:1) and in 2011, it ranked 34th among the world's top tourist destinations (Ferreira *et al.*, 2013:187). Additionally, South Africa has been singled out by UNWTO (1998) as one of six countries predicted to make great strides in the tourism industry during the period leading up to 2020. According to the annual tourism report in 2013, South Africa received 15.2 million international arrivals in 2013 (SAT, 2013:12). This local figure is double the global growth figure recorded for the same period and continues to increase contributions both to the country's GDP and to job creation (NDT, 2012:1). Conversely, this attests to the perceived national mind-set that tourism in South Africa serves as the panacea for all social ills inherited from the previous government (Ivanovic, 2011:109; Marschall, 2005:103). Additionally, NDT (2012:1) states that in 2013 South Africa saw growth from all regions and from all markets in which it is actively marketing the destination, with Europe its largest overseas

market for tourist arrivals recorded a 7.0% increase on the 1 396 978 European tourists who visited South Africa.

It can be argued that South Africa has the potential to focus on cultural heritage tourism to promote its economic growth in economically depressed regions and to enhance the socioeconomic well-being of its indigenous citizens. Presumably, although these regions in South Africa are economically poor, they are, however, characterised as culturally rich destinations. Ivanovic (2011:89) supports this claim by stating that South Africa's struggle history is presented by township tours, cultural heritage routes, and a number of political cultural heritage sites and museums which form part of political cultural heritage tourism currently dominating the cultural heritage tourist consumption in South Africa.

It is stated by Ivanovic (2011:87) and Ivanovic and Saayman (2013a:138) that cultural diversity is the core feature of the South African tourism marketing strategy. Be that as it may, the authors argue that despite the country's unique cultural heritage resource base, cultural tourism still remains mostly invisible in the South African tourism landscape. Firstly, the main tourism stakeholders in the country are unable to make informed strategic and developmental decisions which directly affect the performance of South African cultural heritage tourism products (Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013a:138). For an example, in the final National Heritage and Cultural Tourism Strategy (NDT, 2012) there is no mention of developments of iconic routes, township tourism, cultural villages and urban tourism, all of which comprise the most visited classes of cultural heritage attractions in South Africa (Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013a:139). The whole issue here is that tourism being identified as the most dynamic and promising sector, having the potential to create jobs and provide the much-needed income for previously disadvantaged communities. Secondly, when the Tourism White Paper was published in 1996, it clearly defined the role that tourism has to play. Tourism's role is not only in the development of the country and its economy, but most importantly, in the reduction of disparities that existed, leaving some communities poorly disadvantaged.

However, for tourism to achieve this, it has to go through radical changes to allow previously disadvantaged communities to be integrated into the mainstream of the economy by developing strategic marketing of cultural heritage products that calls tourists to visit iconic routes, participate in township tourism, and visit cultural villages and their heritage sites. Therefore, transforming the cultural heritage tourism industry would require not only making it internationally competitive as it is the current state but would also integrate the participation of previously disadvantaged people. This would

mean two imperative areas of development, job creation potential and income creation, which are particularly important contributors for reconstruction in the lives of previously disadvantaged communities.

2.3 INSTITUTIONAL AND SCHOLARLY MEANING OF CULTURAL HERITAGE TOURISM

Definitions and descriptions of what constitutes cultural heritage tourism are far from consistent. The concept of cultural heritage tourism is very complex and so there is a keen debate among scholars about its definition and conceptualisation (Richards, 2005:254; Snowball & Courtney, 2010:562; Ivanovic, 2011:80; Csapo, 2012:201). Csapo (2012:201) argues that scholars attempted to point at the complex problems of the term and it proved to be a controversial issue in tourism. Snowball and Courtney (2010:564) suggested that defining cultural heritage is unexpectedly problematic; and therefore, there is no adequate definition that exists (Csapo, 2012:201). To further complicate matters, cultural heritage tourism is composed of three elements that are in themselves difficult to define: 'culture', 'heritage' and 'tourism'. This is due to their nature of being more 'described' than being more 'defined' (Ivanovic, 2011:80). In a similar vein, Biran (2008:7) further notes that though heritage is widely discussed, however, it is rarely defined. It can be argued therefore that part of the difficulty in defining these concepts arises from the fact that culture and heritage have different meanings for different people. Additionally, the strong relationship between the concepts of 'culture' and 'heritage' and 'cultural tourism' and 'heritage tourism' makes it sometimes difficult to separate these terms when referring to tourism experiences.

Be that as it may, cultural heritage tourism still needs to be defined. For the purposes of this research, cultural heritage tourism will be defined according to the approach proposed by Csapo (2012:201). This approach entails defining the concepts of 'culture' and 'heritage' separately within the tourism context before arriving at the cultural heritage definition. In the context of this study cultural heritage tourism is used mainly to describe visitors and non-visitors travelling to any of the nine provinces in South Africa for purposes of experiencing other people's cultures and also visiting places of cultural and historical importance such as NMHS. In this regard, it should be noted that this section will not investigate these very complex concepts from different aspects and approaches or with any detailed analyses. However, this chapter will provide an insight of the contexts that provide basics for the studies of cultural heritage tourism arising from a utilisation of uniquely South African cultural heritage related to the history of apartheid.

Several researchers have endeavoured to explain the meanings of both culture and heritage separately to better define cultural tourism and heritage tourism. However, the terms 'culture and heritage' have proved to be more complex due to long debates over their definitions and meanings. Nevertheless, the purpose here is not to contribute to the debates or to provide an overview over the several definitions and meanings, but rather to examine the way the terms could be meaningful within the South African cultural heritage tourism domains.

2.3.1 Culture and cultural tourism

Culture is a broad concept because it touches every aspect of human life. Its diversity and its characteristics make it difficult to relate it to tourism; hence it has been the subject of much social-scientific debate (Van Zyl, 2005:4). In trying to curb the complex problems, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) studied 263 versions of the meaning of culture and developed its own. According to UNESCO (1977), culture is a dynamic value system of learned elements with assumptions and conversations, beliefs and rules, permitting a member of a group to relate to each other, and to the world, and to communicate and develop their creative potential. Moreover, Akama (2000:14) and Smith's (2009:1) recent definition of culture asserts that it is what people think (attitudes, beliefs, ideas and values), and what people do (ways of life, artworks, artefacts). These broad approaches are not very useful because they do not demonstrate those forms of culture which are particularly important for tourism, and vice versa. Steadily, however, a broader view of culture in tourism has emerged, which included the performing arts (Richards, 1999), arts (Hughes, 2000), cultural events, architecture and design, and more recently, creative activities (Richards & Wilson, 2006) and intangible heritage (UNESCO, 1997).

According to DAC (2013:17), culture, 'who we are', refers to the dynamic totality of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual and emotional features which characterise a society or social group. It includes the arts and letters, but also modes of life, the fundamental rights of the human being, value systems, traditions, heritage and beliefs developed over time and subject to change. In informing the views to relate culture within the context of tourism, Ivanovic and Saayman (2013b:175) indicate that culture refers to all cultural elements (traditions, heritage, arts and letters) available at a destination. This is stimulated by tourists who, recently, have increasingly started to visit destinations to experience the lifestyles, everyday culture and customs of the people they visit. Presumably, when people journey away from home they experience the places and

activities that authentically represent historic, cultural and natural resources of a given area or region (Csapo, 2012:209).

Cultural tourism emerged as the most prevalent type of tourism in the world (Van der Ark & Richards, 2006:1408). The term 'cultural tourism' has been used interchangeably with the term 'heritage tourism'. However, a number of researchers have tried to define cultural tourism by approaching it through a number of alternative ways (Christou, 2005:6). The philosopher Pearce (1988:14) defined cultural tourism in the 1980s as tourism that is concerned with "social and physical structures of the past and the present" and in its broadest sense may be taken to mean "everything about its place and its people". In 1991 Zeppel and Hall (1991:29) classified cultural tourism as a particular type of tourism which encompasses assets such as museums, art galleries, historic theme parks, heritage sites and art festivals. In line with Pearce (1988:14) and Zeppel and Hall's view (1991:29) of cultural tourism, the UNWTO in the 1980's defined cultural tourism as movements of persons for essentially cultural motivation such as study tours, performing arts and other cultural tours, travel to festivals and to other cultural events, visits to sites and monument, and performing arts and cultural tours, (UNWTO, 1985:131). Evidently, UNWTO's definition reveals that cultural tourism can be seen as "more a 'way' of travelling"; a way in which the traveller is actively engaged 'decoding' the cultural environment in which he or she moves (Zeppel & Hall, 1991:31).

In support of this, Tighe (1991:387) examined three components of cultural tourism: travel, the tourist and the sites. In particular, in terms of travel the author stated that 'cultural tourism is travel undertaken within historic sites, museums, the visual arts, and/or the performing arts as significant elements' (Tighe, 1991:387). In terms of the cultural tourist, Tighe (1990:11) argued that the tourist is "one who experiences historic sites, monuments, and buildings; visits museums and galleries; attends concerts and the performing arts; and is interested in experiencing the culture of the destination". However, in his earlier work Tighe (1986:2) noted that the term 'cultural tourism' refers to 'historical and heritage sites, arts and crafts fairs and festivals, museums, the performing and visual arts; and is interested in experiencing the culture of the destination'.

Notwithstanding the debates, the definition of cultural tourism adopted for this study is that of Richards (1997:24) who stated that cultural tourism is ‘the movement of persons to cultural attractions away from their normal place of residence, with the intention to gather new information and experiences to satisfy their cultural needs’. Moreover, Richards (1997:24) also provided a technical definition of cultural tourism, stating that cultural tourism includes ‘all movements of persons to specific cultural attractions, such as heritage sites, artistic and cultural manifestations, arts and drama outside their normal place of residence’.

2.3.2 *Heritage and heritage tourism*

The word ‘heritage’ in its broader meaning is generally associated with the word ‘inheritance’ (Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013b:175; Christou, 2005:4) or a ‘legacy’ (Prentice, 1993:5). It is something literally or metaphorically transferred from one generation to another generation (Christou, 2005:4; Nuryanti, 1996:249). It embraces things of value which have been passed from one generation to the next (Prentice, 1993:5). Therefore, if heritage is the things of value which are inherited, it means two things. Firstly, if the value is personal, it means of family or personal heritage; if the value is communal or national, we speak of our heritage.

It is stated by Raivo (2002:12) that heritage uses the past for the present through the ‘production, consumption and regulation of the cultural, political and economic meanings of the past’. Lowenthal (1994:43) notes that ‘heritage distils the past into icons of identity, bonding people with precursors and progenitors, with their own earlier selves, and with promised successors’. In that sense, heritage is a set of ideas, symbols and events that establishes and reinforces the social cohesion and identity, real or imagined, of a group of individuals. However, it is crucial to note that heritage is not history (Gitera, 2008:8); but an inheritance and past/legacy.

As an inheritance, heritage encompasses three categories: natural, cultural and mixed heritage (cultural landscapes. In the cultural arena, heritage describes (Prentice, 1993:55):

- Material forms, such as monuments, historical or architectural remains and artefacts on display in museums;
- Immaterial forms, such as philosophy, traditions and art in all their manifestations
- The celebration of great events or personalities in history; and

- Distinctive ways of life; and
- Education.

As the past, heritage includes anything from history, art, science, lifestyles, architecture to nostalgia which represents a commodity resulting from manipulation of the past (Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013b:176). Because of its role as a carrier of historical values from the past, heritage is viewed as part of the cultural tradition of a society (Bernick, 2009:4). Therefore, heritage can be said to be a sub-group of tourism based on the historic attributes of a site. When sites are constantly visited, they become attractions of the destination/area/local community.

Simply stated, heritage focuses specifically on allowing local and non-local people to gain a new knowledge of or experience with local history, culture, art, and custom. In this regard, the people who visit the heritage site can be referred to as 'tourists', the heritage site becomes an attraction. Therefore, when a tourist visits a particular heritage site (attraction) of a destination, it could be said that he or she is partaking in heritage tourism. In defining heritage tourism, Khumalo *et al.* (2014:2) emphasise that the definition should be effective and thorough and that it should describe the historical relationship of people in relation to cultural and historical events and values, which are tangible and intangible, and how they have played a great role for modern civilisation. Additionally, a heritage tourism definition should conceptualise what a heritage tourist expects or hopes to see at a heritage site as this projects the success and sustainability of the heritage and heritage tourist experience (Khumalo *et al.*, 2014:2).

Since the 1990s various scholars have tried to define heritage tourism; however, until now there has been no adequate definition that exists. In synthesizing some of literature's most interesting definitions of heritage tourism, the study will begin with Yale's definition which has become the "fashionable concept" (Gitara, 2008:8). Yale (1991:21) defined heritage tourism as tourism that really means nothing more than tourism centred on what is inherited, which can mean anything from historic buildings to artworks, to beautiful scenery". In 1993, Prentice's (1993:36) definition of heritage tourism focused on the 'product element' of heritage tourism as opposed to Poria *et al.* (2001:1048) who defined heritage tourism as focusing on the 'tourist's motivation'. Prentice (1993:36) suggested that 'essentially in tourism, the term "heritage" has come to mean not only landscapes, natural history, buildings, artefacts, cultural traditions and the like which are literally or metaphorically passed on from one generation to the other, but those among these things which can be used for promotion as tourism products such as heritage sites

and should be differentiated in terms of types of heritage: built, natural, and cultural heritage'. On the other hand, Poria *et al.* (2001:1048) state that heritage tourism is a phenomenon based on tourists' motivations and perceptions rather than on specific site attributes in which the main motivation for visiting a site is based on the place's heritage characteristics according to the tourists' perception of their own heritage'. Later on, Khumalo *et al.*, 2014:2 came to state that heritage tourism is the present-day use of the past. Graham and Howard (2008) add that heritage tourism can be viewed as an emotional experience which gives both domestic and international guests an opportunity to feel, experience and understand the unique customs of a particular constituency's heritage while enjoying and exploring the history of that people or country. Additionally, heritage tourism encompasses the cultural, industrial as well as liberation/struggle heritage of many countries throughout the world (Khumalo *et al.*, 2014:3); and this interests tourists visiting these countries.

2.3.3 Cultural and/or heritage tourism - an intricate connection

It can be argued that the terms 'cultural tourism' and 'heritage tourism' are used interchangeably by the scholars when defining either cultural tourism, heritage tourism and cultural and heritage tourism. This is evidenced by Timothy and Boyd's (2003:9) model. Timothy and Boyd's (2003:9) model suggests that heritage traverses a mix of landscapes and settings and in so doing, as a form of tourism, becomes part of a wider set of tourism types, such as nature, rural, cultural and urban landscapes. While Khumalo *et al.* (2014:1), Csapo's (2012:209) and Zeppel and Hall (1992:46) refer to heritage tourism as a sector/part of the cultural tourism industry, Gitira (2008:9) states that heritage tourism is often included under the banner 'cultural and heritage tourism'. Poria *et al.* (2001:1048) together with Christou's (2005:7) views differ as they refer to heritage tourism as "a subgroup of tourism". When defining heritage tourism, Silberberg (1995:361) uses a definition as cited by the Economic Planning Group of Canada for cultural tourism: "visits by persons from outside the host community motivated wholly or in part by interest in the historical, artistic, and scientific or lifestyle/heritage offerings of the community, region, group or institution".

Viljoen and Tlabela's (2006) definition of cultural tourism as well as Van der Merwe and Rogerson's (2013) definition of heritage tourism evidences the interchangeable use of these terms. According to Viljoen and Tlabela (2006:14), cultural tourism is defined as cultural aspects which are of interest to the visitor and can be marked as such, including the customs and traditions of people, their 'heritage' and way of life. On the other hand,

Van der Merwe and Rogerson (2013:155) assert that heritage tourism includes both the tangible and intangible elements of the past. Tangible elements include, but are not limited to, sites, structures, objects, and historic documents associated with or representative of peoples, cultures, and human activities and events, either in the present or in the past. Intangible (Cultural) elements, on the other hand, include traditions, customs, family life, myth, folklore, ideology, folk song, and folk dance that are renewable and transmitted from generation to generation. In addition, Zeppel and Hall (1992:54) observed a significant common element between cultural tourism and heritage tourism, namely the experiential element, and went on to note that heritage tourism, whether in the form of visiting preferred landscapes, historic sites, buildings or monuments, is also experiential tourism' in the sense of seeking an encounter with nature or feeling part of the history of the place'. It is against this background that culture (traditions, folklore and customs) and heritage (sites and locations) are recently referred to as 'cultural heritage'.

2.3.4 Cultural heritage tourism: Definition

In summarising the assumption from above, Ivanovic and Saayman (2013a:139) maintain that the consumption of cultural heritage has strongly emerged as the new area of tourism, driving current phenomenal growth of cultural tourism (and also heritage tourism) worldwide (Chen & Chen, 2010; Yale, 1991:21). Additionally, cultural heritage is the most prevalent and the most consumed class of tourism products in destinations worldwide (Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013b:175). It forms a resource base for cultural heritage tourism described as tourism centred on what is inherited in which the past is portrayed in the present (Nuryanti, 1996:250).

As emphasised by Bernick (2009:4) and Bonarou (2011:7), cultural heritage tourism means traveling to experience the places and activities that authentically represent the stories and people of the past and present. Bonarou (2011:7) adds that it includes cultural, historic and natural resources. It is further stated by Bonarou (2011:8) that cultural heritage is visits by persons from outside the host community motivated wholly or in part by interest in the historical, artistic, scientific or lifestyle/heritage offerings of a community, region, group or institution". Therefore, the main role of cultural heritage in tourism is learning about the past (Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013b:175). So when cultural heritage tourism is defined it is essential to highlight that it is such a form of tourism that is based on culture and heritage in which culture and heritage simultaneously is the

central element of the tourism product and on the other hand provides the major motivation for the tourist.

In this study, the terms cultural tourism and heritage tourism are not separated because much of the literature on the cultural and heritage tourism binds them together. Therefore, as with Ivanovic (2011:81), the term adopted in this study is cultural heritage tourism as initially propagated by Richards (1996:262, 2011:15) and accepted by ATLAS (2001, 2003), ETC (2005) and other international and national organisations.

2.4 FROM HISTORY TO HERITAGE- WHAT PART OF HISTORY IS (CULTURAL) HERITAGE?

It is evident from the wide range of definitions of heritage available from literature, that heritage is frequently linked to history (see Bernick, 2009:4; Bonarou, 2011:7; Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013b:175). Biran (2008:8) states that the clearest distinction between history and heritage is that 'heritage' (all heritage) is 'historical', though not all 'history' would necessarily be 'heritage'. Ashworth (2008:27) contends that the past can neither be preserved nor created; however, heritage is about now, not then, and heritage which is not activated in the present does not exist (Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013b:176). Ivanovic and Saayman (2013b:176) further illustrate that other contentious issues in history versus heritage are located in selecting the past which is the most representative of a particular cultural heritage site. In this regard Biran (2008:9) noted that the concept of heritage is concerned with the manner in which selective fragments of the past (such as material artefacts, memories, and traditions) serve present day demands. This notion raises the question of what part of history will be remembered and what part will be forgotten (Biran, 2008:9). This is supported by Ivanovic and Saayman (2013b:175) when they emphasise that the main role of cultural heritage is learning about the past; however, probe questions as to: Whose past and who is to tell the story? What from the past is to be revealed and what to be withhold? Which of multiple historical realities is considered the most authentic representation of any cultural heritage site/attraction?

Poria, Butler and Airey (2000) further elaborate on the question of what aspects of history become heritage, highlighting the feelings associated with historical events. For an example, when one uses South Africa as an example, there is no doubt that there are many things/events that might be considered and perceived as 'not' heritage. There are various historical events and elements that are not condoned nor preserved as heritage. Some of the historical events of the apartheid era are historical narratives which the

government might prefer its citizens to forget or disown as they would prefer people to live without them, and therefore not be passed down to future generations. In this regard, Biran (2008:9) argues that the historical narratives transmitted through heritage are selective, partial, distorted, and frequently biased. Therefore, a selection of the past can be involved in both history (scientifically based) and heritage (contemporary society). In line with the aforementioned notions, Poria *et al.* (2000) identify four groups of histories:

- Bad active history: actions that are carried out by my social group, to which feelings such as shame or blame are assigned.
- Bad passive history: actions not taken out by my social groups, but that were perpetrated toward my social group and to which feelings such as sadness and revenge are assigned.
- Good active history: actions carried out by my social groups, to which positive feelings of pride are assigned.
- Good passive history: actions not performed by my social group, but from which it had derived benefit, to which feelings of gratitude's are assigned.

Poria *et al.* (2000) argue that individuals are not interested in preserving and presenting Bad Active sections of history. Hence, the reason certain groups of the population are interested in preserving and observing certain fractions of the past, while others are not (Biran, 2008:10).

Notwithstanding the aforementioned, as already mentioned, tourism's persistent search for novelty has come to include an ever-widening search for tourism products and experiences to satisfy the demands of cultural heritage tourists (Ashworth, 2004). As part of this search, the author alleges that the extremes in human experience are being utilised for the tourist who attains a gratification as participant. This created new grounds for a multiplicity of ontological approaches to tourism theory in general and cultural heritage tourism in particular (Ivanovic, 2011:58). Cultural heritage tourism has given rise to a number of specialised forms; whereas each form is representative of a particular cultural resource, a guarantor of differentiated and authentic tourist experience (Ivanovic, 2011:58).

The best known specialised forms of cultural heritage tourism are, among others, atrocity heritage tourism. Atrocity tourism is a form of heritage tourism that includes visits to battlefields, murder and atrocity locations, places of death of celebrities, graveyards and internment sites, memorials, events and exhibitions featuring relics and the

reconstruction of death (Seaton, 2000). Atrocity heritage tourism is also referred to as 'dark tourism' (Lennon & Foley, 2000:198), 'thanatourism' (Seaton, 1999:240), 'fatal attraction' (Moeller, 2005:14), 'death spots' (Rojek, 1993) or 'heritage that hurts' (Beech, 2000:30). As alleged by Ashworth, such forms of tourism contain many elements of such extremes which can be used to create marketable products from human cruelty and trauma. As Moeller (2005:14) puts it, a growing heritage industry over the last 30 years has made it clear that attractions are often linked to death, disaster and suffering. Ashworth (2004:7) goes on to note that the enormous range of events, sites and historic associations that attract tourists include many that commemorate or recall unpleasant or traumatic occurrences from the past. To name a few of these events that took place in South Africa, these include but are not limited to events (Sharpeville shooting of 1960 and Soweto uprising of 1976); buildings and sites (Vilakazi Street Memorial in Soweto, Hector Peterson Memorial in Soweto); museums (Robben Island Museum in Cape Town and Apartheid Museum in Johannesburg); prisons (Robben Island Prison) and non-place specific heritage (Mandela Capture Site in Howick, Nelson Mandela Bridge, Johannesburg).

This notion raises a question which needs an explanation of why tourists are attracted to the heritage of atrocity; given the fact that tourists are people themselves (Ashworth, 2004:3). The author identified four main arguments, each of which places atrocity within a much more familiar and generally unexceptional context can be made:

- The curiosity argument: The unusual or the unique is interesting to people and thus to tourists
- The identity arguments: As with personal identities, atrocity heritage is an especially powerful instrument for differentiating places. It can transform an otherwise unprepossessing 'anywhere' into a very notable, recognisable and promotable 'somewhere'.
- The horror argument: "if the tourism experience is essentially an emotional occurrence which contrasts with the experience of daily reality and offers a temporary escape from it, then the tourist is posing the question, 'what extraordinary feelings can I experience at this site or facility?' Sites of atrocity would seem particularly apposite because there are just more and realistic emotions to experience".
- The empathy argument: "Empathy relies upon the capacity of heritage consumers to identify themselves with the atrocity narrative being related which is much easier to

obtain with named and personified individuals, in this case overwhelmingly Mandela, than with large abstract groups”.

To delve more deeply into this conundrum, Ivanovic and Saayman (2013b:175) classifies South African cultural heritage from two competing views coming from two cultural or political groups. They classify heritage as dark (crimes against humanity, oppression) and as dissonant heritage (heritage applicable to Afrikaners). According to Ivanovic and Saayman (2013b:176) dark and dissonant heritage contains the most interesting concepts for the South African tourism landscape as the former depicts the South African struggle history whereas the latter is applicable to Afrikaner heritage. As exemplified by Ivanovic (2011:61) cultural heritage sites such as Robben Island in Cape Town, Hector Peterson Memorial in Soweto, Red Location Museum in Port Elisabeth and Constitution Hill in Johannesburg, to mention but a few, are classified in tourism theory as dark heritage sites. Be that as it may, a new past needed to be explicitly created for a country to reflect on and support the new present (Ashworth, 2004:5). Hence, the term ‘Rainbow Nation’ emerged to accommodate separate heritages within the public domain, despite how uncomfortable or even contradictory these may be. This is unifying, as the nature of ‘struggle’ introduces the elements of drama and heroism and is strengthened by the ferocity and determination of fighting against odds (Ashworth, 2004:5). According to the author, it thus produces heroes, as role models and foci of identification and critical events, ‘turning points’, around which the narrative can be constructed.

It is argued that the so-called dark tourism sites in South Africa have emerged as the symbols of nation-building and reconciliation as part of South African post-apartheid transformation to democracy and as such cannot be regarded as merely reminiscent of the dark period of the South African past, but rather as the new class of cultural heritage attractions representative of the new South African national identity (Ivanovic, 2011:61). In this instance, Ivanovic (2011:62) argues that rather than to refer to such cultural heritage sites as dark heritage, it is imperative to regard them as part of South African cultural heritage in the true spirit of national inheritance. Ivanovic (2011:62) goes on to clarify that such statements do not imply that these sites are not associated with the human suffering or that the tourists experiences are not highly emotional but rather that the context of the experience is not best understood within the framework of dark tourism. Ashworth (2004:7) supports Ivanovic’s sentiments by stating that there is no doubt that the anti-apartheid events may have been dramatic, unimpressive and still memorable; however, the settings in which they took place are not. Furthermore, the

use of such sites is not just for a tolerated spatial coincidence, however, it has become a necessity to be maintained as economically and politically central to the creation of the new 'rainbow nation' of the explicitly multiracial South Africa (Ashworth, 2004:7). Moreover, it lies in the fact that tourists visit those sites to experience new, not old South Africa (Ivanovic, 2011:62). Lastly, Ivanovic (2011:62) astoundingly closed the conundrum by alleging that South Africa's most famous brand, the 'Madiba Magic', and the miracle of peaceful transition also play a prominent role in re-inventing apartheid "as part of the selling of the new South Africa to tourists and visitors". And as such it is the most probable reason for tourists visiting and experiencing South Africa as a new, miracle democracy (as opposed to visiting dark heritage sites associated with old South Africa) (Ivanovic, 2011:62).

2.5 CLASSIFICATION OF CULTURAL HERITAGE TOURISTS

This section examines cultural heritage tourists. Firstly, this section attempts to provide a brief definition of the concept of cultural heritage tourist. Secondly, profile characteristics of cultural heritage tourists are explained. Finally, a typology of cultural heritage tourists is discussed.

2.5.1 Cultural heritage tourists: Defined

Many scholars have attempted to define cultural heritage tourists from other tourists visiting a destination. A definition suggested by Boukas (2008:46) defines cultural heritage tourists as those tourists who take part in cultural heritage activities while travelling outside their home communities. However, this is a very simplified characterisation of cultural heritage tourists since more manifold notions such as intention and motivations complicates interpretation of cultural heritage tourists. Ivanovic (2011:76) argues that cultural heritage tourists tend to consume a whole range of different classes of attractions available in a destination. McKercher and Du Cros (2002:136) underline the fact that a cultural heritage tourist is anyone who attends a cultural heritage commodity regardless of the reason for visiting the destination this commodity belongs to. In support of Ivanovic (2011) and McKercher and du Cros's (2002) sentiments, varied definitions suggested by many scholars are given below.

The UNWTO (1985) defines cultural heritage tourists as the people who travel for mostly cultural motivations, which they suggest include study tours, performing arts, cultural tours, travel to festivals, visits to historic sites and monuments, folklore and pilgrimage.

McKercher and Du Cross (2002:30) define cultural heritage tourists as people who visit, or intend to visit, a cultural heritage attraction, art gallery, museum or historic site, attend a performance or festival, or participate in a wide range of activities at any time during their trip.

Concerning these statements, cultural heritage tourists are an autonomous kind of tourists having their own character and personality. In this sense, the need for cultural heritage tourists' typology in order to better crystallise the travel intentions, motivations and behaviour of cultural heritage tourists is emphasised.

2.5.2 Profile characteristics of cultural heritage tourists

The characteristics of cultural heritage tourists are important factors in cultural heritage destinations. This entails the study of socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics which are commonly used in cultural heritage tourism research.

According to Phosikham, Vilayphone and Phimavong (2015:48) the understanding of tourists' characteristics, including socio-demographic characteristics and behavioural characteristics, is significant for tourism marketing as well as tourism management in the tourist destinations. Both socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics are imperative for marketing decisions (Yavuz, 1994); whilst also assisting tourism managers in knowing how to provide the tourism activities, facilities and services to meet the needs of the tourists in order to increase tourist satisfaction. Gaffar, Wetprasit and Setiyorini (2001), Phosikham *et al.* (2015), Valek, Show and Bednarik (2014) as well as Master and Prideaux (2000) stated that some characteristics of tourists that are often analysed are gender, age, level of education, occupation, and income. Yu and Goulden (2006) included tourists' region of residence in demographic characteristics.

In respect to gender, many cultural heritage studies agree that females dominate cultural heritage travel. This is evidenced by the studies of both ATLAS (2007) and Huh (2002). The study of ATLAS (2007:2) revealed that culturally motivated travel is dominated by females as they account for 53% of all cultural tourists. Huh (2002:29) indicated that female respondents (51%) were more satisfied with the Virginia Historic Triangle than were male respondents.

In terms of age, there has been a widespread belief that the majority of cultural tourists are older baby-boomers (McKercher & Du Cros, 2002:136; Ivanovic, 2011:76; Huh, 2002:12). According to the ATLAS survey conducted in 2004, however, it was found that

contradictory to the traditional view that cultural heritage tourists are generally older, younger people represent a very important segment of the total cultural heritage tourism market (Richards, 2003:15). Also, ATLAS survey in 2007 has shown that almost half (49%) of all cultural heritage tourists are young, between 24 and 29 years of age (ATLAS, 2007:2). Moreover, Boukas (2008:5) argued that stereotypical images that cultural heritage tourists are of older age group are not accurate. The study results showed that the majority of the respondents were between the ages of 15-20 years old. The second largest age group were 26-30 year old, whilst only 12, 9% of the respondents were between 31-35 years old. It can be argued therefore that the fact that 87% (compounded) of the respondents belonged to the age group between 15-30 years old indicate a significant participation in cultural heritage destinations for young age, as far as the age variable was concerned.

The level of tourists' education background is also an important component that many researchers take into consideration because the level of education has an influence on tourism behaviour, especially in motivating people to travel (Phosikham *et al.*, 2015:48). According to Ivanovic (2011:77) intensified tourist interest in local cultural heritage worldwide is predetermined by a steady increase in the educational level of the world's traditional tourism source markets in general and higher than average educational level of cultural tourists in particular. It is further emphasised in the studies of Moscardo (1996), Prentice (1993), Prentice, Guerin and McGugan (1998:5), and Richards (1996) that the level of education is also the main socio-demographic determinant of the individual cultural capital; which is in turn the "strong predictor of overall cultural heritage visitation" (Apostolakis, 2003:798). According to Chiu, Dzakiria, Kasim and Scarlat (2013:89) on average, the cultural heritage tourists are more educated than the general public as high levels of education are the most important characteristics possessed by cultural heritage visitors. The study conducted by Richards (1996) involving 6400 respondents revealed that more than 80% of cultural heritage tourists in Europe had tertiary (university/college/trade school) education, and nearly a quarter had postgraduate education. Additionally, the study of Baez-Montenegro *et al.* (2012:248) which investigated the inhabitants' willingness to pay for cultural heritage in Valdivia, Chile, emphasised that the higher academic qualifications reflect a greater willingness to pay for the cultural goods concerned.

The ATLAS (2007:3) results further reveal that a profession plays an important role in tourists' affinity for cultural consumption. For example, 40% of cultural tourists are professionals, 16% are in managerial positions, while only 4% are manual workers.

According to Boukas (2008:50) occupation and income levels seem to play an imperative role in cultural heritage tourists' visiting intentions. Sildeberg (1995) maintained that the higher income a cultural heritage tourist has the more interest in cultural heritage. Richards (2001:51) indicated that cultural heritage tourists tend to have managerial and professional jobs and have relatively high incomes.

The tourists' region of residence is another aspect that tourism scholars have researched, since tourists from different regions have different behaviours and levels of satisfaction (Phosikham *et al.*, 2015:49). It is stated by Chiu *et al.* (2013:89) that it is helpful for managers to understand the spatial or geographical patterns of behaviour, travel and visitation once tourists are in a destination or a specific cultural heritage region. According to Chiu *et al.* (2013:90) the geographic origins of cultural heritage tourists, whether international or domestic, are closely related to the scale of an individual heritage attraction. Places of international fame will bring in large numbers of visitors on their own merit, while smaller regional sites will draw more domestic tourists and local recreationists, although some international tourists may visit in conjunction with larger package tours and because they are already near the site for other reasons (Chiu *et al.*, 2013:90).

Notwithstanding the information about socio-demographic characteristics of cultural heritage tourists which is significant and can describe the overall cultural heritage profile, it is, however, insufficient in predicting the nature of cultural heritage consumption in a destination. Additionally, profile characteristics give a descriptive icon of who cultural heritage tourists are rather than an in-depth analysis of their behaviour (Boukas, 2008:51). Furthermore, the characteristics mentioned above are based on specific case studies at specific destinations in specific times. Therefore, even if this kind of approach for categorising cultural heritage gives, initially, some information of who they are and what they do, it is probably not adequate enough (Boukas, 2008:52). For this reason, this study will delve more into the typology of cultural heritage tourists in order to gain more insight about who they are what their behaviour is when they travel.

2.5.3 A typology of cultural heritage tourists

As previously stated, Ramnani (2012:3) argued that the growing popularity of cultural heritage tourism is evidenced by WTO's recognition of the presence of cultural heritage as a component in 40% of all international trips undertaken and likely becoming quintessential component of many destination areas all over the world. Further research by WTO estimates that 37% of international tourists are cultural heritage tourists (McKercher & Du Cros, 2002:39). These cultural heritage tourists include tourists that visit a cultural heritage attraction, a museum, or attend a performance sometime during their trip (Steyn, 2007:21). Often, cultural tourists are portrayed as an attractive and easily differentiated market segment to attract (McKercher & Du Cros, 2002:136)

In recent years, the typology of cultural heritage tourists has been of great interest for both academics and researchers in the field pertaining to the characteristics of the visitors of cultural heritage sites (Chiu *et al.*, 2013:91). According to Smith (2003:36) the interest is in characterising tourists according to the roles they play and the personae they adopt, although it could be argued that most tourists do not consciously role-play. According to Smith (2003:36), from more traditional typologies of the tourist, cultural tourists might fall variously into the categories of 'explorer' or 'drifter' (Cohen, 1972) or 'elite', 'off-beat' or 'unusual' (Smith, 1989). Although 'unusual' tourists tend to prefer the tourist bubble to striking out alone, they nevertheless adapt reasonably well to local culture. Smith (2003:36) referred to five categories of tourist experience: recreational, diversionary, experiential, experimental and existential. According to Smith, the first two categories of visitors are mainly seeking relaxation and escapism, whereas the last three categories will wish to immerse themselves either partly or fully in local culture and society, and authentic experiences will be sought.

Likewise, McKercher and Du Cros (2002:39) have distinguished among five types of cultural heritage tourists based on the importance of cultural heritage tourism in the overall decision to visit a destination and depth of experience. These tourists differ in terms of their main motivations to engage in cultural heritage tourism activities. The types are presented graphically in Figure 2.1. The horizontal axis reflects the centrality of cultural heritage tourism in the overall decision to visit a destination. The vertical dimension represents depth of experience. Combining the two dimensions produces five possible types of cultural heritage tourist:

- **The purposeful cultural tourist** – cultural heritage tourism is the primary motive for visiting a destination and the cultural heritage tourist has a deep cultural heritage experience.
- **The sightseeing cultural heritage tourist** – cultural heritage tourism is a primary or major reason for visiting a destination, but the experience is shallower.
- **The serendipitous cultural heritage tourist** – For this tourist, cultural heritage tourism is not a stated reason for visiting a destination, but ends up getting a deep cultural heritage tourism experience.
- **The casual cultural heritage tourist** – cultural heritage tourism is a weak motive for visiting a destination, and the resultant experience is shallow.
- **The incidental cultural heritage tourist** – for this tourist, cultural heritage tourism is not a stated motive for visiting a destination but nonetheless he/she participates in some activities and has shallow experiences.

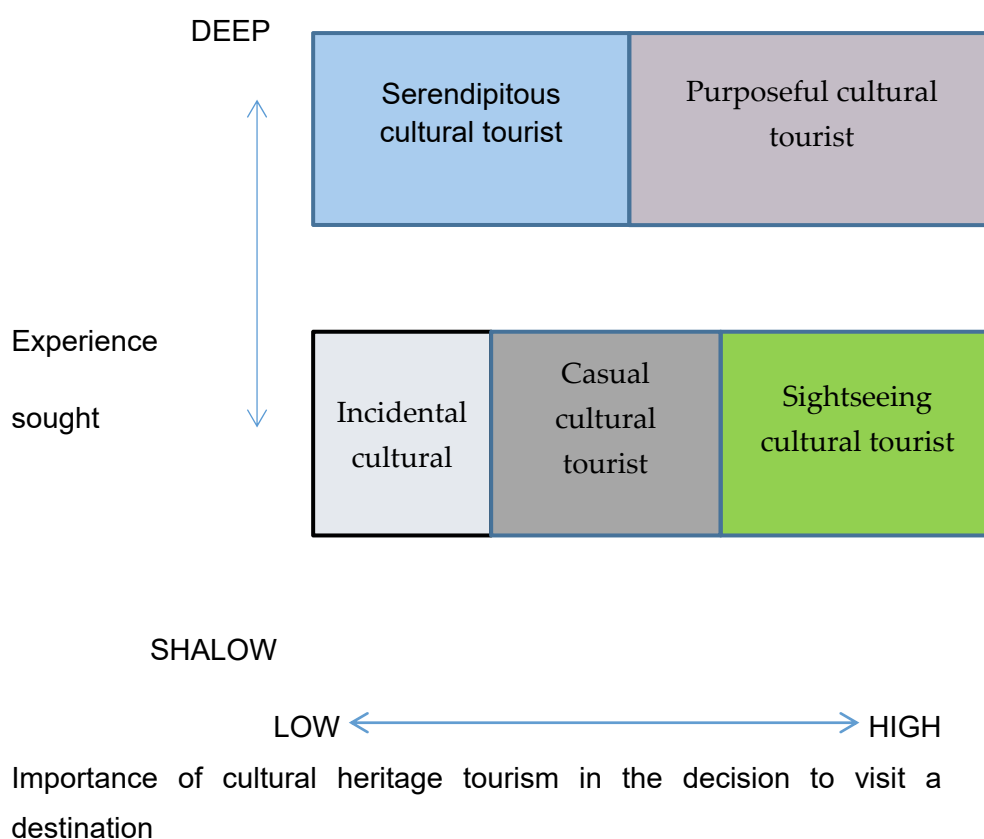


Figure 2.1: The five possible types of cultural heritage tourist
(Source: McKercher & Du Cros, 2002:140).

Examining their model, the authors argue that the purposeful and sightseeing cultural heritage tourists are cultural heritage tourists who are motivated largely by cultural heritage tourism reasons. This entails that they will explore a destination area seeking cultural heritage experiences. However, cultural heritage tourism represents only an adjunct to the trip for incidental, casual, and serendipitous cultural heritage tourists, who constitute the majority of participants. For them, consumption decisions will seek experiences in tourism nodes or in shopping precincts but will not venture widely into other experiences (Chiu *et al.*, 2013:91). Similarly, the majority of cultural heritage tourists seem to seek a fairly shallow, easy to consume experience (Chiu *et al.*, 2013:91). This calls for appropriate development of products to suit varied target audiences.

On the other hand, Smith (2003:36) classified types of cultural heritage tourists by considering the different activities in which cultural heritage tourists engage (clearly there would be inevitable overlaps between some of these categories) (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1: A typology of cultural heritage tourists

TYPE OF CULTURAL HERITAGE TOURIST	TYPICAL PLACES/ACTIVITIES OF INTEREST
Heritage tourist	• Visits to castles, palaces, country houses • Archaeological sites • Monuments • Architecture • Museums • Religious sites
Arts tourist	• Visits to the theatre • Concerts • Galleries • Festivals, carnivals and events
Creative tourists	• Photography • Painting • Pottery • Cookery • Crafts
Urban cultural tourist	• Historic cities • Regenerated industrial cities • Waterfront developments • Arts and heritage attractions • Shopping • Nightlife
Rural cultural tourist	• Village, farm or agro-tourism • Eco museums

Indigenous cultural tourist

- Cultural landscapes
- National parks
- Wine trails
- Hill tribe, desert or mountain trekking
- Visits to cultural centres
- Arts and crafts
- Cultural performances
- Festivals

Source: Smith, 2003:37.

2.6 THE ROLE OF CULTURAL HERITAGE TOURISM IN ACHIEVING ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL BENEFITS

According to Hajare (2012:395) tourism like many other industries is often used as a national or regional development tool. Therefore, the objectives of encouraging it are to maximise the benefits thereof for economic, social and environmental benefits within a particular region (Slabbert, 2013:1) (see Figure 2.2). These benefits are discussed below.

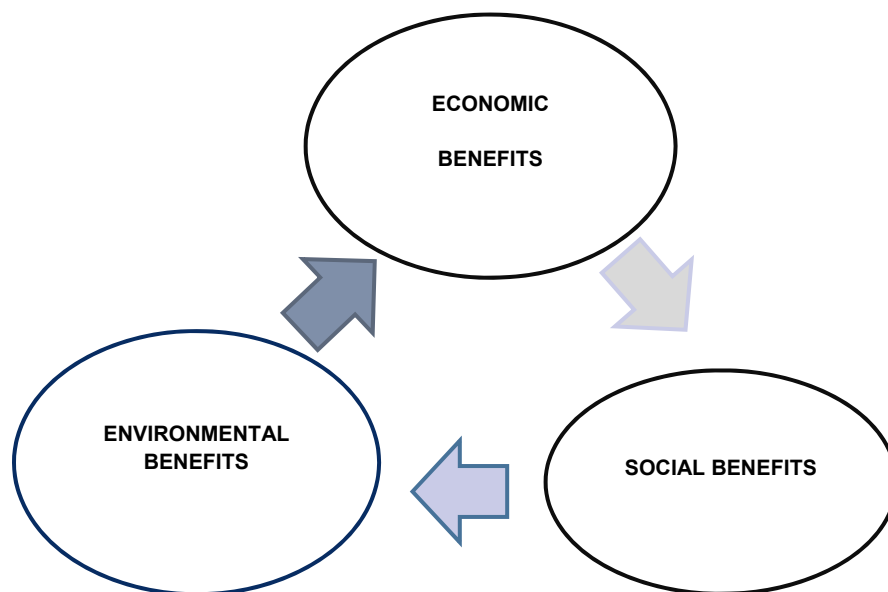


Figure 2.2: Benefits of cultural heritage tourism

Source: Compiled by researcher

2.6.1 Economic impetus in cultural heritage tourism

One of the prime objectives of the South African Government recognises that the development and promotion of cultural heritage products as tourism resources could in addition contribute towards optimising the economic benefits of tourism to the local population. The expenditure of visitors at heritage sites and the associated flow-on

effects have meant that cultural heritage tourism is now big business (Gitera, 2008:38). For an example, research by Ivanovic and Saayman (2013a:136) reveals that more than 50% of tourist activities in Europe are driven by cultural heritage. In the United States of America, cultural heritage tourism is also an important sector of domestic tourism, achieving an annual growth rate of 13% between 1996 and 2002, with approximately 216.8 million personal trips to heritage sites in 2002, and an average expenditure of \$623, a figure almost 50% higher than the expenditure of non-heritage visitors (Gitera, 2008:38). In South Africa, cultural heritage tourism is mostly consumed by the international market and has increased from 42.3% in 2010 to 43.6% in 2011 (Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013a:143). According to Gitera (2008:39) cultural heritage travellers are notable for how they spend their money and how they spend their time. The author further states that cultural heritage tourists are much more likely to stay in commercial lodging and visit a museum as well as take an interest in eating local foods. This money may be as an injection of demand into the local community (Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert & Wanhill, 1998:130). Figure 2.3 shows the full assessment of economic impact.

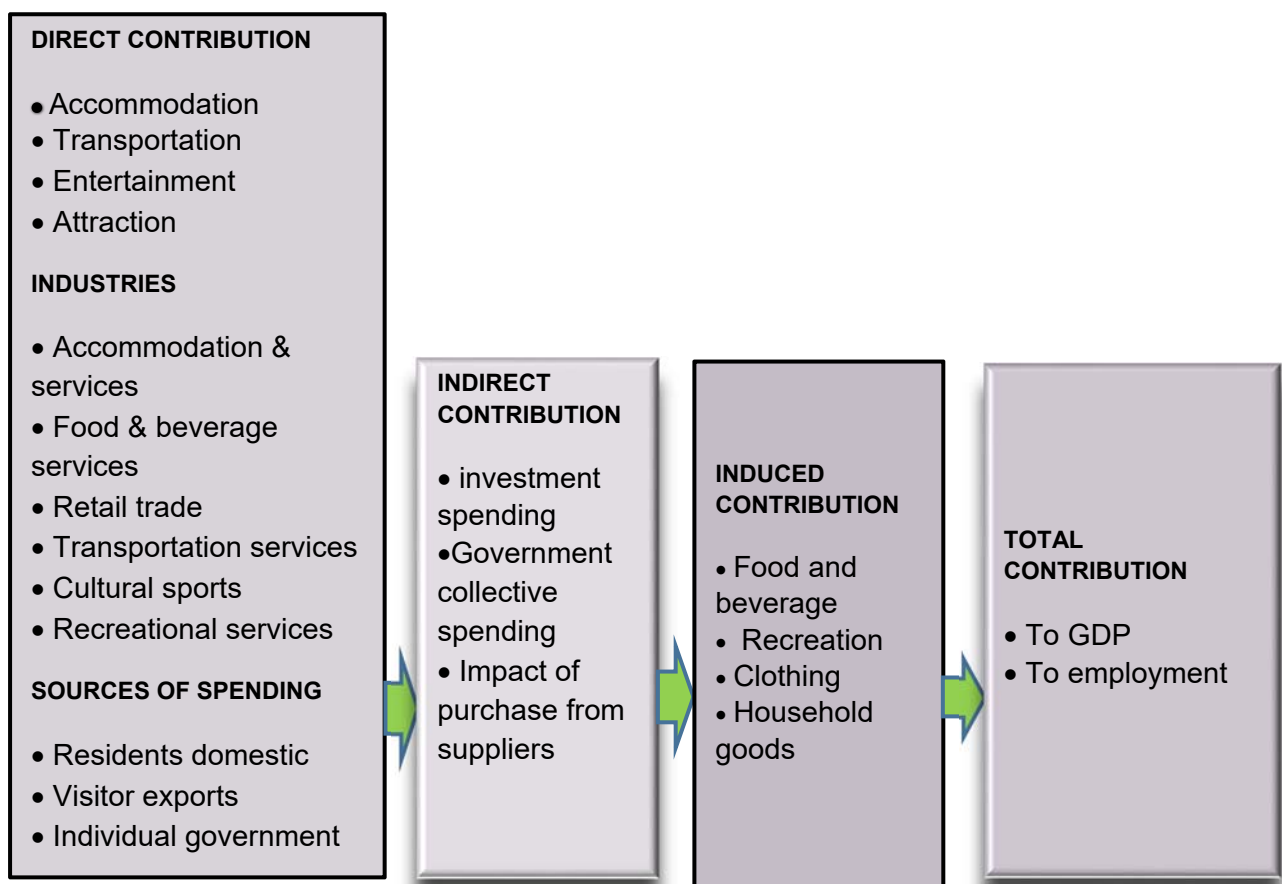


Figure 2.3: Direct, indirect and induced effects
Source: World Travel and Tourism Council, 2014:2

Tourist expenditure has a cascading effect throughout the local community (Cooper *et al.*, 1998:130). It begins with local residents and out of town tourists visiting cultural heritage sites and spending money in the local and state-wide economies. Direct cultural heritage site tourism sales flow through the economy of any region, generating gross domestic product (GDP), jobs, wages, and taxes. According to Ivanovic, Khunou, Reynish, Pawson, Tseane and Wassung (2009:274) indirect effects refer to jobs where people supply goods or services to the business that work directly with tourists. For example, people producing arts, crafts and souvenirs to shops are indirectly employed by the tourism industry. The induced impacts represent benefits to the economy as employees of tourism sectors spend their wages in the local economy, generating additional output, jobs, taxes, and wages. Most authors are in agreement that the economic benefits of cultural heritage tourism include:

- Increasing employment opportunities
- Creating new business opportunities
- Stimulating the local economy
- Promoting development because of media coverage
- Improving infrastructure and facilities
- Improving standard of living
- Improving investment and development
- Increasing opportunities for shopping
- Increasing tax revenues
- Spreading economic impact (direct, indirect, induced spending)

(Fredline, Raybould, Jago & Deer., 2004; Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003; Viviers, 2009; Viviers & Slabbert, 2012; and Slabbert, 2013).

2.6.2 Social benefits

According to Nyanpane (2009) many developing countries have focused on tourism to promote economic growth in economically depressed regions and to enhance the socioeconomic well-being of their people. Cultural heritage tourism also enriches local community esteem and provides the opportunity for greater understanding and communication between people of diverse backgrounds. It is envisaged that the exposure of these assets to the tourism market would lead to an upsurge of creativity and innovation, skills development and local entrepreneurship (TWE, 2005). Dlomo (2007:40) asserts that cultural heritage tourism is a provision of a dynamic opportunity for including disadvantaged communities in the tourist industry. Additionally, it plays an

imperative role in the development of the arts, entertainment events, and sites that would stimulate a youth tourist market. In their research, Slabbert (2013:6) and Dlomo (2007:41) indicated the following social benefits:

- Improvement of general living standards for all communities.
- Heightening of pride in community.
- Providing opportunities for educational experiences.
- Promotion of cultural exchange.
- Improvement of understanding of different cultures.
- Changing values and customs positively.
- Preserving cultural identity of host population.
- Increasing demand for historical and cultural attractions.
- Gaining of usable skills by local people.
- Community individual awareness of cultural tourism.
- Encouragement of the regeneration and restoration of historical sites and museums degraded.

2.6.3 Environmental benefits

Tourism contributes to the preservation and protection of the environment. The income from tourists often makes it possible to preserve and restore certain buildings, monuments and significant areas. Tourism is generally considered a “clean” industry, based on hotels, restaurants; shops and attractions. According to Slabbert (2013:5), tourism in terms of impact on the environment provides the following benefits:

- Improves the area’s appearance (visual and aesthetic)
- Protects selected environments or prevents further ecological decline
- Preserves historic buildings and monuments
- Establishes a "clean" industry
- Creates awareness of the importance of a “green industry”

2.7 AUTHENTICITY IN CULTURAL HERITAGE TOURISM

The concept of authenticity pervades the literature of tourism studies, generating a great deal of debate amongst tourism writers (Nicolaidis, 2014:3; Carter, 2008:22; Wang, 1999:349; Harvey, 2004:6; Chhabra, 2001:19; Tiberghien, 2014:15; Zhu, 2012:1496). It is the increasing influence of the tourism industry, the greater ease of travel and ever-

widening arena of visited places that have increased the urgency of debates on the impacts of tourism on the authenticity of cultural heritage (Smith & Robison, 2005:177). These debates cluster around the ways in which tourism has impacted on the authenticity of the tourists' experience of places and cultural heritage, on the cultural heritage of the hosts themselves, on the nature of the host/guest relationship and on the production of cultural heritage objects and events consumed (but not necessarily exclusively) by tourists (Smith & Robison, 2005:177).

According to Nicolaides (2014:1) attempting to define 'authenticity' is an intricate assignment; it clearly has different meanings in different cultures, societies, and in diverse settings. Chhabra (2001:23) concur by stating that authenticity can have different meaning for different people and it can be interpreted differently. Van Zyl (2005:148) argues that despite a great many debates amongst tourism writers, however, the general consensus appears to be that true authenticity can never be achieved. Additionally, when taking into consideration the discussions in 2.4 above which debated 'what part of history is cultural heritage?', it is of the researchers view that the concept of authenticity is a difficult one, given the distinct characteristics of what constitute cultural heritage product. This is contrary to Poria *et al.* (2000) and Biran's (2008:10) views. The authors argued that the past allow destinations to present certain fractions of the past. On the other hand, Van Zyl (2005:148) questions local community's ability on the knowledge of the past on whether it is well authenticated. Be that as it may, it has been argued that authenticity and quality experience are essential ingredients of cultural heritage tourism (Hargrove, 1999). In fact, focus on authenticity is a basic principle for cultural heritage in cultural heritage tourism development (Fischer, 1999). As previously stated, culture, heritage and history are the key attractions and resources that are the pull factors, providing the various characteristics of a destination and making it attractive to visit.

Notwithstanding the above debates, the renowned scholars Goeldner and Ritchie (2006:258) assert that commentary and criticisms of theories and approaches do not necessarily mean all of it is wrong or more simply that academics disagree. Instead, it is more useful to see the comments as a part of a constructive process. It becomes imperative at this stage to discuss the concept of authenticity in the context of cultural heritage tourism development.

According to Tiberghien (2014:15) the question of authenticity is central to much literature on cultural heritage and tourism development. Prideaux and Timothy (2008:9) argue that "heritage is inherently a contested phenomenon, especially when

communities comprise of multiple ethnics groups, belief systems, cultures and social mores". Furthermore, Prideaux and Timothy (2008:4) also detail that the development of tourism induces cultural changes that give birth to "new forms of cultural expressions that have to be accepted both by the tourist and that also fit into newly globalised form of culture that the local community has developed. For Chhabra (2001:22) authenticity is an accurate reproduction of the original and creates nostalgic memories of the past. The main contributor, MacCannell (1976), alleges that authenticity is the search for original that is mainly staged in the postmodern tourism period to promote nostalgia for the past. According to Ivanovic (2011:36) authenticity presents an opportunity to portray the past in the present through mindful interpretation which facilitates visitors' nostalgic and educational insights into the past. In this regard, Goffman (1959) and McCannell (1976) debated a key question in the commodification of culture: what can be adequately presented to visitors so that they have the perception of an authentic tourism experience? Cooper *et al.* (1998:178) and Cooper *et al.* (2005:244) when modelling the question of authenticity and levels of cultural penetration in tourism, detail three main stages, showcasing McCannell's (1976) adaptation of Goffman's (1959) idea of a 'front stage' and 'back stage' region of tourism (Figure 2.8). In this regard, the question of what is authentic and what makes the cultural heritage reality or inauthentic is therefore central to the cultural heritage discourse, an issue pertinent to concept of staged authenticity (MacCannell, 1976).

According to Ivanovic *et al.* (2009:299) staged authenticity is experienced when the host community stages or enacts certain authentic elements of its culture for the benefit of tourists, even though those cultural elements may no longer be part of their modern daily living. In other words, the host population provides a more realistic performance of cultural heritage than existed before, but still ensures that the tourists do not manage to penetrate behind the stage curtains (Copper *et al.*, 1998:178). Figure 2.4 demonstrates the concept and dangers of staged authenticity and the arena is divided into three distinct areas:

- A. the previous level of tourist penetration into the host culture;
- B. the new level of cultural penetration that is considered to be authentic by the tourist but is, in fact, staged authenticity;
- C. the true cultural heritage of the host society that maintains its integrity by keeping tourists on the other side of the firewall curtains.

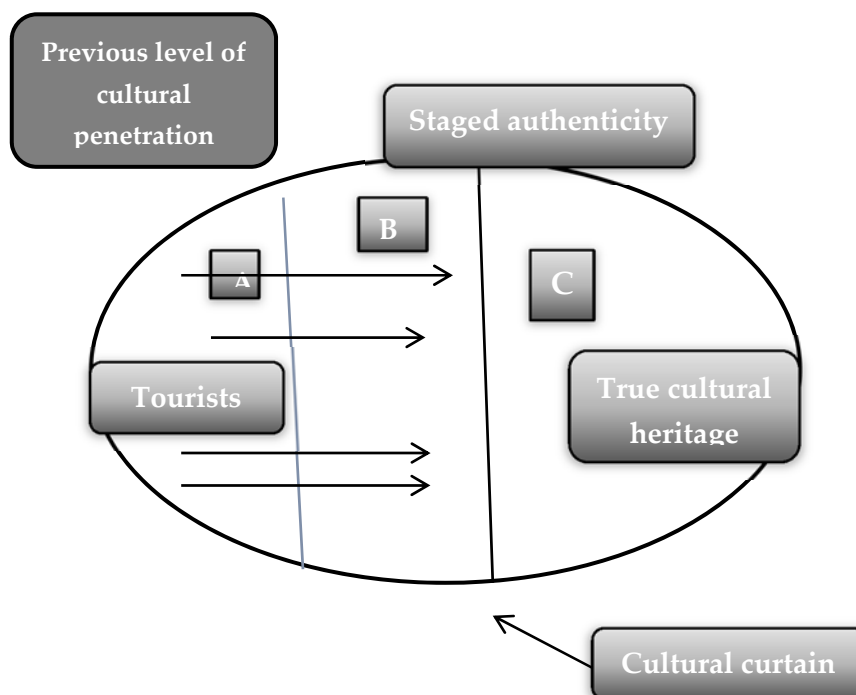


Figure 2.4: Level of cultural heritage penetration
Source: Cooper et al., (1998:179)

Historic and cultural heritage staging presents the visitor with the salient features of a community's cultural heritage and reduces the need for encroaching on the private space of the host population (Cooper et al., 1998:306). However, as already discussed, various cultural heritage destinations are faced with many challenges. Their quest to deliver goods and services that perform better than other destinations allows the approach of stage authenticity to be effective for the short term. According to Copper et al. (1998:179) destinations would want to provide greater experiences and diversity within a competitive market thus lead to increasing levels of penetration when the firewall curtains are continually retreating in order to meet tourist's demands. The authors claims that eventually, there will be nowhere for the host community to maintain the integrity of their cultural heritage which add a danger in the form of a gradual cultural heritage impact. Interestingly enough Cooper et al. (1998:306) observe that the very act of staging the authenticity of cultural heritage can blur the true boundaries of the local cultural heritage and, in so doing, distort the cultural heritage that is being maintained behind the firewall curtain.

Box 1: Cultural heritage tourism dilemma in Sulawesi, Indonesia

The Toraja people of Sulawesi, Indonesia are struggling with tourism. They are being forced to change and package their sacred funeral ceremonies to meet tourists' expectations. Often, these ceremonies have been changed so much that the local people don't recognise them anymore. Many now want to turn tourists away and go back to their traditional ceremonies.

Source: *Ivanovic et al., (2009:300)*

Ivanovic *et al.* (2009:300) conclude that the aforementioned scenario represents the dilemma of cultural heritage in the world. Although tourists are willing to pay for an exotic, unique cultural heritage experience, the quest for host community to protect the integrity of their cultural heritage results in tourists receiving what has been referred to as staged authentic. On the other hand, the authors argue that staged authenticity forces local cultures to change and packed their sacred cultural heritage in order to meet tourist demands. By so doing, they gain valuable income; however, they lose their cultural heritage as tourists get staged authenticity. The authors conclude that neither groups benefit, though.

2.8 TOURISM AND CULTURAL HERITAGE TOURISM: SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

It is crucial at this stage of the discussion to trace back the history of South Africa as far as tourism is concerned. Secondly, it is imperative to also establish what approach has been adopted towards redefining cultural heritage tourism in this country. Therefore, this section will attempt to broaden the knowledge on how tourism and cultural heritage has evolved within the South African context.

2.8.1 Overview

The decade of the 1990s began with the historic event of Nelson Mandela's release from prison and the unbanning of political organisations (Kiambo, 2014:160). These events marked the start of the transition from the apartheid government to a democratically elected government, successfully opening up the doors of South Africa to the rest of the world, and paving the way for a previously isolated tourism industry. As a result, following Nelson Mandela's release in 1990, tourism arrivals increased significantly between 1990 and 1994, leading to government recognising the potential of the sector to create employment, alleviate poverty and catalyse the construction of infrastructure in

rural communities (Kiambo, 2014:160). Therefore, this growth led to the creation of policies and legislation to provide guidance on how this potential could be harnessed to benefit the nation. The study reviews some of the policies and programmes initiated to develop tourism and cultural heritage tourism in South Africa. Amongst others, the study will discuss the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) of 1994, White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism Development in 1996, National Tourism Sector Strategy (NTSS) (2011) and lastly, National Heritage and Cultural Tourism Strategy (NHCS) (2012).

2.8.2 Policies and Legislation

2.8.2.1 Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), 1994

Recognised in the African National Congress pre-election document, and in the White paper of the Government of National Unity (GNU), the RDP is the first development strategy in the Government of National Unity (GNU) (Thuketana, 2007:40). The RDP identifies tourism as a potential sector that can be used to eradicate poverty among the poor, particularly in rural areas. Also, it emphasises the process of reconstruction and development within the tourism sector in view of the distortions created by apartheid. The programme further highlights that vast potential resources should be realised in terms of the mass market and increasing foreign exchange (RDP, 1994:105; Thuketana, 2007:40). Furthermore, RDP states that the government should facilitate the promotion of tourism in marginalised areas (RDP 1994:105).

Additionally, according to the RDP, tourism should be transparent and environmental sensitive and be integrated with other development projects (RDP, 1994:116). According to Thuketana (2007:40) the RDP document underpins tourism in its six basic principles, which are; integration and sustainability; people driven; peace and security; nation-building; meeting basic needs and building the infrastructure; democratisation and assessment; and accountability.

2.8.2.2 White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism Development in 1996

The White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism Development was launched in June 1996 under the leadership of Minister Jordan. According to Kiambo (2014:166) the tourism White Paper was the *de facto* tourism development policy in South Africa. It stated both the vision and priorities of tourism development for South Africa and outlined the structure of the tourism industry and its institutions (Kiambo,

2014:166). Its vision was to develop the tourism sector as a national priority in a sustainable and acceptable manner, so it “would contribute significantly to the improvement of the quality of life of every South African” (Kiambo, 2014:166); and be a major force in the reconstruction and development efforts of the government (DEAT, 1996).

Additionally, it provided directions and guidelines for the development of innovative and imaginative tourism plans. These plans meant the need for some form of development programmes, where the community members themselves can become participants within the tourism sector (Gopaul, 2006:6). This is because many communities and previously neglected groups, particularly those in rural areas that have not actively participated in the tourism industry, were identified as those who possess significant tourism resources (DEAT, 1996:16). Therefore, the findings from the White Paper on Tourism meant the value and benefits of tourism for the South African people because tourism is considered to labour intensive. Gopaul (2006:6) further states that the reason for development of White Paper was based on the fact that unemployment and poverty have for a long time been a major problem in the rural areas of South Africa. Therefore, by developing such a policy, the government aimed to reduce inequalities and creating opportunities for economic growth.

2.8.2.3 National Tourism Sector Strategy (NTSS), 2011

Adopted by the Cabinet of South Africa in March 2011, the NTSS is the blueprint for tourism development in the country. According to Nkala (2014:6) the process undertaken to develop NTSS was preceded by the recognition of tourism as an important economic sector. As a result, the government saw the need of the subsequent standalone department of tourism, namely the National Department of Tourism, which was approved in the 2009 State of Nation Address. Therefore, the NTSS was developed by South Africa's NDT to drive tourism in the country. The strategy has three objectives with the sub-objective under each. Firstly, the strategy seeks to promote tourism growth and the economy by growing tourism absolute sector's contribution to the economy, promote people development and decent work in the tourism; increasing domestic tourism contribution to the economy and contributing to regional tourism economy (NDT, 2011:10). Secondly, the strategy seeks to improve visitor experience and the brand by delivering a world-class visitor experience; entrenching a tourism culture among South Africans and positioning South Africa as a globally recognised tourism destination brands (NDT, 2011:10).

Lastly, the strategy seeks to promote sustainability and good governance by achieving transformation within the tourism sector; addressing the issue of geographic, seasonal and rural spread; promoting rural tourism practices within the sector and unlocking tourism economic development at provincial and local levels (NDT, 2011:10).

Ivanovic (2011:87) asserts that 'preceding the Parliamentary approval of the NTSS - National Tourism Sector Strategy (NDT, 2011), the NTSS National Advisory Committee in Tourism Leadership Report of 27 July 2010 (NDT, 2011:8) specifically recommends the development of cultural heritage products especially "new niches to enhance destination competitiveness" with a specific focus on South African icons and routes'.

2.8.2.4 National Heritage and Cultural Tourism Strategy (NHCTS) (2012)

NDT developed National Heritage and Cultural Tourism Strategy (NHCTS) (2012). Informed by the White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa (1996) and the NTSS (2011), the NHCTS serves to guide and provide strategic direction for the development and promotion of cultural heritage tourism in South Africa (NDT, 2012:10) and is aimed at:

- Identifying means for turning culture and heritage into sought after attractions;
- Taking advantage of country's unique culture, history and heritage by generating local, national and international awareness;
- Ensuring a coordinated approach to promoting cultural and heritage assets.

The government has recognized that cultural heritage tourism can secure "the long-term competitiveness of the South Africa tourism economy" (Ivanovic, 2011:107). Thus, in late 2010, the National Department of Tourism proposed the draft of the NHCTS for South Africa (Ivanovic, 2011:108), with the purpose of identifying and developing "niche products such as cultural heritage tourism as a priority" (NDT, 2012:6). In a similar vein, Van der Merwe and Rogerson (2013:2) state that the strategy provides a framework for the coordination and integration of cultural heritage into the mainstream of tourism as well as to guide and provide strategic direction for the development and promotion of cultural heritage tourism in South Africa.

The move by the government to take the initiative in cultural heritage tourism is aimed to curb the exigencies of the apartheid era which had several unintended consequences in many communities. Amongst these consequences is tourism development largely being

a missed opportunity as tourism is relatively a low priority in these disadvantaged local communities. Such communities are still to date experiencing problems such as high poverty levels, poor infrastructure, and poor education levels, to name a few. However, it can certainly be argued that the strategy to build on cultural heritage tourism could mean a potential for redressing the imbalances of the past, preserving and communicating the country's historic legacy while also being used to generate financial and social benefits using resources within the communities (Khumalo *et al.*, 2014; Nkwanyana, 2012; Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013b). As NDT (2012:29) puts it, cultural heritage tourism provides a unique opportunity for cultural exchange and transmission of cultural knowledge between local communities and tourists, as well as to increase the participation of local communities in the tourism industry.

2.8.3 Aspects of international tourist arrivals

According to StatsSA (2013:1), administrative records regulating the flow of people across boundaries, specifically border statistics, are an important source of statistical data on temporary population movements in many countries. Generally, countries routinely collect some data from both residents and non-residents who pass through the demarcated air, land and sea ports on arrival in and departing from the country (StatsSA, 2013:1). This helps to estimate, monitor and understand salient characteristics of foreign travellers and volumes of South African residents travelling outside South Africa (StatsSA, 2013:6). StatsSA (2013:1) further states that the method, the kind of collected data, the quality of data and the dissemination and availability of processed data differ quite widely among countries since there is no international standardised template for the recording of information on travellers. In this chapter, statistical records will be used to estimate the number of cultural heritage tourists that visit South Africa (foreign market) and the domestic market that prefer to consume a cultural heritage attraction/product.

Any country has got its own source countries which are often referred to as markets. In this section, the term cultural heritage tourist will be replaced by the term 'market' (i.e. foreign market or domestic market). As of 2012, ten leading foreign markets came to South Africa with the United Kingdom (UK), the United States of America (USA), and Germany being the top three. As with SADC markets, out of ten markets that visited South Africa, the top three were Zimbabwe, Lesotho and Mozambique. However, African markets will be excluded in this section and the profile determined from the site data.

In trying to understand and also be able to interpret and analyse statistics to inform the views on the current state of both the foreign and domestic market, the study will centre its findings based on the theory as discussed by Ivanovic. Ivanovic (2011:92) claims that in South Africa there is an absence of cultural heritage purpose for the visit and this implies that there is no measurement of the volume and value of foreign and domestic markets. Also, Ivanovic has discovered that there is a lack of statistical data on cultural heritage travel and this makes it difficult to make any comparisons in both the national and international tourist trends. In the introduction, it is stated that cultural heritage products are desired by tourists, but lack of statistical data will make it difficult to understand culturally induced expenditure.

Despite these shortcomings, Ivanovic (2011) states that any tourist with any type of motivation will end up consuming cultural heritage while at the destination. This allows for inferences to be made from currently available international and South African sources. Ivanovic continues and emphasises the fact that cultural heritage is consumed as both primary and secondary motivation, lack of data on cultural heritage as a primary purpose of travel can still be substituted by data on the propensity for cultural heritage consumption as the secondary motivation by international tourists on holiday, business tourists and tourists visiting friends and relatives (VFR). Presumably, tourists on holiday together with VFR tourists comprise the leisure segment which consume cultural heritage as a secondary motivation (Ivanovic, 2011:93).

In South Africa, all leisure comprising VFR, holiday and shopping for personal use continues to be the major reason for travel to South Africa, accounting for over 61.9% in 2012 of the foreign market (SAT, 2012). VFR continued to surpass holiday (18.7% in 2012) as the primary purpose of visit to South Africa as holiday, VFR travel grew to 27.7% in 2012. Even though 38% business tourists in 2012 (SAT, 2012) also consumed cultural heritage, the analysis pertinent to the section will focus on long haul leisure tourists only, more specifically on the European and USA markets. This clearly states that cultural heritage tourism products are desired by the tourist.

According to the SAT Annual Tourism Report 2012, South Africa received 9 188 368 international tourist arrival in 2012, a ten per cent increase from 2011 (SAT, 2012:20). According to SAT's categorization, holiday and VFR travel combined constitute the international leisure travel segment. A breakdown of the main international portfolios based on the main purpose of the visit is presented in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Tourist arrivals in South Africa (2012)

ARRIVALS to SA 2012	TOTAL	HOLIDAY	+ VFR =	LEISURE
EUROPE	1 396 978	41,5	15,5	57
Africa (land and air)	6 634 933	30,6	57,6	88,2
Americans	513 359	40,5	12,1	52,6
Asia and Australasia	541 253	32,8	17,5	50,3
TOTAL ARRIVALS	9 086 523			

(Source: SAT, 2012:26)

When the main four portfolios are added up, namely, the long-haul international markets and the African main source markets (land and air), the total of leisure market for South African tourism is 9 086 523. Due to a lack of statistical data, the international leisure market cannot be broken down into general and specific cultural heritage tourists; instead the whole market is regarded as the general tourist market for South African cultural heritage tourism.

2.8.4 Controversial challenges and issues in cultural heritage tourism

The development of tourism in South Africa in general, and the development of cultural heritage tourism, in particular, is at an incipient stage. South Africa has tremendous advantages in the global market. However, the country is also faced with some critical challenges.

2.8.4.1 Products-Demand and Supply

In 2012, NDT acknowledged and confirmed that “the value and impact of cultural heritage tourism has not been fully realised, particularly the economic potential of cultural heritage tourism products” (NDT, 2012:29). The only possible explanation is that South African cultural heritage products are not properly standardised, well presented, not properly interpreted, and not properly marketed and packaged (Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013b:172; Ivanovic, 2011:92). In this respect, the state of cultural heritage tourism products does not entirely meet international standards (Van Zyl, 2005). The main challenges are located in a lack of capacity and inability of cultural heritage tourism products to consistently meet the international standards in terms of product quality and service levels (Van Zyl, 2005). Ivanovic (2011:92) argues that it is without a doubt that cultural heritage sector is attracting tourist; with an array of dormant cultural heritage resources inherited. However, the cultural heritage sector remains highly unregulated

with its product offerings not satisfying tourist in terms of authenticity and uniqueness (Ivanovic, 2011:92). Furthermore, Ivanovic and Saayman (2013b:172) argue that the sector is also failing to turn cultural heritage products into meaningful tourist experiences. They further state the reason is lack of understanding of tourist experience as opposed to tourist consumption and such discloses the inability of the sector to deliver what tourists want in respect of cultural heritage tourism (Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013b:172.) Additionally, an inability to connect with the tourists on the emotional level and to generate an empathetic response to our cultural heritage is the most worrying deficiency of cultural products on offer in South Africa. Thus far, cultural heritage tourism products are clearly underperforming despite their strong potential and in many other cases, the promised effects have not materialised.

2.8.4.2 Lack of involvement of people concerned

The diverse indigenous South African cultural heritage products can be perceived as having a latent comparative advantage in the development of cultural heritage tourism. This is due to their nature of possessing unique political cultural heritage based attractions. In response, the South African government has on numerous occasions made its intentions clear in developing these political cultural heritage products as a means to empower indigenous communities. There are a number of developments where so-called cultural villages, township tours, and route tourism have been established to create a form of living cultural heritage. These are the very attractions which people from major tourist generating countries are looking for. As previously stated in 2.4, tourists are looking for a new class of cultural heritage attractions representative of the new South African national identity (Ivanovic, 2011:61). Communities are an isolated part of the total tourism product and are not integrated and/or involved in the development of tourism, particularly at the national level.

2.8.4.3 Lack of strategic focus

In their study, Khumalo *et al.* (2014:1) discovered that cultural heritage tourism is a growing phenomenon in South Africa, but remains a diverse and complicated industry and needs careful planning, effective management and innovative marketing strategies. Ivanovic (2011:89) argues that the emergence of cultural heritage tourism as 'new type of mass tourism' lacks a comprehensive national strategic focus, an integrated approach to its development, branding as a uniquely South African class of cultural heritage. Historically, South Africa has been somewhat disconnected with much for the rest of the

African continent and some of the government's policy statements seek to address this (Fisher, 2014:4). Fisher (2014:4) justifies this by claiming that it was always unrealistic to expect that the huge inequalities in wealth and opportunity that exist in South Africa could be remedied within 20 years of the end of apartheid and the election of South Africa's first black President. Evidently, from the White Paper on Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa (1996) together with the latest White Paper on Arts, Culture and Heritage (2013), to the establishment of both the new NDT (2010) as well DAC (2010), to the development of NTSS (2011), MGE (2011) and NHCTS (2012) it can be concluded that the government has sought to establish a more effective measures and mechanisms to co-ordinate, enhance and maximise opportunities for South African cultural and heritage to interact with the rest of the world through product development and marketing strategies as well integrated rural tourism development strategy.

Van Zyl (2005) advised that the recognition of these important resources should be followed by strong national policies with appropriate structures to accommodate best practice in the sustainable management thereof.

2.8.5 *Research focus on cultural heritage tourism in South Africa*

A handful of authors emerged as leading authors on South Africa's cultural heritage tourism development. According to Ivanovic (2011:89) this entails only a few research studies that focus on cultural heritage tourism in general or cultural heritage attractions in particular. These studies highlight a limited number of existing works on museums, or other urban attractions such as zoos, cultural villages, townships, cultural heritage routes, arts and cultural festivals, or literary tourism (Ivanovic, 2011:89). Ivanovic (2011:89) argues that these are far from being a true reflection of the enormous potential of the cultural heritage attraction sector in South Africa. Table 1.1 in Chapter 1, provided a summary of some of the studies that have been done on cultural heritage tourism. Their research findings clearly reinforce the perception of cultural heritage tourism as the fasted growing type of tourism and confirmed its potent ability to bring substantial economic benefits to South Africa's cultural heritage products. However, their findings also reveal a lack of the South African government strategic focus regarding cultural heritage tourism. Ivanovic (2011:89) further states that in South Africa it is a marketing and management approach to tourism that currently dominates the tourism discourse.

2.8.6 The Context: Tourism and the Eastern Cape Province

This section will discuss the state of tourism within the Eastern Cape Province

2.8.6.1 Overview of the province

The Eastern Cape Province is situated on the south-eastern corner of South Africa; between latitude 30° S and 34° S, bordered on the north-east by the province of KwaZulu-Natal, the north by the Kingdom of Lesotho and Free State Province, the west by the Northern Cape, the south-west by the Western Cape Province and the east by the Indian Ocean (Acheampong, 2011:49). It is the second largest of South Africa's nine provinces in terms of surface area (Acheampong, 2011:48); and the third most densely-populated province (StatsSA, 2015:2). It is home to 6.7 million people, equivalent to 12.6% of the national population (DEDEAT, 2013:11).

2.8.6.2 Major issues affecting the province

According to the Eastern Cape's Socio Economic Review and Outlook (ECSERO), the Eastern Cape is composed of six District Municipalities and one Metropolitan municipality (DEDEAT, 2011:49). Acheampong (2011:61) and Vice (2013:11) maintain that the province is one of the poorest and least developed provinces in South Africa with very poor record of delivery of municipal services such water, sewerage, sanitation, electricity, housing, roads and many others. High unemployment level and the intolerable degree of poverty constitute the biggest problem in the province (Acheampong, 2011:62). In same vein, Vice (2013:11) continues that the province has the highest proportion of the population living in households that are income and/or materially deprived, as well as the highest rate of employment deprivation, and the second highest proportion of the population experiencing living environment deprivation. Furthermore, the O.R. Tambo District Municipality (under which the administration of the study area falls) is rated the second most deprived local municipality (LM) in the province, hardest hit by poverty at 77,6% (Acheampong, 2011:62; DEDEAT, 2013:12). Moreover, the Eastern Cape is also characterised by an alarmingly high level of unemployment (DEDEAT, 2013:13). In the third quarter of 2012, the rate of unemployment rose to 28.8% (DEDEAT, 2013:13).

2.8.6.3 Snapshot of the tourism industry

According to ECSERO (DEDEAT, 2011:49), foreign tourism market share in the province continues to decline, both in volume and value (refer to Table 2.3). The province enjoys a significant share of domestic tourism, but not of foreign tourism (DEDEAT, 2011:50). An annual comparison of foreign tourist arrivals in the province reveals a huge decline of foreign tourism market share from 2004 to 2013. In 2004, 520 000 foreign tourists visited the province, contributing a share of 7.8% of foreign visitors (SAT, 2006). However, in 2009, the province received only 315 094 foreign tourist arrivals, a share of 4.5% (StatsSA, 2013:24). Currently, the Eastern Cape's tourism industry accounts for some 3.4% of South Africa's tourism market (SAT, 2013:58). About 307 485 foreign tourists visited the Eastern Cape in 2013 (up from 295,709 in 2012), placing the province to be the second least visited tourism destination for international tourists (SAT, 2012:64; 2013:68) (refer to Figure 2.5). Furthermore, even though there has been growth in 2010 when compared to 2009 and also an increase in 2013 when compared to 2012, these growth figures have not equalled the 520 000 foreign arrivals the province boasted in 2004.

Table 2.3: Tourist arrivals in Eastern Cape, 2004-2013

YEAR	NO OF TOURIST ARRIVALS	% GROWTH OR DECLINE
2004	520 000	7.8% ↑
2005	560 000	7.6% ↑
2006	638 000	7.6% ↑
2007	601 634	5.7% ↓
2008	421 290	7.2% ↑
2009	315 094	3.7% ↓
2010	354 947	4.4% ↑
2011	307 658	3.7% ↓
2012	295 709	3.2% ↓
2013	307 485	3.4% ↑

Source: SAT, 2006, 2009, 2010, and 2013

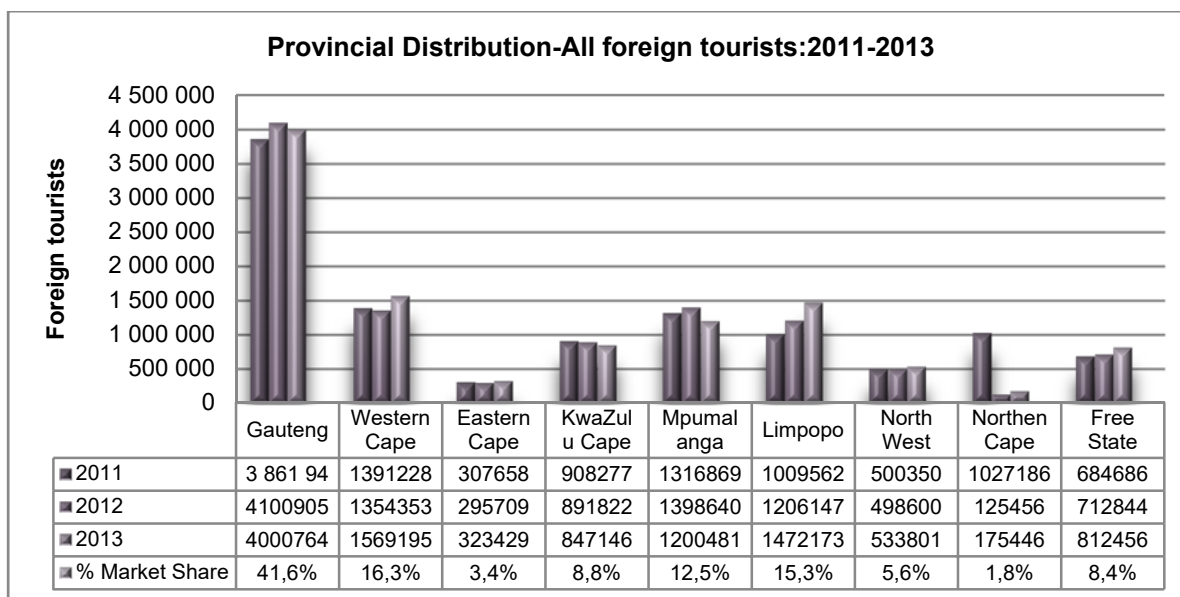


Figure 2.5: Provincial Distribution-All foreign tourists: 2011-2013

Source: SAT, 2013:58

2.8.6.4 Existing cultural heritage products

Tourism in the region can be grouped into two main categories, viz. nature-based tourism, which includes a wide range of wildlife, terrain and coastal activities, and tourism with a historical and cultural focus (DEDEAT, 2011:50). Acheampong (2011:78) agrees by stating that the province is endowed with countless natural attractions and a rich authentic cultural heritage; with the traditional heritage mostly rooted in Xhosa culture (ECTMP, 2009-2014:8). Furthermore, the tourism sector in the province is seen to have potential due to the rich cultural heritage it possesses, the heritage of the province in terms of being the birthplace of struggle heroes (ECTMP, 2009-2014:8). Acheampong (2011:48) concur by noting that part of the heritage of the province is the fact that it is the birthplace of a number of famous political luminaries, including two former Presidents of South Africa, Nelson Mandela and Thabo Mbeki, Govan Mbeki, Steve Biko, to mention just a few.

Tourism has also been responsible for transforming old buildings and abandoned sites into new tourist facilities such as Mandela Museum (Acheampong, 2011:76); which is conceptualised as a single museum with three interrelated components, namely:

- The historic Bhunga Building in Umtata that serves as the exhibition, storage, management and administration centre of the museum.
- The Nelson Mandela Youth and Heritage Centre, a community museum and cultural centre with tourist facilities at Qunu.

- The remains of the Mvezo homestead, where Nelson Mandela was born.

Furthermore, Acheampong (2011:76) allege that there are also other heritage sites such as The Valley of Desolation in Graaff-Reinet, The Owl House in New Bethesda, The Hole-in-the-Wall in Coffee Bay, Donkin Heritage Trail in Port Elizabeth and numerous museums dotted around the province. Acheampong (2011:66) asserts that there are nine tourism routes (regions) in the province, identified by their unique themes to coordinate and promote tourism and then attract investment. The routes are Tsitsikamma Adventure Route; Kouga Region; Sunday's River Valley; the Sunshine Coast; Frontier Country; Karoo Heartland Route; Amathole Mountain Escape; the Friendly N6 and the Wild Coast (Acheampong, 2011:67). The Wild Coast region (under which the administration of the study falls) is described as the "pearl in the great oyster" of the Eastern Cape (Acheampong, 2011:73); with countless natural attractions and a rich authentic cultural heritage; boasting places such as Qunu, being the birthplace of Nelson Mandela. As a result, the Eastern Cape (Mandela Museum, Mthatha), Cape Town (Robben Island), and Gauteng (Soweto Vilakazi Street) are to share the "The Nelson Mandela Freedom Route"; envisaged as the first South African iconic route to stretch from the Robben Island to the Vilakazi Street in Soweto and including the Mandela Museum in Mthatha and the authentic Mandela childhood home in Qunu (Ivanovic, 2011:90).

2.8.6.5 Current state of the existing cultural heritage tourism products

Ivanovic (2011:89) notes that the struggle history presented by township tours, cultural heritage routes, and a number of political cultural heritage sites and museums form part of political cultural heritage tourism currently dominating the cultural heritage tourist consumption in South Africa. However, the province is still facing numerous implications on the development of higher-valued products such as cultural heritage products which are still underrepresented (ECTMP, 2009-2014:22). Despite having such significant cultural, historical and liberation potential, products related thereto are largely undeveloped; and thus still require extensive intervention marketing and information provision (ECTMP, 2009-2014:22). It is further noted by Ivanovic (2011:90) that even the envisaged routes are still in the process of development and are not yet operational or promoted.

It is the purpose of this study to determine respondents' willingness to pay in order to visit NMHS in the Eastern Cape. As previously stated, the Eastern Cape is the birthplace

of the renowned South African icon, Nelson Mandela, who has very special heritage sites such as the Nelson Mandela Museum, which is incorporating Bhunga building, Qunu and Mvezo homestead. This is assumed to bring changes to such communities as they were previously denied resources and facilities to develop their own cultural heritage expressions (DAC, 2013:10). Most importantly, heritage sites such as NMHS are valued as they have a potential for preserving and communicating the country's historic legacy while also being used to generate financial and social benefits using resources within the communities (Khumalo *et al.*, 2014; Nkwanyana, 2012; Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013b).

2.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed cultural heritage tourism in both a global and a South African context. Firstly, based on the existing definitions and literature dealing with cultural heritage and its construction, the notion of cultural heritage was clarified. In this context, the relationship between history and heritage was discussed to identify which part of history is used as heritage to promote destinations. This understanding is important in this study as most of heritage sites in South Africa are associated with human suffering.

Secondly, the types of cultural heritage tourism were discussed. These involve the people who consume cultural heritage tourism product and therefore, their characteristics, needs, expectations are imperative. Also, when cultural heritage tourism product is consumed by cultural heritage tourist at the destination, many benefits of economic, social and environmental occur. These contribute to local economic development. Thirdly, the study debated the concept of the authenticity of cultural heritage tourism products. This debate clustered around the ways in which tourism has impacted on the authenticity of the tourists' experience of places and culture, on the culture of the hosts themselves, on the nature of the host/guest relationship and on the production of cultural objects and events consumed (but not necessarily exclusively) by tourists (Smith & Robinson, 2005:177). Finally, the Eastern Cape Province was discussed in relation to its cultural heritage products. It was found that the province is one of the poorest and least developed provinces in South Africa with high unemployment levels and an intolerable degree of poverty. Furthermore, it was discovered that the Province of the Eastern Cape is endowed with countless and rich authentic cultural heritage treasures such as NMHS which have come to be new tourist facilities. However, these cultural heritage tourism products are largely undeveloped and still facing numerous implications as some (Bhunga Building) are not yet operational or

even promoted. As a result, tourism in the province continues to decline both in volume and value.

CHAPTER 3

VALUING CULTURAL HERITAGE: THE CASE OF NELSON MANDELA'S HERITAGE SITES

“If markets fail to determine the value of heritage goods, the value of cultural heritage has to be established in another way” (Klamer & Zuldhof, 1998:31).

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 outlined the increasing importance of cultural heritage tourism as an engine of growth and development of countries. With its abundance and wealth of cultural heritage related tourism products that are of global significance (NDT, 2010a:25), South Africa has the potential to accelerate growth and development and hence mitigate problems such as high unemployment levels and significant poverty and inequality. Recent studies argue that cultural heritage has the potential to assist government in achieving such macroeconomic goals by means of promoting employment opportunities, generating income and improving the overall livelihoods of the people living near and around cultural heritage sites (Magnussena & Visser, 2003:1; Viljoen & Tlabela, 2006:2; NDT, 2010a:5; Ivanovic, 2011; Tlabela & Munthre, 2012:1; Ramnani, 2012:32; Nkwanyana, 2012; Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013a, 2013b; Khumalo *et al.*, 2014). South Africa needs to properly manage cultural heritage tourism because investing in cultural heritage can generate returns in a form of: social benefits and economic growth (Dumcke & Gneduvsky, 2013:7); job creation (Massyn & Koch, 2004); poverty alleviation (Ndlovu & Rogerson, 2004); LED and urban regeneration (Rogerson, 2002; Rogerson & Visser, 2005; Rogerson, 2009). Many cultural heritage products often include non-market goods such as the historic heritage sites.

This chapter provides a theoretical background on another main component of this study, namely ‘valuing of cultural heritage’. The discussion commences with an overview of what is meant by value in a cultural heritage context. Following this discussion, the rest of Chapter 3 revolves around creating a better understanding of how and why cultural heritage goods are valued and to review the methods that are typically used to determine willingness to pay. A few international case studies are discussed that focus on willingness to pay for cultural heritage in order to determine whether consumers are willing to pay or not for cultural heritage sites.

3.2 VALUATION OF CULTURAL HERITAGE GOODS

According to Moons (2003:11) the conceptual framework for evaluation of 'non-market goods' was developed by Ciriacy-Wantrup (1947) for environmental goods. Applying Ciriacy-Wantrup's framework during the 1950s, the Federal Inter-Agency River Basin Committee, known as the "Green Book", published a report which became a guide for economic valuation of the effects of the river basin projects (Hanemann, 1992:9). According to Hanemann, the Green Book received widespread attention as it recommended the use of market prices or, if not possible, the use of alternative methods such as willingness to pay for a further use of the recreation facilities as developed by Ciriacy-Wantrup (1947). Interest on the valuation methods expanded from water recreation (environmental goods) into other public goods such as cultural goods (Moons, 2003:11; Noonan, 2003:35); playing a central role in research on cultural heritage economics (Throsby, 2001).

In terms of concerns on whether a tool from the environmental arena could be appropriate for the cultural arena, Noonan (2003:35) argued that the environmental goods are similar to cultural goods in the sense that the former is often associated with recreational or "use" values, as well as many important "non-use" values (refer to section 3.3 below). These values include existence value (e.g. people appreciate the Grand Canyon, even if they never intend to visit), option value, and bequest value. Furthermore, Noonan (2003:35) argued that these non-use values are prominent in the cultural arena as well and, therefore, appear to be a natural fit. Furthermore, Throsby (2007b:4) supports Noonan's sentiments by alleging that the reason why the tool is readily applicable to cultural heritage derives from the close parallels between the concepts of natural capital and cultural capital. The former comprises natural resources, natural ecosystems and biodiversity, whilst cultural capital in the economic sense is made up of cultural assets (both tangible and intangible), cultural "ecosystems" or networks, and cultural diversity. Thus techniques for the economic evaluation of benefits generated from natural capital can be transferred directly to cultural capital (Throsby, 2007b:4); as can be seen in the growing number of cultural valuation studies.

A number of researchers began to develop an interest in the economic importance of cultural heritage assets (Throsby, 1984; Hanemann, 1992; Hanemann, 1994; Noonan, 2003; Throsby, 2003; Snowball, 2005; Timothy & Boyd, 2006; Throsby, 2007a, 2007b; O'Brien, 2010; O'Brien 2012; Throsby, 2012); assessing the significance or worth of cultural heritage goods and services (Throsby, 2007b:1). In an effort to capture the

understanding of value for cultural heritage goods, the studies of the above-mentioned authors describe the concept of economic value as measured within the standard economic model, reflecting the worth of the goods when assessed in cultural heritage terms.

3.3 THE CONCEPT OF TOTAL ECONOMIC VALUE (TEV)

According to Allan, Grimes and Kerr (2013:7), the concept of Total Economic Value (TEV), which is widely used in the valuation of the environment (Ciriacy-Wantrup, 1947), is also applied to the valuation of cultural heritage. TEV has been applied to the valuation of cultural heritage sites (Throsby, 2007a, 2007b; Choi *et al.*, 2010; O'Brien, 2010; Carson, Conaway, & Navrud, 2013; Allan *et al.*, 2013). TEV of culture captures values that derive both from market transactions and from non-market sources (Allan *et al.*, 2013:7). The authors further state that TEV captures benefits that accrue directly and indirectly to an individual user of culture and also captures benefits that accrue to individuals (society) by virtue of others (or personal use) of culture. The Allen Consulting Group (2005:5) differentiates between two different categories of values, namely: use values (direct and indirect) and non-use values (option, existence and bequest). These various categories of value can be organised as shown in Figure 3.1.

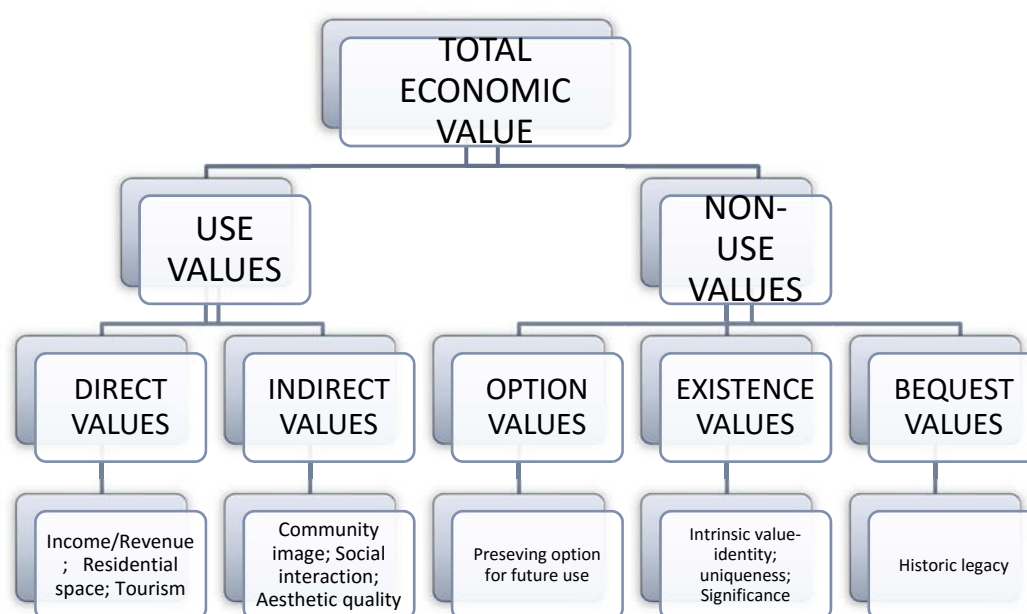


Figure 3.1: Historic heritage: Categories of value

Source: The Allen Consulting Group Research Report 2, 2005:5

As Figure 3.1 shows, TEV can be divided into a number of categories of value. Within the literature, the breakdown and terminology can slightly vary, but generally include (ACG, 2005:5):

- Direct use value;
- Indirect use value; and
- Non-use value.

A summary of the meaning of each component is provided in Table 3.1 based on ACG (2005:5); Throsby (2007b:3); Carson *et al.* (2013:587); Allan *et al.* (2013:9).

Table 3.1: Summary of categories of values

Value type	Value sub-type	Meaning
Use values	Direct-use value	Refers to the utilitarian value that can be derived from cultural heritage. Results from direct use of cultural heritage (e.g. visiting historic sites, buildings, monuments and archaeological sites).
	Indirect-use value	Refers to an additional value that arises in participation in cultural activities, and therefore, espouses educational outcomes, forming part of learning stimulation (e.g. increased academic or general cognitive skills fostered by cultural engagement).
Non-use value	Option value	It refers to the value individuals place on themselves or others having the option to consume and enjoy a cultural good at some point in the future (e.g. the enjoyment you feel from knowing that you are retaining the choice to visit one of the NMHS at some point in the future).
	Existence value	Value related to the satisfaction that individuals derive from the mere knowledge that cultural heritage exists even though they will not consume the good (e.g. the enjoyment you feel from the existence of NMHS because you believe the work it does in preserving our national and cultural heritage is important).
	Bequest value	Value attached by individuals because they wish to pass on heritage assets to future generations.

Quite apart from the above-mentioned, Throsby (2007b) introduced a new concept of using TEV for cultural heritage, making several adjustments (refer to Figure 3.2). According to Throsby (2007b:3) the categories into which the value of cultural heritage can be classified in these terms are still use value and non-use value. The author points out that direct consumption or interaction with heritage is direct use value. In this, direct use of cultural heritage increases tourists visiting the heritage site and therefore, the suitable value can be estimated, for an example, in the form of entrance fees (Throsby, 2007b:3). However, Throsby (2007b:3) claims that direct use values are rather high, due to common heritage properties being approached by individuals who appreciate their services and are willing to pay for an agreed price in any different form. In contrast with this, the latter non-use values extend beyond country borders (Throsby, 2007b:3), seemingly becoming to be the most appropriate in terms of their capability of capturing the potentially largest benefit component (Carson *et al.*, 2013:586). Hence, measurements of non-use values focuses on capturing benefits such as importance people attach to the existence of heritage, even if it is not of subject of direct interest to them (O'Brien, 2010:23). As a result, Throsby (2007b:3) concludes that non-use values have been found to make up a significant portion of the TEV of cultural heritage.

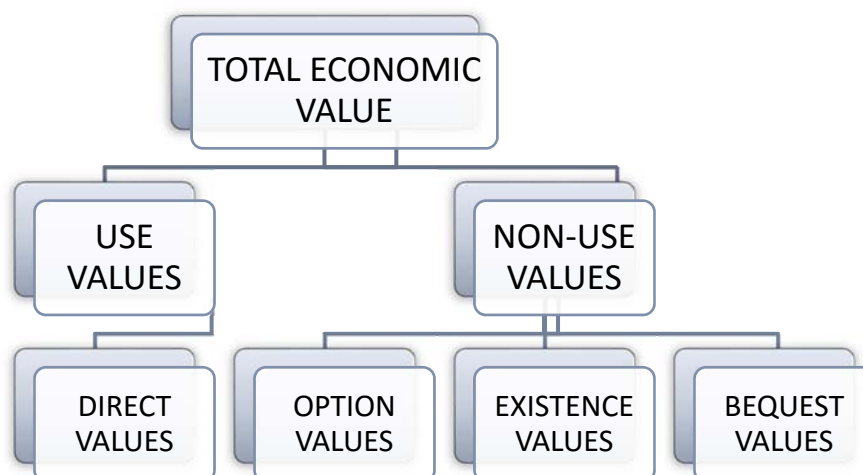


Figure 3.2: Concept of Total Economic Value for a cultural heritage site

Source: Throsby, 2007b, modified

3.4 MEASUREMENT OF ECONOMIC VALUE IN CULTURAL HERITAGE

As discussed by O'Brien (2010:22), the issues associated with valuation of cultural heritage goods and services lead to the necessity of finding methods which can value cultural heritage in the economic terms. According to the author, these methods are shown to have a range of positive aspects, particularly in economic terms where there is

no market price for goods. In same vein, Baez-Montenegro *et al.* (2012:236) argue that the number of studies exploring the valuation of cultural heritage goods and services has grown significantly in recent years; with debate surrounding the use of adequate methods (Choi *et al.*, 2010:213). Therefore, economic valuation of cultural heritage goods requires effective assessment methods because from a tourism management perspective the choice of a nonmarket valuation method may affect the results and the relevance of the results, as well as the costs of the valuation (Armbrecht, 2014:141). In this regard, economists have developed a range of these methods to understand economic value in cultural heritage settings. They are referred to as non-market valuation techniques and are used to measure willingness to pay for cultural heritage assets. In their study, Bateman *et al.* (2002:30) maintain that there are two methods of assessing willingness to pay for cultural heritage assets within the cultural heritage discipline (Figure 3.3), namely, revealed preference technique and stated preference technique. These preference techniques are discussed next.

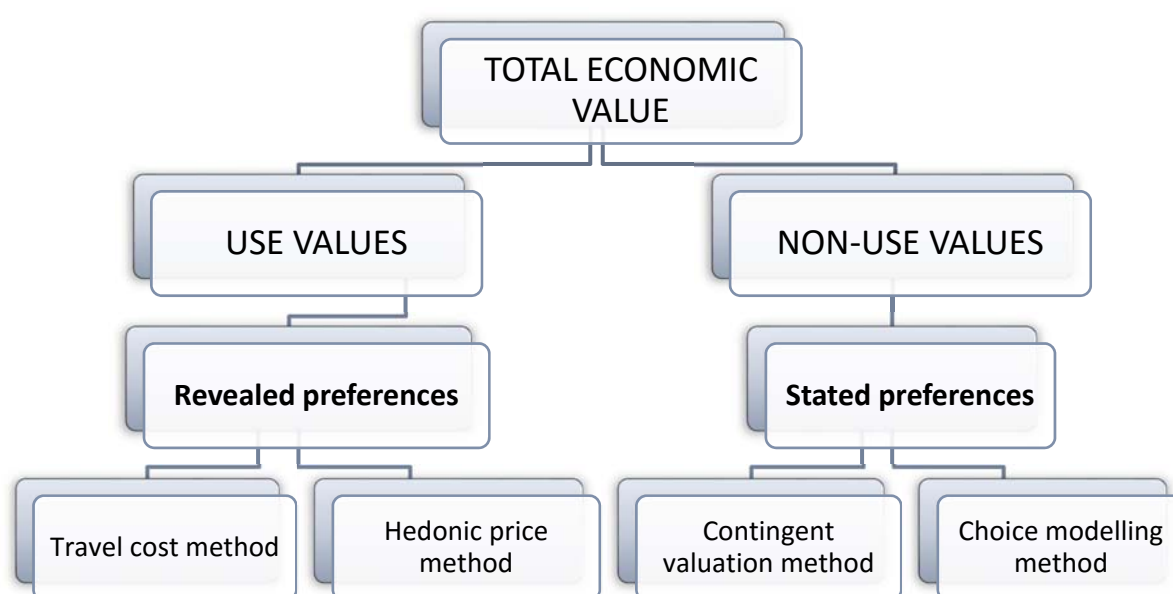


Figure 3.3: Economic Valuation Technique
Source: Bateman *et al.*, 2002, modified

3.4.1 Revealed preference techniques

According to O'Brien (2010:23) revealed preference techniques are used as an approach to capture preference-based valuations based on what people actually do in real markets. They assess the value through actual behaviour, such as the cost of travelling (Armbrecht, 2014:141). The revealed preference techniques can be split into two categories, Travel Cost

Method (TCM) and Hedonic Pricing Methods (HPM) (O'Brien, 2010:23; Armbrecht, 2014:141). Each technique is discussed below.

3.4.1.1 Travel Cost Method (TCM)

According to Bedate, Herrero and Sanz (2004:102) "One way to solve the problem of calculating the value an individual places on a given attraction—irrespective of its nature and regardless of whether an entry fee is charged—is by attributing the cost of travel from the visitor's point of origin to the site". This method is viewed by O'Brien (2010:30) as the main revealed preference method based on the assumption of value people attach to a given good or service which can be revealed by an analysis of their preferences. The travel cost method uses the amount of effort expended in travelling to a site to estimate the value that visitors place on the particular non-market good (Allan *et al.*, 2013:26). The authors further state that the total price of visiting a site is the travel cost plus any admission fee, if one is charged. Moreover, for individuals who live close to the site the value to them from the visit is greater than any fee. However, for individuals who live further from the site, this entails spending more on travel costs in order to visit the site, so revealing that they have higher values. Therefore, O'Brien (2010:30) add that the market behaviour is the amount of time people are willing to spend travelling to consume a good or service. Presumably, a price paid to access a cultural institution increases with increasing distance (Armbrecht, 2014:142). Thus, monetary values can be inferred based on an agreed cost (O'Brien, 2010:30). In addition, Allan *et al.* (2013:27) point that, assuming that those who live further away are similar to those who live close to the site in other ways; their visits show that some people value the site more than the admission price. Furthermore, they conclude that the rate at which the proportion of people who visit falls off with distance can be used to calculate the fraction of the overall population that is likely to put high values on the visit.

Bedate *et al.* (2004:103) pointed out some of the practical problems, which arise when using the travel cost method to make empirical estimates. For instance, the demand to visit a given site depends not merely on the distance from the point of origin, but also on budget and time constraints. These, in turn, are related to an individual's employment conditions. Additionally, difficulties arise in assigning costs to multiple sites visited on the same trip. This is exemplified using the study of Armbrecht (2014) who conducted a study of use of value of cultural experiences, comparing contingent valuation method with travel cost method in Box 2.

Box 2: Use of value of cultural experiences: A comparison of contingent valuation and travel cost.

The study of Armbrrecht (2014) made a comparison in respect of TCM and CVM. The study applied the TCM and CVM to assess the value of two rural cultural institutions in order to compare the results of the valuation methods. Two separate samples were used, one for each cultural institution. Also, questions were divided into willingness to pay and travel cost. With the former, the respondents were asked the maximum amount they would be willing to pay for the experience at the performance/exhibition that would make them think they got value for their money. Secondly, they were asked the maximum amount they would be willing to pay for the whole experience that made them think they got value for their money. For the latter, the respondents had to state their mode of transport used to get into the destination and the mode used within the destination. In this respect, the return travel distance, travel time and cost were calculated. Also, a concern was on the number of visits and was calculated as visits per year and this allowed for the calculation of travel costs per person. However, they had to state whether their visit was the primary reason for visiting the cultural institution.

The results revealed that visitor experiences consist of a core cultural experience as well as other valuable experiences before and after. In this regard, CVM was appropriate as it allows for a valuation of the core cultural experience separately from other experiences, whereas the TCM is limited to an overall assessment. The TCM was viewed as inappropriate measure of the value of the cultural experiences when the total experience includes several other experiences.

In conclusion, the author argued that if visitors travel for the sake of only one cultural experience, TCM may be preferable due to its simple applicability and cost efficiency. If, however, as is most cases, a cultural experience is part of a bundle of experiences, the application of CVM is recommendable. This is also the case, if only visitors who state the cultural experience to be the primary reason for travelling are included.

Source: Armbrrecht (2014)

3.4.1.2 Hedonic Pricing Method (HPM)

The hedonic method is used to estimate economic values of goods for cultural heritage that directly affect market prices (Lazrak, Kamp, Rietveld & Rouwendal, 2011:3). According to the authors, it is most commonly applied to variations in housing prices that

reflect the value of local cultural heritage attributes and can be used to estimate economic benefits or costs associated with listed heritage, including urban monuments and historic cultural heritage sites. This method assumes that households “migrate into or out of geographic regions based on trade-offs between quality of life in those regions and differences in housing prices” (Ready, Berger & Blomquist, 1997:439).

According to Lazrak *et al.* (2011:2) the basic premise is that the price of a marketed good (e.g. Monument) is related to its characteristics, or the services it provides. Furthermore, it presupposes that goods and services are defined by the attributes embodied in them, and the values of these goods and services are the sum of the values of the attributes which they contain. When goods or services contain a cultural heritage characteristic, the authors allege that the market value of the cultural heritage characteristic is “embedded” in the market price of the good or service which contains the characteristic. These authors go on to note that the hedonic pricing approach commonly uses differentials in property values (property value approach) and wages (wage differential approach) between locations, and isolates the proportion of this difference, which may be attributed to cultural goods and services. In this regard, property, land prices and wages are used to place implicit values on cultural heritage factors that are otherwise difficult to value. For example, differences in property values are used to estimate people’s WTP to be near a cultural heritage good (such as a historic cultural heritage site and monuments etc.). An example of a study of the hedonic price method is shown in Box 3.

Box 3: The market value of listed heritage: An urban economic application of spatial hedonic pricing.

The study used hedonic pricing method to determine the market value of listed heritage in the urban region Zaanstad. In this study the value of monument status as a public amenity was measured. The study was based on two hypotheses, namely, 1) monuments gain a premium over non-monuments and 2) monuments generate positive spill-over effects (such as positive externalities, to real estate located in their vicinity). To test these hypotheses, the researchers conducted an ordinary hedonic regression. In this, monuments gained a premium over non-monuments of 23.8 per cent, with houses sold within a protected historic landscape receiving a 26.4 per cent premium. The researchers concluded that the results indicate that there exists a strong historic ensemble effect and that monuments are valued when they are clustered within an ensemble with historic ambience.

Source: Lazrak et al. (2011:15)

It is, however, noted by Lazrak *et al.* (2011:4) that hedonic pricing studies struggle with the problem of a limited number of observations and limited information about housing and neighbourhood characteristics. Allan *et al.* (2013:27) agree with Lazrak *et al.* (2011) by adding that a key issue with revealed preference techniques, as applied to the cultural sector, is that they estimate only the non-market use values of a particular cultural good. Thus, non-use values and externalities, which are important sources of value in the cultural sector, are omitted. Therefore, it is generally recognized that only stated preference methods are applicable to the estimation of passive use value (Carson, Mitchell, Hanemann, Kopp, Presser & Ruud, 2003:258). In this case, this may be one of the reasons why stated preference studies have been more popular than revealed preference studies (see, for instance, the examples of the studies on WTP used in this study in section 3.5 below).

It should be noted that this study does not follow on the revealed preference techniques, however, it is rooted in and follows Throsby's (2007b) new concept of using TEV in cultural heritage economics as already discussed in section 3.2.2 above and the references therein.

3.4.2 Stated preference techniques

Stated preferences which are hypothetical in nature (Armbrecht, 2014:141; Choi *et al.*, 2010:213; Baez-Montenegro *et al.*, 2012:236), are used to capture the users and non-users valuation of cultural heritage and comprise two forms: 1) Choice Modelling (CM) method and 2) Contingent Valuation Method (CVM) (O'Brien, 2010:23). Respondents are asked to directly state how much they are willing to pay (or accept) for the given good (through CVM) or to choose the preferred option among a given set of choices (through CM) (Choi *et al.*, 2010:214). Stated preference techniques aim to capture the non-use values of goods or services by asking people to state their preferences within a hypothetical market for these goods or services (O'Brien, 2010:23). To delve more deeply into this, Carson, Flores and Mitchell (1999:100) argued that non-use values are those portions of total economic value (measured by WTP or WTA) that are unobtainable using indirect measurement techniques which rely on observed market behaviour. Thus, while revealed preference techniques like TCM and HPM captures the nonmarket value of the good to users, this does not include people who, for whatever reason, might be non-users, but still willing to pay to preserve or support the public good (Snowball, 2005:103). In this instance, the author notes that non-use values require no direct involvement of the user with the good at all; and as a result, economists are fond of

referring to non-use values as those that leaves no behavioural trace (Carson *et al.*, 2003:258). In this regard, state preference techniques represent a number of methods that can be used to estimate WTP of WTA functions (Snowball, 2005:103) and are discussed below.

3.4.2.1 Choice Modelling (CM)

Pioneered by Louviere and Hensher (1982) and Louviere and Woodworth (1983), Choice Modelling (CM) has emerged as an alternative method of other valuation techniques (Choi *et al.*, 2010:215; Hanley *et al.*, 2001:436; O'Brien, 2010:28; Snowball, 2008); designed to address the limitations of CVM and to improve the behavioural congruity of valuation models (Choi *et al.*, 2010:215). According to Kaminski, McLoughlin and Sodagar (2007) this method is the most recent innovation in valuation techniques and few applications have been made to the valuation of heritage sites or their services.

According to O'Brien (2010:28) CM has recently been used in research by the University of Newcastle to value a variety of cultural and heritage goods, including museum and gallery layout (Kinghorn & Willis, 2007), cultural capital generated by museums and galleries (Kinghorn & Willis, 2008), and Hadrian's Wall (Willis, 2009). O'Brien (2010: 28) mentions that it has also been used to make policy recommendations to the British Museum (Aposolakis & Jaffry, 2010).

In a CM study a good is viewed as being a bundle of component attributes and their levels (Choi *et al.*, 2010:15). Respondents are presented with various alternative descriptions of a good, differentiated by their attributes and levels, and are asked their various alternatives, to rate them or to choose their most preferred (Hanley *et al.*, 2001:426). For an example, a series of questions called 'choice sets' can be presented to survey respondents. For each question, respondents could be asked to choose one preferred option from several alternatives. One of the choice options is usually given as a 'status quo' or 'no action' policy, whilst other 'change' options are designed using variations in the levels taken of constituent 'characteristics' or 'attributes' (Choi *et al.*, 2010:215). One attribute typically represents a monetary variable (known as 'payment vehicle'), which enables the derivation of implicit prices (Choi *et al.*, 2010:215).

However, the method is still subject to the same philosophical objections as contingent valuation and has similar constraints, due to the cost and expertise needed to apply the method correctly (O'Brien, 2010:28). This has led Choi *et al.* (2010) to suggest similar cautionary notes as those applied to contingent valuation, whilst suggesting the use of

the method when seeking to value specific characteristics of a good or service. The study of Choi *et al.* (2010) is summarised in Box 4.

Box 4: Economic valuation of cultural heritage sites: A choice modelling approach

In their study, Choi *et al.* (2010) estimated the economic values of the diverse attributes of a cultural heritage site, Old Parliament House in Canberra, Australia. The study sought to value marginal changes in several attributes of this site. A choice modelling study was implemented and the collected data were analysed using a mixed logit model. The study revealed that respondents prefer to have longer lasting (less frequent) temporary exhibitions, various events, and the facilities currently available. The overall preferences of respondents proved not significantly influenced by the amount of replicated items (for visitors' touching), the presence/absence of the gallery, the provision of audio-visual effects for more effective displays, and making all exhibitions traveling across the country.

Also, the study showed that people are only sensitive to major changes such as in-house exhibitions, events, and facilities, while not much so to other quality changes such as replicated items, a high level of interpretation, and out-of-house exhibitions. Above all, when their aggregate values nationwide (welfare effects) were considered, the currently available services and facilities generated a total economic value of AU\$224.0 million annually. This aggregate value consisted of AU\$136.4 million from temporary exhibitions that are organized every eight months; AU\$21.8 million from various weekly events such as special tours, lunch talks with special guests, kids' activities, and concerts; and AU\$65.8 million from facilities such as shop and cafe', fine dining and conference rooms.

Choi *et al.* concluded that CM as a valuation method, although subject to some of the limitations of CVM, is likely to be less prone to other potential weaknesses. For instance, choosing a preferred option from among several is likely to be less vulnerable to hypothetical bias because such a choice process has a greater semblance to real market actions, where consumer preferences are normally expressed as choices rather than direct payment arguments.

Source: Choi et al. (2010:213-219)

3.4.2.2 Contingent Valuation Method (CVM)

This sub-section discusses Contingent Valuation Method (CVM) and is divided into two parts. Firstly, the contingent valuation method is outlined and its use and recent context discussed. Secondly, some of the major criticisms and defences of the method are considered.

i. Use and context of CVM

Pioneered by Throsby and Withers (1985) in the field of cultural heritage goods, CVM is a preferred method in cultural settings (Armbrecht, 2014; Baez & Herrero, 2012; Baez-Montenegro *et al.*, 2012; Dutta *et al.*, 2007; Kim *et al.*, 2007; Salazar & Marques, 2005; Noonan, 2003), historic sites (Abuamoud, Libbin, Green & ALRousan, 2014; Bedate *et al.*, 2004; Salazar & Marques, 2005; and Tuan *et al.*, 2009), monuments and landmarks (Bedate *et al.*, 2004; Salazar & Marques, 2005), world heritage sites (Tuan & Navrud, 2008; Kim *et al.*, 2007), festivals (Armbrecht, 2014; Bedate *et al.*, 2004; Snowball, 2005; Tuan *et al.*, 2009) and above all museums (Armbrecht, 2014; Bedate *et al.*, 2004; Tohmo, 2004).

Carson *et al.* (2003:258) mention that research by Hanemann (1994) and Bateman *et al.* (2002) speaks of CVM as a survey approach designed to create the missing market for public goods by determining what people would be willing to pay (WTP) for specified changes in the quantity or quality of such goods or, more rarely, what they would be willing to accept (WTA) in compensation for well-specified degradations in the provision of these goods. Hence the goal of CVM is to posit a hypothetical market in which interviewees may state their maximum WTP for a variation in the quantity or quality of a good through a survey (Baez-Montenegro, 2012:237). This survey assesses individuals' willingness to pay (WTP) for a specific scenario (Armbrecht, 2014:142; Choi *et al.*, 2010:214; Noonan, 2003). According to Carson *et al.* (2003:258) the popular name for this form of non-market valuation arose because the elicited values are contingent upon the particular scenario described to survey respondents. According to Armbrecht (2014:142) there are several variations that are employed in CVM to elicit WTP information including, open-ended questions and dichotomous choice. Open-ended questions give respondents an opportunity to state their maximum willingness-to-pay amount freely, while dichotomous choice offers respondents with predefined bids which the respondent may accept or reject (Armbrecht, 2014:142). Noonan (2003:2) maintains that there are many guides to designing quality CVM surveys, one excellent resource being the study of Mitchell and Carson (1989).

ii. Major criticism and defences

Although CVM has recently been used as it proves effective in assessing values in many disciplines; the technique is the subject of great controversies (Arrow *et al.*, 1993:5) and critics especially among economists (Noonan, 2003:3). Choi *et al.* (2010:214) and Noonan (2003:2) feel that economists point out numerous flaws in the method that make the results biased and unreliable. They argue that survey data are inherently flawed measures of what people value, meaning, examining how individuals make real (not hypothetical) choices. Its detractors argue that respondents give answers that are inconsistent with the tenets of rational choice, that these respondents do not understand what it is they are being asked to value (Arrow *et al.*, 1993:5). Furthermore, Noonan (2003:5) states that other problems result from respondents biasing their answers to impress the interviewer or to save time and energy in answering the questionnaire. Choi *et al.* (2010:214) and Arrow *et al.* (1993:8) add that estimates include an unreal/hypothetical scenario setting in which respondents may overstate or understate their true preferences. Lastly, other problems in CVM estimates are caused by poor designs and administrations for many cultural valuation studies (Choi *et al.*, 2010:214).

In exploring both the biases and reliability of CVM, Noonan (2003:4) explains that academics (Hanemann, 1992, 1994) have produced a voluminous literature over the past several decades contributing to a wealth of knowledge about proper CVM survey designs. As a result, CVM as a valuation method was endorsed and accepted by the Blue Ribbon panel of experts set up by National Oceanographic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) (Arrow *et al.*, 1993:43). The report also spells out a set of rigorous guidelines according to which such surveys should be undertaken (Arrow *et al.*, 1993:32). This led to the increasing adoption of this method in various fields, and despite all its limitations, it remains the best method to aggregate preferences for cultural resources (Dutta *et al.*, 2007:85). In a similar vein, Hanley *et al.* (2001:435) emphasise that CVM has managed to gain acceptance and amongst both academics and policy makers as a versatile and powerful methodology in economic valuation studies. Furthermore, Snowball (2005:109) state that the studies of both Carson and Mitchell (1993) and Hanemann (1994) emphasise that careful questionnaire design, incorporating, for example, internal consistency checks, scope tests, a good debriefing section and a carefully explained scenario seem to go some way towards alleviating in CVM studies. Research by Carson and Mitchell (1993:1267) concluded that it is the quality of the response to a WTP question that will determine the accuracy of the study.

This is determined, in their view, by the survey design and administration or content validity:

Respondents must (i) clearly understand the characteristics of the good they are being asked to value; (ii) find the CV scenario elements related to the good's provision plausible; and (iii) answer the CV questions in a deliberate and meaningful manner (Carson & Mitchell, 1993:1267).

As a conclusion, CVM is the most appropriate for this study because assessing cultural heritage value of the site naturally involves measurements of its passive-use values. Additionally, this will allow the researcher an opportunity to directly ask the people in a survey about their willingness to pay for Nelson Mandela's heritage sites. As Noonan (2003:2) has highlighted that of the 5,000 CVM studies produced thus far, most of them have studied environmental issues and less than 2% have addressed cultural resources. This study will greatly contribute to body literature that applies CVM in South African cultural heritage.

3.5 WILLINGNESS TO PAY CASE STUDIES IN CULTURAL HERITAGE TOURISM

In this section the researcher examines various case studies conducted on cultural heritage sites in order to better understand peoples' willingness to pay for such sites.

3.5.1 A case study in Valdivia, Chile

The study of Baez-Montenegro *et al.* (2012:237) consisted of an economic valuation exercise for the cultural heritage of the Commune of Valdivia, Chile, an emblematic historical ensemble and major cultural enclave in the country. The study specifically pursued three aims: firstly it estimated residents' willingness to pay for cultural heritage; secondly, it ascertained variables that condition this willingness to pay, and finally conducted a segmentation to establish whether any differences exist in the willingness to pay amongst the various population groups. The study applied the CVM, which has become the main tool for economic valuation of non-market goods (Baez-Montenegro *et al.*, 2012:239).

To conduct the valuation exercise, Baez-Montenegro *et al.* (2012:240) designed a hypothetical scenario stressing the dispersed nature of the heritage to be evaluated and highlighting the need for conservation thereof. The survey was aimed at residents, as they are viewed to be the most interested and directly involved in protecting the historical

ensemble (Baez-Montenegro *et al.*, 2012:240). Additionally, the use of residents in this study was based on the assumption that the historical ensemble might prove to be an important tourist attraction and landmark for the city. To apply CVM to the case study, Baez-Montenegro *et al.* (2012:240) designed a survey to gather relevant personal information from each interviewee concerning their cultural consumption and understanding of the good to be valued, namely Valdivia's historical heritage, in addition to their willingness to pay for a hypothetical market created for the purpose.

The questionnaire was structured in three parts: the first addressed the interviewees' link to culture and tourism together with their awareness and consumption of the object studied, (Baez-Montenegro *et al.*, 2012:241). The second part focused on the monetary valuation of the object by positing the contingent valuation question and payment vehicle (Baez-Montenegro *et al.*, 2012: 241). A follow-up question was also included concerning the certainty with which interviewees responded to the valuation question (Baez-Montenegro *et al.*, (2012:241). Finally, the third part of the interview sought to ascertain interviewees' socioeconomic profile (Baez-Montenegro *et al.*, 2012:241).

The outcomes that emerged from the study (Table 3.2) revealed that 11.3% of those interviewed stated that they were linked in some way to a cultural organisation (Baez-Montenegro *et al.*, 2012:244). On the other hand, Table 3.3 illustrates the overall WTP estimation for residents together with the corresponding confidence interval, reflecting a positive WTP which comes to 16,432 pesos (\$27.4) per person per year (Baez-Montenegro *et al.*, 2012:247). The study showed the least amount of 15, 314 pesos that residents would be willing to pay valued at \$25.5 and a higher amount of 17,919 pesos valued at \$29.9. In South African forex terms, the exchange rate for 1USD in 2012 was R8.65 (Ferreira *et al.*, 2013:194). This means that the WTP for one person for an ensemble historical heritage in Valdivia, Chile was R237.00 in South African monetary terms. This finding is quite notable within the context of Chile, and highlights how strong local residents' desire is to restore their urban cultural heritage (Baez-Montenegro *et al.*, 2012:247).

Table: 3.2 Descriptive statistics of socio-economic variables

Variable	Category	Codification	Percentage or average
Cultural organisation	A member	1	11.3%
	Not a member	0	88.7%

Source: *Baez-Montenegro et al., 2012:245*

Table: 3.3 Mean WTP and confidence interval (euros-dollars). Estimations per person WTP, lower limit and upper limit

	WTP	Lower limit	Upper limit
Mean	16,432 (21.9-27.4)	15,314 (20.4-25.5)	17,919 (23.9-29.9)

Source: Baez-Montenegro et al., 2012:247

3.5.2 A contingent valuation study of Prinsep Ghat, Calcutta

The objective of the study conducted by Dutta *et al.* (2007:13) was to estimate the TEV for Prinsep Ghat in Calcutta, India in order to explore the possibility of urban regeneration via development of heritage tourism in a commercial basis around this site. The data for this study were obtained through a survey that employed face-to-face interviews which began in August 2002 and continued up to January 2003 (Dutta *et al.*, 2007:86). The method used in this study was the CVM. The respondents were briefed about the history of the site and on the recent Government step undertaken by the Government to restore it (Dutta *et al.*, 2007:87). Afterwards, a hypothetical scheme was presented before the respondents and it was described how the Government was planning to promote the tourism potential of the site by beautifying the riverside, introducing boating facilities and river based recreational activities, setting up theme restaurants and retail outlets selling artefacts would generate recreational value, income and employment opportunities (Dutta *et al.*, 2007:87). Respondents were then alerted that, in view of scarcity of funds, the Government was proposing to raise funds directly from the public. They were then asked to state their maximum WTP for this programme (Dutta *et al.*, 2007:87).

The survey revealed that both recreational and commercial use values are significant (Dutta *et al.*, 2007:87). Many of the respondents believed that the spot could be developed as a tourist attraction with theme restaurants and outlets selling artefacts with historical associations. Even peddlers responded positively to such ideas as they realized that this would generate employment and income. The results also showed the presence of a substantial untapped demand for the site that could be utilized by suitable marketing of the site without affecting its historic appeal (Dutta *et al.*, 2007:83).

3.5.3 A case of Changdeok Palace

Kim *et al.* (2007) did a study on the willingness to pay for assessing the economic value of a world heritage site in Seoul, Korea. The main objective of the study was to

investigate use value of the World Cultural Heritage through the CVM (Kim *et al.*, 2007:318). The secondary objective of the study was to: 1) to compare the results of both log-linear and log-logit valuation models from the dichotomous choice system; 2) identify and compare the WTP determinants from the dichotomous model (Kim *et al.*, 2007:318). CVM survey was compiled and distributed amongst the visitors that visited the Changdeok Palace site from 17 October 2005 to 31 October 2005 (Kim *et al.*, 2007:319). The type of question used was closed-ended (dichotomous choice). A pre-test on 50 Korean adult visitors was conducted in order to decide on the price bid (Kim *et al.*, 2007:318). Based on the results of the pre-test, price offers were divided into ten categories (Kim *et al.*, 2007:319).

Based on this study, the number of visitors in Changdeok Palace during the period of October 2005 was 685,694 including foreign visitors of 443,772 (Kim *et al.*, 2007:321). The mean WTP values were 5707 Won (\$5.70) in a log-linear model and 6005 Won (\$6.00) in an log-logit model. In this study, aggregate use value from the log-linear model was estimated at approximately 1,93 million, while aggregation use value for the log-logit model was estimated at 2,01 million dollars (Kim *et al.*, 2007:321). Kim *et al.* (2007:321) reveal that the mean values from the two logit models were about 2,5 times higher than current admission prices. This implied that respondents were willing to pay at least twice as much as the current price to visit the heritage site which was 2300 Won (\$2,30) (Kim *et al.*, 2007:321).

3.5.4 The social benefits of restoring an old Arab tower

A study done by Salazar and Marques (2005) aimed to ascertain people's willingness to pay for the restoration of Pirate's Tower, an old tower in the Valencia region, Spain. In order to achieve their objective, Salazar and Marques (2005:69) carried out a total of 252 face-to-face interviews during the summer of 2002 among the citizens of Godella. By gathering this information directly from the people, Salazar and Marques (2005:69) intended to estimate the existing value of this monument, given that at during the period of conducting the study the tower was is in a complete state of ruin. In this respect, a CVM was conducted to determine the extent to which people would support the restoration of the tower in an attempt to recover the historical patrimony of the town (Salazar & Marques, 2005:70).

Habitants from Godella were personally interviewed in their homes following random routes in the summer of 2002 (Salazar & Marques, 2005:70). The questionnaire in this study was divided into three sections. The first section contained questions relating to

the knowledge and attitudes of the respondents towards cultural heritage protection in general. The second section focused on valuation questions. The survey concluded with demographic and economic questions about the respondents and their households.

In conducting the study, Salazar and Marques (2005:76) distinguished between low, average, and high consumers of cultural goods in Valencia region. The study revealed that the social benefits generated by the restoration of the Pirate's Tower ranges from a minimum value of 395,642 € depending whether the mean WTP considered is 52, 95 € or 59, 30 € (Salazar & Marques, 2005:75). Salazar and Marques (2005:75) assert that this figure is considerably lower than the social benefits estimated by the CVM approach. Therefore, the restoration of the Pirate's Tower appeared to be more desirable for both the local authorities and their constituents as the benefits received by the population considered clearly exceeded the costs to be borne by them (Salazar & Marques, 2005:75).

3.5.5 Comparing cultural heritage values in Southeast Asia: Possibilities and difficulties in cross-country transfers of economic values

The aim of the study done by Tuan *et al.* (2009) was to compare the results of two contingent valuation (CV) studies involving historic temples in Thailand and Vietnam. Also, Tuan *et al.* (2009:10) aimed at testing the validity and reliability of benefit transfers between the two sites, and discuss the possibilities and difficulties in such transfers of values.

Two CV surveys were conducted to estimate the economic benefits of preserving and restoring historic temple sites in Thailand and Vietnam, respectively. These two surveys had many similar design features, including asking the same attitudinal questions and using the same valuation scenario description (Tuan *et al.*, 2009:11).

In Thailand, the study focused on the historic temples in the Bangkok Metropolitan Area (BMA) of Thailand, divided into 48 strata (Tuan *et al.*, 2009:11). The Thailand survey was conducted from January to February 2005 in a form of in-person administered interviews. (Tuan *et al.*, 2009:11). 520 respondents were interviewed, with 280 households asked about their willingness to pay for ten temples, whilst 240 households were asked for their willingness to pay for two temples. Half of the respondents in each of these two groups were asked if they would pay a one-time surcharge on their income tax, and the other half, a one-time donation to a trust fund (Tuan *et al.*, 2009:11).

The results showed that the survey did pass the scope test, indicating that the respondents would be willing to pay more for a greater number of temples (Tuan *et al.*, 2009:11). Meanwhile, the payment vehicle test showed that there was no significant difference in WTP between the two modes of payment, indicating that it did not matter if the payment vehicle was in the form of income tax or a donation (Tuan *et al.*, 2009:11). Tuan *et al.* (2009:11) pooled the data of the two sub-samples when calculating the mean WTPs, which were approximately 204 Baht² (US\$5.09) and 251 Baht (US\$6.27) for two and ten temples, respectively.

The Vietnam survey was designed to estimate the economic benefits of preserving temples at My Son, a UNESCO world heritage site, located in Quangnam Province in the central region of Vietnam (Tuan *et al.*, 2009:12). Tuan *et al.* (2009:12) state that this is a large complex of religious temples, originally consisting of more than 70 temples of which only 25 remain. The Vietnam survey was conducted in August 2005 in a form of in-person administered interviews (Tuan *et al.*, 2009:12). Out of 250 households, 241 respondents were interviewed with nine respondents refusing the interview (Tuan *et al.*, 2009:12). On the basis of the questioning procedure similar to that of Thailand, the mean WTP for preserving the My Son temples was found to be 43,495 VND⁵ (US\$2.74).

3.6 WILLINGNESS TO PAY IN CULTURAL HERITAGE TOURISM: THE CASE OF SOUTH AFRICA

Limited studies using the CV method as an approach have been published in a variety of fields in South Africa. The assessments on CVM have been carried out in settings such as conservation (Nikodinoska, Foxcroft, Rouget, Paletto & Notaro, 2014), ecotourism (Dumalisile, Somers, Walters & Nel, 2005; Van Der Merwe & Saayman, 2003), wildlife (Saayman, Van Tonder, & Krugell, 2013; Van Tonder, 2012), climate change (Fourie, 2011; Krugell & Saayman, 2013), marine tourism (Saayman, 2013), and airlines (Hlekane, 2009). For the cultural heritage arena, there is a minimal amount of academic literature that exists on aspect of willingness to pay for cultural heritage goods. These studies have specifically focused on willingness to pay for cultural events, with specific reference to South African National Arts Festivals (Snowball, 2005; Saayman & Rossouw, 2011). According to Snowball (2005:111) it was not until 2001 that a study on willingness to pay for arts festivals was conducted in South Africa.

Snowball (2005:107) argues that it is culture that underlies economic development and that “strategies to alleviate poverty in the Third World and to promote economic advancement will need to have regard for the process of cultural change which may be

critical in determining their success or failure”. Bedate *et al.* (2004:102) add by stating that culture (as well as related activities) not only creates significant economic flows, but may also be used as a means of transforming certain geographic areas, and therefore, forms part of many local and regional economic development strategies. This, subsequently, gives rise to the need for increasing the budget to meet the stronger demand and expected (change in) service standards on how to preserve cultural heritage sites. For South Africa, the government has already targeted several iconic routes as potential tourism attractions and for local community development (Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013a:139). However, the focus on the importance of the distinctive cultural heritage characteristics of each region and how to maximise the benefits of the unique characteristics of each region area has not been fully realised in South Africa. As a result, the South African government is failing to turn cultural heritage products into meaningful tourist experiences (Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013b:172). This may be due to lack of knowledge and research on attributes that serve as driving force for South African cultural heritage tourists. Cultural heritage attributes play an important role in the decisions that tourist make (Abuamoud *et al.*, 2014:155). This entails an in-depth study on several attributes that influence tourists’ behaviour, including, cultural heritage facilities and services so as to give a guideline on what influences tourists to be willing to pay for cultural heritage goods. Therefore, in South Africa, the divide of wealth and past imbalances along racial lines (as discussed in chapter 2) makes the detection and economic valuation of positive externalities provided by the cultural heritage, particularly to the poorly disadvantaged communities, a very important justification for their public support.

To address this in extant research, this study attempts to determine the willingness pay of visitors to the NMHS. The aim is to contribute knowledge on the economic valuation of cultural heritage sites in South Africa. It measures the willingness to pay for NMHS. Measures of this kind are of value to both policy makers and managers of cultural heritage institutions. To policy makers, the research will provide a measure of the extent to which policies supporting cultural heritage sites are consistent with both visitors and non-visitors expectations. To managers of cultural heritage sites, the research will provide empirical guidance on the relative value that both visitors and non-visitors places on the services and facilities provided by the site. Also, the research findings can help managers make more informed decisions on attributes that better reflect visitor expectations.

3.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter aimed to highlight the theory behind economic valuation of cultural heritage goods. The notion of valuing cultural heritage is viewed as the most powerful ways used to best capture and present evidence for the value and significance of cultural heritage. This is of importance due to its nature of generating returns in a form of social benefits and economic growth.

In order to determine the value of cultural heritage, two basic principles need to be kept in mind. The first is viewing cultural heritage as an inheritance for the residents of a particular region, and secondly, viewing cultural heritage as an attraction for both domestic and international travellers.

The results of the studies exemplified in 3.4 reveal cases where residents are not aware of the value or importance of a particular cultural heritage site in terms of local economic benefits. Secondly, some studies revealed that residents value cultural heritage site, however, are not aware on best to contribute to its restoration, protection and maintenance. Other studies have revealed cases where tourists' WTP are higher than what prices currently presented by cultural heritage institutions. This implies a best valuation technique for any study on cultural heritage tourism, which often relies on individual behaviour and preferences (Fourie, 2011:29). Three valuation methods were used in this chapter in order to reveal how cultural heritage goods are valued within the field of cultural heritage economics. These include CVM, CM, and TCM. International studies done by Baez-Montenegro *et al.* (2012), Dutta *et al.* (2007), Kim *et al.* (2007), Salazar & Marques (2005) and Tuan *et al.* (2009) on the willingness to pay for cultural heritage tourism all used CVM. The CVM is preferred to the CM and TCM due to its flexibility and ease of analysis. Table 3.3 summarises the outcomes of these studies.

Table 3.4: Willingness to pay case studies summarised

AUTHOR (YEAR)	OBJECTIVE (S)	METHOD	RESULTS
Baez-Montenegro <i>et al.</i> (2012)	The objective of this study was to determine whether or not citizens of Chile are willing to pay for preservation and protection of cultural historic heritage of the Commune of Valdivia.	CVM	Chile has a higher willing to pay ratio of 16,432 pesos (\$27, 4) per person per year. The study showed the least amount of 15, 314 pesos that residents would be willing to pay valued at \$25, 5 and a higher amount of 17,919 pesos valued at \$29.9. Chilean residents have a strong will to restore their urban cultural heritage.
Dutta <i>et al.</i> (2007)	The objective of this study was to estimate TEV for Prinsep Ghat in Calcutta, India. It asked residents to state their maximum willingness pay for urban regeneration and restoration of this site.	CVM	It was found that 77.35% of respondents are willing to pay whereas 22.65% are not willing to pay.
Kim <i>et al.</i> (2007)	The objective of this study was to determine whether or not visiting Changdeok Palace were willing to pay an entrance fee for management and maintenance of the Palace.	CVM	The study results revealed mean WTP values of 5707 Won (\$5.70) in a log-linear model and 6005 Won (\$6.00) in a log-logit model. This implied that respondents are willing to pay at least twice as much as the current price to visit the heritage site which is 2300 Won (\$2, 30).

Salazar & Marques (2005)	The main objective of this study was to determine whether or not residents of Valencia were willing to pay for the restoration of the Pirate's Tower in the Valencia region.	CVM	Social benefits generated by the restoration of the Pirate's Tower ranges from a minimum value of 395,642€ depending on whether the mean WTP considered is 52, 95€ or 59, 30€. Thus it was concluded that the restoration appears to be more desirable as proposed benefits exceed the costs to be borne by them.
Tuan et al. (2009)	The objective of this study was to determine whether or not citizens from Thailand and Vietnam are willing to pay a one-time surcharge on their income tax and one-time donation to a trust fund.	CVM	Thailand had higher WTP of 204 Baht2 (US\$5.09) and 251 Baht (US\$6.27), while the mean WTP for preserving the My Son temples in Vietnam was found to be 43,495 VND5 (US\$2.74).

CHAPTER 4

METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

“My ideas have undergone a process of emergence by emergency. When they are needed badly enough, they are accepted” (Richard Buckminster Fuller).

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The literature review in Chapter 2 and 3 focused on the willingness of people to pay for heritage goods, particularly, cultural heritage sites and analysed previous research done on this topic. It was, however, clear that the development of cultural heritage tourism in general, and the development of cultural heritage goods, particularly Nelson Mandela heritage sites, is at its incipient stage. As a result, an increased demand for these cultural heritage goods contributes to a growing interest in cultural heritage economics. Therefore, as a result of research pertaining to and determining the worth of cultural heritage goods, it was decided to conduct research in order to fill this theoretical and empirical gap in the body of knowledge.

For the purposes of this study a two-pronged research approach was used for data collection, namely a literature review and an empirical study. A literature review is a review of the existing body of knowledge in the chosen field of study to determine how other scholars have investigated the research problem (Monakhisi, 2008:39).

The method of research that assisted in achieving the aim and objectives of this dissertation are discussed in this chapter with reference to:

- Research design
 - o Exploratory research
 - o Literature review
- Empirical analysis
 - o Method for data collection
 - o Selection of sampling frame
 - o Sampling method
 - o Development of the questionnaire

- o Sample
- o Data analysis.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Zikmund (1997:42), Mouton (2002:193), Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003:84), Leedy and Ormond (2005:85), Adams, Khan, Raeside and White (2007:81), as well as Cooper and Schindler (2008:153) among others, have indicated that the research design provides the overall structure for the procedures the researcher follows to collect data to relate to some specified research objectives. Later on, research by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009:136) indicates that a research design is a general plan of how a researcher goes about answering research questions. In explaining the research design, Saunders *et al.* (2009:137) make a comparison between a researcher designing a research project with an architect designing a building.

The authors describe a researcher as an architect and state that the research design, like a building, is designed to fulfil a particular purpose. Therefore, the manner in which the research is designed will depend upon each researcher's own preferences, research philosophy, ideas as to the most appropriate strategy and choices of methods for conducting research. This is essential because good research, like a good building, is attributed to its architect (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:137).

Research can be classified in terms of its purpose. Accordingly, the is mostly classified as exploratory (Burns & Groove, 2001:374; Steyn, 2007:110; Monroecollege, 2012:28; Scholtz, 2014:95), descriptive and explanatory (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:139), descriptive (Ivanovic, 2011:113; Scholtz, 2014:95) or explanatory (Maree, 2008:266; Scholtz, 2014:95). The classification of research purpose is most often used in the research method's literature (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:139). The purpose of the proposed study is mainly exploratory and is discussed below.

4.2.1 *Exploratory research design*

According to Saunders *et al.* (2009:139) an exploratory study is a valuable means of discovering 'what is happening and to seek new insights; to ask questions and to assess phenomena in a new light' (Robson, 2002:59). It is particularly useful if one requires clarification and understanding of a problem, such as if a researcher is unsure of the precise nature of the problem, for instance (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:139).

Exploratory research is defined by Burns and Groove (2001:374) as research conducted to gain new insights, discover new ideas, and for increasing knowledge of the phenomenon. It is used to create a better understanding of a situation (Scholtz, 2014:95); to assist researchers in producing hypotheses that may later be tested (Monroecollege, 2012:28). According to Creswell, Plano and Clark (2011:86), an exploratory design is used for one of the following reason: “(a) instruments or measures are not available, (b) the variables are unknown, (c) there is no guiding frame work or theory”. This supports Hussey and Hussey’s (1997:76) assertion that an exploratory research study is a ‘study which aims to find patterns, ideas or hypotheses; with the focus on gaining familiarity with the subject area and gaining insights for more rigorous investigation’. In their work, Page and Meyer (2000:22) and Styen (2007:111) state that the main aim of exploratory studies is ‘to explore a certain phenomenon, event, issue, or problem, often of which little is known or where contradictory evidence exists’. This type of research mainly involves gathering a large amount of data from a small sample (Struwig & Stead, 2001:7). Additionally, Saunders *et al.* (2009:140) maintain that exploratory research can be likened to the activities of the traveller or explorer. Its great advantage is that it is flexible and adaptable to change in that if one is conducting exploratory research one must be willing to change direction as a result of new data that appear and new insights that occur (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:140).

Lastly, Saunders *et al.* (2009:140) state that there are three principal ways of conducting exploratory research: a search of the literature; interviewing ‘experts’ in the subject; conducting focus group interviews. Since little secondary information is currently available regarding the application of cultural heritage goods in South Africa in particular, cultural heritage sites within the context of economics, an exploratory research design was followed in this study. It means that the study explores literature on the current development of cultural heritage goods in South Africa, particularly cultural heritage sites, where the inception of the highly publicised cultural heritage sites has sparked interests in researching cultural heritage economics and its issues.

4.2.2 Literature review

The publication, *The A-Z of Social Research* (Robinson & Reed, 1998:58), defines a literature review as “a systematic search of published work to find out what is already known about the intended research topic”. Boote and Beile (2005:1) concur by stating that a literature review is an evaluative report of studies found in the literature related to a selected area. Therefore, a review describes, summarises, evaluates and clarifies the

literature, whilst giving a theoretical basis for the research and assist a researcher in determining the nature of own research (Boote & Beile, 2005:1). On such a note, Scholtz (2014:95) adds by stating that a literature review builds a general understanding of the research to be done as well as where there are gaps needed to be filled. This in turn allows the researcher to find out what has been done in terms of the problem being investigated, ensuring that duplication does not occur (Aitcheson, 1998:58). The findings at the end of the study can afterwards be compared to those in the literature review which will make clear whether the research delivers a contribution or if it corresponds with previous research conducted (Scholtz, 2014:95). Moreover, Scholtz (2014:96) emphasises that one of the main functions of a literature review is thus to make one see the broad range of one's research and then guides one gradually to a narrow, more focused study addressing the problem at hand. This furthermore creates an understanding of how research fits into and builds upon literature (Oliver, 2012:5).

Leedy (1989:66) notes that the more knowledgeable a researcher is, the better the researcher will be able to understand their problem. The purpose of a literature review is not only to identify and analyse all information written about a topic, but also to gain insight into and an understanding of the problem at hand.

The literature review for this study was carried out to provide information relating to the general background and context of the study and is two-fold (Chapters 2 and 3). Chapter 2 contains an in-depth discussion on the state of cultural heritage tourism in South Africa by looking at the development and growth, benefits, challenges and issues on cultural heritage. Chapter 3 critically examines previous research done on the willingness to pay for cultural heritage goods by looking at a few international case studies that focus on willingness to pay for cultural heritage in order to determine whether consumers are willing to pay for conservation, protection, and maintenance of cultural heritage sites.

By using keywords such cultural tourism, heritage tourism, cultural heritage tourism, cultural heritage tourism products, international tourist arrivals, economic value, valuing of cultural heritage, and economic valuation technique, to name a few, a comprehensive information search has been conducted on the North-West University (NWU), Walter Sisulu University (WSU) and the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU) library electronic databases. The main sources used were Science Direct, Ebscohost, Emerald, and the three universities' repository' of dissertations and thesis. Since the theoretical framework for the research study is rooted in a number of disciplines, a comprehensive search was conducted in the fields of anthropology, sociology, marketing, management,

tourism research and others. Required books were sourced from WSU and NMMU libraries. Numerous reports and studies were sourced from South African official sites, as well as from ATLAS, UN, the European Tourism Commission, and prominent universities worldwide. Personal notes and hand-outs from attended research methodology schools were also used as an additional source of information. A thorough review of secondary data provided the theoretical framework for the research and the empirical study.

The literature review laid a knowledge foundation and revealed gaps in current research which then prompted further analysis which is discussed in the next section.

4.3 EMPIRICAL STUDY (SURVEY)

The following section outlines the main methods selected for the empirical study. The term 'empirical' can be defined as something that is "based on experiments rather than ideas or theories (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2005:475). For the purpose of this study it means that one will make use of scientific methods in order to prove or disapprove a hypothesis; in this case one of the hypothesis being that cultural heritage sites play a big role in developing and growing cultural heritage tourism as a means of redressing historical imbalances of the past and the impacts of such in the economy of any destination.

4.3.1 Method for data collection

According to Maree and Van der Westhuizen (2008:35) research can be done from two perspectives, namely qualitative and quantitative research. Fouché and Delport (2002:81), and Niewenhuis (2008:51) add to Maree and Van der Westhuizen (2008:35) by stating that there is a third type of research method, namely mixed-method research. This entails that method of research comprises three elements, namely qualitative, quantitative, and mixed-method research. Each element is discussed below.

4.3.1.1 Qualitative vs Quantitative research method

According to Saunders *et al.* (2009:151) the terms qualitative and quantitative are used widely in research to differentiate both data collection techniques and data analysis procedures. They further state that one way of distinguishing between the two is the focus on the non-numeric (words) and on the numeric (numbers) data.

Cooper and Schindler (2006:196) defines qualitative research as a process which includes an 'array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate,

and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not the frequency, of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomena in the social world'. Qualitative is used predominantly as a synonym for any data collection technique (such as an interview) or data analysis procedure (such as categorising data) that generates or uses non-numerical data (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:151). Qualitative therefore can refer to data other than words, such as pictures and video clips (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:151). Furthermore, the main goal of qualitative research is to view the research topic from the respondents' perspective, and to understand how and why they come to have this particular perspective (Cassel & Symon, 2004:11).

Maree and Pietersen (2008a:145) define quantitative research as "a process that is systematic and objective in its ways of using numerical data from only a selected subgroup of a universe (or population) to generalise the findings to the universe that is being studied". Quantitative is predominantly used as a synonym for any data collection technique (such as a questionnaire) or data analysis procedure (such as graphs or statistics) that generates or uses numerical data (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:151). Matveev (2002:62) names the following advantages and strengths of quantitative data collection:

- It clearly and precisely specifies both the independent and the dependent variables under investigation.
- It is inexpensive to conduct.
- It is relatively easy to tabulate and analyse the data using statistical programmes.
- It arrives at conclusions that are more objective by firmly following the original set of research goals.
- It minimises or even eliminates subjectivity of judgment.
- It achieves high levels of reliability of gathered data because of controlled observations.
- Very specific research problems and set terms are used.

4.3.1.2 Mixed research method

According to Teddle and Tashakkori (2009:4) the qualitative versus quantitative debate over which method is application (qualitative or quantitative) has coincided with the rapid development of mixed-methods research designs; being referred to as a third methodological movement (Tashakkori & Teddle, 2003:ix). Creswell (2003) adds that the concept of mixed method model started in 1959 when Campbell and Fiske employed a "multi-method matrix" to examine different approaches to data collection in the field of

psychology. The mixed-method paradigm is still in its adolescent period; as it is considered a relatively new methodology whose key philosophical and methodological foundations and practice standards have evolved since the early 1990s (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2009:31).

Furthermore, several authors have suggested a composite understanding of defining mixed method research. Creswell and Plano-Clark (2011) argue that several definitions for mixed methods have emerged over the years. An early definition of mixed methods was developed in 1989 when Greene, Caraceli, and Graham (1989) emphasised that mixed methods include qualitative and quantitative methods linked to a particular inquiry paradigm (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011). Since then many authors have presented different definitions of mixed methods in order to precisely understand the different procedures of mixed methods designs. According to Creswell and Plano-Clark (2011:5) mixed methods are used when a “researcher collects and analyses both qualitative and quantitative data, mixes or integrate the two forms of data through concurrent, sequential, or embedded procedures, and give priority to one or both forms of data. Creswell (2003:4), Fouché and Delport (2002:81), and Saunders *et al.* (2009:152) concur that a mixed-methods approach is the general term for when both qualitative and quantitative data collection techniques and analysis procedures are used in a research design. Mixed methods combine qualitative and quantitative methods in ways that ostensibly bridge their differences in the service of addressing a research question (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2009:31). It involves philosophical assumptions, the use of qualitative and quantitative approaches, and the mixing of both approaches (Creswell, 2003:4) in real life human science research sometimes consciously, sometimes unconsciously. Additionally, Hinckley (2005) states that a mixed method is useful to capture the best of both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The purpose of this form of research is that both qualitative and quantitative research, in combination, provides a better understanding of a research problem or issue than either research approach alone (Tashakkori & Teddle, 2003:697). Moreover, mixed methods research allows for the “opportunity to compensate for inherent method weaknesses, capitalize on inherent method strengths, and offset inevitable method biases” (Greene, 2007: xiii, cited in Tashakkori & Teddle, 2003:697).

In 1991, Morse developed a mixed methods research notation system (Tashakkori & Teddle, 2003:50). The Morse notation system indicates whether the study has a qualitative or quantitative orientation, which aspect of the research design is domination (qualitative or quantitative), and which is less dominant (qualitative or quantitative), and

whether the study is carried out simultaneously (qualitative and quantitative) or sequentially (qualitative → quantitative). Some researchers have built on the Morse notation system, and considered the term 'simultaneous' inappropriate and impractical as researchers may be unable to collect data at the same time (Tashakkori & Teddle, 2003:51). Instead of the term 'simultaneous' they suggested the term 'parallel mixed designs', noting that it allows for qualitative and quantitative data to be collected at the same time or at slightly different times. Creswell and Plano-Clark (2011) expanded the Morse notation system to include an embedded method in a larger design. This presents researchers with different strategies of approaching mixed methods designs, namely, parallel, sequential, and embedded mixed methods designs.

However, it should be noted that the purpose of this section is not to contribute to the debates or to provide an overview over the several approaches of mixed methods design, but rather examine a method of data collection employed and the reasons for it.

This study employs a sequential strategy. In a sequential procedure the researcher seeks to elaborate on or expand the findings of one method with another method (Creswell, 2003:16). The sequential procedure (also referred to as the exploratory sequential research design) refers to a two-phased mixed methods procedure whereby the researcher starts by collecting and analysing qualitative data in the first phase and collecting and analysing quantitative data in the second phase (Creswell, 2003:16). In the exploratory sequential procedure, qualitative data helps explain or build upon initial quantitative results. In this design the researcher begins with collecting and analysing qualitative data followed by the quantitative phase of the study that is designed from the results of the first phase. The rationale for this design is that "the results of the first method (qualitative) can help develop or inform the second method (quantitative) (Green *et al.*, 1989).

4.3.2 Selection of the sample frame

A sampling frame refers to the population under investigation. According to Ross (2005:3), a sampling frame can be a list of sample units from which a researcher can choose an appropriate unit which can be surveyed in order to achieve the objectives of a research study. These units may include people, households or, whole communities (Scholtz, 2014:98). As with many studies, a sampling frame in this study was taken directly from the elements in the population of interest. For self-administered questionnaires the visitors to NMHS were included. With regards to the online survey,

both national and international people who follow tourism and cultural heritage tourism as well as Facebook pages were included.

4.3.3 Sampling methods

According to Latham (2007:1), in any research conducted, people, places, and things are studied. This is referred to by many authors as a population to be studied because it consists of a set of individuals or other entities one would wish to be able to generalise findings. Be that as it may, researchers often do not have the time or resources to study the entire population (Chambliss & Schutt, 2003:149). Therefore, to collect data on a smaller scale, researchers gather data from a portion or sample of the population by means of sampling methods. There are two main classes to which sampling methods belong, namely probability sampling method and non-probability sampling method (Chambliss & Schutt, 2003:156; Latham, 2007:3). Teddle and Tashakkori (2009) and Tashakkori and Teddle (2003) add to Latham (2007) and Chambliss and Schutt (2003) by stating that there is a third type of sampling method, namely the mixed sampling method. Each sampling method is discussed below.

4.3.3.1 Probability sampling method

According to Chambliss and Schutt (2003:156) probability sampling methods allow a researcher to know in advance how likely it is that any element of a population will be selected for the sample. In similar vein, Henry (1990:25) defines probability sampling as having the “distinguishing characteristic that each unit in the population has a known, nonzero probability of being included in the sample”. It is described more clearly as “every subject or unit has an equal chance of being selected” from the population (Latham, 2007:3). Latham (2007:3) further argues that it is imperative to give everyone an equal chance of being selected because it “eliminates the danger of researchers biasing the selection process because of their own opinions or desires”. When bias is eliminated, the results of the research may be generalized from the sample to the whole of the population because “the sample represents the population” (Frey, Carl & Gary, 2000:126).

There are four types of probability sampling methods that are standard across disciplines (Chambliss & Schutt, 2003:160; Latham, 2007:3), namely simple random sampling, systematic random sampling, stratified random sampling, and cluster sampling. Each is discussed below.

i. Simple random sampling

According to Chambliss and Schutt (2003:160), simply random sampling is a method of sampling in which every sample element is selected only on the basis of chance, through a random process. This means that it requires that each member of the population has an equal chance of being selected (as is the main goal of probability sampling) (Latham, 2007:3). Thus it requires some procedure that generates numbers (Chambliss & Schutt, 2003:160); by assigning a number to each member in the population list and then to “use a random number table to draw out the members of the sample” (Latham, 2007:3). For an example, a researcher may use a lottery procedure where a case number is written on a small card, and then the cards are mixed up and the sample is selected from the cards (Chambliss & Schutt, 2003: 161).

ii. Systematic random sampling

In this method of sampling, sample elements are selected from a list or from sequential files (Chambliss & Schutt, 2003:162). The selection of the sample from the population list is made by randomly selecting (Latham, 2007:4). This implies that the first element is selected randomly from a list or from sequential files, and then every n th element is selected. Systematic random sampling requires the following three steps (Chambliss & Schutt, 2003:162):

- The total number of cases in the population is divided by the number of cases required for the sample. For an example, if 50 cases are to be selected out of 1,000, the sampling interval is 20; every 20th case is selected.
- A number from one to 20 (or whatever the sampling interval is) is selected randomly. This number identifies the first case to be sampled, counting from the first case on the list or in the files.
- After the first case has been selected, every n th case is selected for the sample, where n is the sampling interval.

iii. stratified random sampling

Stratified random sampling is “one in which the population is divided into sub-groups or ‘strata,’ and a random sample is then selected from each subgroup” (Latham, 2007:5). It is best used when a few characteristics are known about a population. These sub-groups can exhibit characteristics including but not limited to gender, race, ethnicity, religion, and age groups (Latham, 2007:5).

iv. Cluster sampling.

In cluster sampling, survey population members are divided into unique, non-overlapping groups prior to sampling (Latham, 2007:6). These groups are referred to as clusters because they are “naturally occurring groupings such as geographic units” (Henry, 1990:29). Additionally, cluster sampling involves “the selection of a few groups and data are collected from all group members” (Henry, 1990:29). Thus, this sampling method is used when no master list of the population exists but “cluster” lists are obtainable (Frey *et al.*, 2000:130)

4.3.3.2 Non-probability sampling method

According to Chambliss and Schutt (2003:156), in non-probability sampling method, the probability of selection of the population elements is unknown. It is described more clearly by McDaniel and Gates (2001:335) as a sample that includes elements from the population that are selected in a non-probability manner. Chambliss and Schutt (2003:169) state that as much as non-probability sampling methods are often used in qualitative research; they also are used in quantitative studies when researchers are unable to use probability selection methods. According to Latham (2007:7) the advantage of non-probability sampling is that it a convenient way for researchers to assemble a sample with little or no cost and/or for those research studies that do not require representativeness of the population.

There are four common non-probability sampling methods: convenience sampling, quota sampling, purposive sampling, and snowball sampling.

i. Convenience sampling

In non-probability sampling, elements are selected on the basis of convenience (Chambliss & Schutt, 2003:170). Thus, this sampling method is also known as a haphazard, accidental, or convenience sample.

ii. Quota sampling

This sampling method allows elements to be selected to ensure that the sample represents certain characteristics in proportion to their prevalence in the population (Chambliss & Schutt, 2003:171). Moreover, the distinguishing feature of a quota sample is that quotas are set to ensure that the sample represents certain characteristics in proportion to their prevalence in the population.

iii. Purposive sampling

For this sampling method, elements are selected for a purpose, usually because of their unique position (Chambliss & Schutt, 2003:173). Purposive sampling may involve studying the entire population of some limited group (directors of shelters for homeless adults) or a sub-set of a population (mid-level managers with a reputation for efficiency). Or a purposive sample may be a “key informant survey,” which targets individuals who are particularly knowledgeable about the issues under investigation.

iv. Snowball sampling method

It is a non-probability sample in which the selection of additional respondents is based on referrals from the initial respondents (McDaniel & Gates, 2001:350). The original respondents are identified and qualified and they in turn help the researcher to identify additional people to be included in the study. It is typically used in research situations where the defined target population is very small and unique and when compiling a complete list of sampling units is an almost impossible task (McDaniel & Gates, 2001:350).

4.3.3.3 Mixed-methods sampling

According to Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007:281) in both qualitative and quantitative studies, researchers must decide on the number of participants to select (sample size) and how to select these sample members (sampling scheme). While the decisions can be difficult for both qualitative and quantitative researchers, sampling strategies are even more complex for studies in which qualitative and quantitative research approaches are combined either concurrently, or sequentially (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007:281). Studies that combine or mix qualitative and quantitative research techniques fall into a class of research that are appropriately called mixed methods research or mixed research. Sampling decisions typically are more complicated in mixed methods research because sampling schemes must be designed for both the qualitative and quantitative research components of these studies (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007:281). Furthermore, Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007:282) argue that despite literature written on mixed methods research, little has been written on the topic of sampling. However, researchers have presented a false dichotomy that random sampling schemes belong to the quantitative paradigm (Frey *et al.*, 2000:3; Latham, 2007:3; Chambliss & Schutt, 2003:170; Henry, 1990:25), and non-random sampling schemes belong to the qualitative paradigm (Latham, 2007:7; Chambliss & Schutt, 2003:156; McDaniel & Gates,

2001:335). Rather, both random and non-random sampling can be used in quantitative and qualitative studies (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007:282).

In their study, Teddle and Tashakkori (2008:179) assert that when generating samples for the quantitative phase of mixed methods, researchers typically seek to obtain samples that are representative of the population. On the other hand, when generating samples for qualitative phase of mixed methods research, researchers typically seek to establish samples that will provide information at multiple levels of meaning (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2008:179). Therefore, using mixed-methods research entails that a researcher aims to generate a sample that is representative and that also provides meaningful information (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2008:179).

For the purpose of this study, the sequential sampling design using multiple samples and is discussed below.

4.3.4 Adopted sampling method

For the purpose of this study the exploratory sequential design using multilevel samples for the qualitative mixed sampling design and quantitative mixed sampling design is the main sampling method chosen. The purpose of this study is to determine the visitor's willingness to pay for visiting Nelson Mandela's heritage sites. To accomplish this, both qualitative and quantitative components were used, with the qualitative phase first being conducted to inform the subsequent quantitative phase (Collins *et al.*, 2007:267). The phases and how they are used in this study are discussed next.

4.3.4.1 Qualitative phase

In the qualitative phase, thirteen heritage sites associated with Nelson Mandela were randomly selected using a *cluster sampling scheme* (Refer to Annexure 1). The heritage sites are selected because they represent Nelson Mandela, his history and legacy. Secondly, a *purposive sampling method* was implemented. In this regard, the researcher arranged *telephonic interviews* with managers of these heritage sites to gain information and understanding on these sites. The interviews were conducted during April 2015 with thirteen heritage site managers. Out of the thirteen managers, only nine managers responded and their responses were used to inform the subsequent quantitative phase.

4.3.4.2 Quantitative phase

The data obtained from the qualitative component were utilised to develop a survey questionnaire utilizing a random *stratified sampling scheme* (Collins *et al.*, 2007:279). The questionnaire was distributed in three stages with three samples schemes. In the first sample, *purposive sampling scheme* was utilised. In this regard, an e-mail containing a link to the web-based questionnaire (constructed in google forms) was sent to managers of the nine heritage sites who were interviewed in the qualitative phase. On receiving the e-mail and the link to the web questionnaire, the managers were requested to place the link on their websites to help distribute/forward/make available the questionnaire to the potential visitors who make use of their services, making use of *snowball sampling scheme*. In the second stage, the online questionnaire was placed to other public tourism heritage groups on Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram social pages. This implied that a *convenient sampling scheme* was used as those who were willing and available responded to the questionnaire. Thereafter, the respondent went on to answer the questions, which were automatically stored in a database. In the last stage, the researcher conducted fieldwork by distributing questionnaires at one of the selected heritage site, namely, Nelson Mandela Youth Heritage Centre (NMYHC) in Mthatha, also making use of *convenient sampling method*. During the fieldwork phase, the Bhunga building was closed due to renovations and the Mvezo homestead was opened for selected guests. Using the convenience sampling method implies that populations are selected based on the ease and convenience of availability (Maree & Pietersen, 2008:177). Furthermore, a *convenience sampling approach* was chosen because the selection of the cases was based on the presence or absence of the respondent at the time of data collection and their willingness to participate in the study (Saunders *et al.*, 2009).

In this phase, all tourists who visited the Nelson Mandela Youth Heritage Centre in Mthatha during the Ecosystem of Nelson Mandela Qunu Celebration formed part of the survey. The survey took place during 17 and 18 July 2015. The researcher employed field-workers and trained them beforehand to ensure that they understood the aim of the survey and only if willing to complete the questionnaires. The team of survey administrators comprised four level 4 Tourism students from the King Sabatha Dalidyebo (KSD) Technical and Vocational Education and Training College (TVET). The fact that the survey administrators were all tourism students ensured knowledgeable handling of the survey and courteous and ethical behaviour towards the tourists. The researcher was on the site during the period and conducted survey too. Table 4.1 provides important

golden rules that served as a guide for the fieldworkers (Scholtz, 2015). Fieldworkers distributed the questionnaires to visitors at the four points in the Qunu area: Nelson Mandela Youth Heritage Centre, Nelson Mandela Youth and Heritage Centre sport grounds, Nelson Mandela Youth and Heritage Centre Amphitheatre, and Nelson Mandela Youth and Heritage Centre gardens. The researchers ensured that all questionnaires were filled in and constantly monitored and retrieved the questionnaires from the fieldworkers.

Table 4.1: Golden rules during survey

WHAT TO DO DURING SURVEY	WHAT NOT TO DO DURING SURVEY
• Remember to smile when approaching respondents • Speak slowly and clearly • Shortly explain the purpose of the survey and how vital their input for success is. • Kindly ask them to complete the questionnaire, stating that it will take about ten minutes • Try to target those who are sitting down to relax a bit	• Do not try to force people to complete the questionnaire • Do not fill in the form for them, unless they are very elderly or do not speak English. If someone else asks, tell them that you cannot complete it for them as it is unethical. • Do not get discouraged when people say no or are a little bit rude.

Source: Scholtz, 2015

4.3.5 Questionnaire design

The questionnaire was designed to examine visitors' willingness to pay when visiting NMHS in South Africa. Its three main aims are (1) to identify the factors influencing visitor choices of heritage sites visited, (2) to determine attributes which encourage their visit, and (3) to determine the monetary value visitors place on NMHS and the justification thereof, whether they are willing or not.

4.3.5.1 Questionnaire development

McDaniel and Gates (2001:289) assert that every form of survey research relies on a questionnaire. A questionnaire is one of the most important parts of the research process as it is the instrument that generates the data needed to prove or disapprove a hypothesis (Maree & Pietersen, 2008b:158). Questionnaires can be described as a set of questions designed to generate the data necessary for accomplishing the objectives of a research project (McDaniel & Gates, 2001:289); providing a standard form on which facts, comments and attitudes can be written down; thus facilitating data processing.

When developing a questionnaire, the following aspects were taking into consideration (Maree & Pietersen, 2008b:159):

- The questionnaire to ask the right questions in the appropriate manner,
- The questionnaire to have an appealing appearance,
- Questions designed to ask correct sequence within response categories,
- Appropriate wording used.

Scholtz (2014:101) adds to the views of Maree and Pietersen (2008b:159) by asserting that a respondent will be much more willing to complete a questionnaire if it is user-friendly, does not take up too much time to complete, if respondents can comprehend the questions. However, when one uses too difficult language, the respondents might not interpret it correctly or not understand the question at all and answer random, thus skewing the data (Maree & Pietersen, 2008b:159).

Furthermore, it is noted by Scholtz (2014:101) that the types of questions asked also plays an important role. Using open questions may obtain honest, thorough answers, but the amount of detail each respondent shares may differ significantly (Scholtz, 2014:101). Closed questions such as list questions, multiple choice questions, ranking questions and Likert scales are all easier to interpret, take less time to complete, and they are easier to capture and allow for specific statistical analysis (Maree & Pietersen, 2008b:161). This was especially taken into consideration with the development of the questionnaire for this dissertation since each visitor's cultural heritage experiences and expectations differ from the other.

4.3.5.2 Main questionnaire

With the absence of an existing questionnaire measuring the same constructs as NMHS, a new questionnaire consisting of twelve closed-ended and open-ended question was developed for the purpose of the research study. It was developed with reference to related previous literature produced by authors such as Richards (2005); Snowball and Courtney (2010); Ivanovic (2011); Csapo (2012); Ivanovic and Saayman (2013a); Marschall (2005); Ivanovic and Saayman (2013b); Christou (2005); Nuryanti (1996); Timothy and Boyd (2006); Throsby (2007a, 2007b); O'Brien (2010); O'Brien (2012); Throsby (2012); Lvova (2013) and Dumcke and Gnedovsky (2013). Secondly, qualitative data obtained from the interviews conducted with managers of NMHS also played an imperative role in the development of the questionnaire. The two A4 pages questionnaire was organised in three parts and discussed in detail in 4.3.4.5:

- Section A (questions 1-10): respondents' social and demographic,
- Section B (question 11): Aspects for a memorable experience at NMHS,
- Section C (questions 12-13): Willingness to pay.

4.3.5.3 Pilot tests

The questionnaire was pre-tested to detect possible errors in the questionnaire design. The pilot questionnaire was tested in the first week of May 2015 during three pilot tests among multicultural background Level 4 Science of Tourism students at King Sabatha Dalidyebo (KSD) Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET) College, and two (2) tourists spotted at Hole in the wall at Coffee bay, Eastern Cape, South Africa. Based on the results of the pilot studies the questionnaire had to be shortened, redesigned, and some portions of questions taken out. The final questionnaire version incorporated all changes regarding content and format, and was made available English.

4.3.5.4 Structure of the questionnaire (to be placed as Annexure A)

The questionnaire consists of thirteen questions categorised under three sections (Questionnaire to be placed as Annexure A). The wording on the questionnaire was adapted for the survey and the needs of every specific visitor were also taken into account.

The first section (A) consists of thirteen items focusing on the demographic characteristics of the sample. The questions include gender, age, home language, province/country of origin, level of education, mode of transport preferred when visiting Nelson Mandela's heritage sites, potential Nelson Mandela's heritage sites, knowledge pertaining to Nelson Mandela's history and legacy, one word that describe Nelson Mandela, and role of media and social networks in influencing visitors knowledge of Nelson Mandela. These were all listed questions, meaning that respondents could select an answer from a fixed list.

The second section (B) measured the aspects needed for a memorable experience at Nelson Mandela heritage sties. This section is based on the data obtained from the managers of the heritage sites. This was measured to obtain ideas of how NMHS are managed in South Africa, as well as what is important for memorable visitor experience at these sites. This was done on 5-point Likert scale (Maree & Pietersen, 2008b:167) which included 43 attributes important to create a memorable experience for the visitors at these heritage sites. An example of this is portrayed in Figure 4.1.

11. When visiting one of Nelson Mandela's heritage sites, please indicate how important the following attributes are to you in creating a memorable visitor experience

	Extremely important				
	Very important				
	Important				
	Slightly important				
	Not at all important				
The following aspects are important for a memorable	1				
1. Flexible hours (open early, close late)	1	2	3	4	5
2. Staff should look neat	1	2	3	4	5
3. Facilities should be accessible for disabled persons	1	2	3	4	5
4. Reasonable prices (entrance, curios etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
5. Efficient, reliable bookings/reservation systems	1	2	3	4	5
6. Mobile sound devices with recorded information on	1	2	3	4	5
7. Location should be easily accessibly (e.g. Good road	1	2	3	4	5
8. Staff should be friendly	1	2	3	4	5
9. Heritage site should be clean (no litter, pollution, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
10. Staff should be knowledgeable pertaining to all aspects of	1	2	3	4	5

Figure 4.1: Section B

*** Please note Section B has 43 items. Not all are illustrated. The complete questionnaire is provided in Appendix 1.**

The third section (C) measured visitors' willingness to pay for visiting Nelson Mandela heritage sites. Firstly, the respondents were requested to state whether they were willing to pay for visiting Nelson Mandela heritage sites through a dichotomous question. Martins, Loubser and Van Wyk (1999:221) mention that a dichotomous question offers two fixed alternative answers from which to choose, respondents have to choose between two answers. Such questions are easy to administer and usually evoke rapid responses. An example is 'yes' or 'no'. To achieve this, respondents were first asked that if all conditions as set in the attributes of memorable visitor experience were met, would they be willing to pay. They were requested to choose between 'yes' and 'no' in the research instrument. Depending on the response on the first question, respondents had an option of stating the amount (in South African rands) they are willing to pay. If the respondent in 12.1 responded "yes" and placed the value they are willing to pay in 12.2, such respondents proceeded in 12.3 to indicate aspects that enable them to be willing to pay for Nelson Mandela heritage sites. However, for respondents who did not respond to 12.1 as willing to pay (no) such respondents skipped 12.3 and responded to 12.4 stating the reasons they are not willing to pay for Nelson Mandela heritage sites. It

is important to note that both 12.3 and 12.4 included items that were listed in Likert scale (Maree & Pietersen, 2008b:167) (1-completely disagree; 2-disagree; 3-neutral; 4-agree; 5-completely agree).

4.3.6 Sample

According to Chambliss and Schutt (2003:149) a sample is a sub-section of a population that is used to study the population as a whole. Latham (2007:2) describes a sample as a representative “taste” of a group. Krejcie and Morgan (1970) recommend that for a population (N) of 1 000 000 people, the sample size should be (S) 383 in order for it to be representative. Since the projected population size is far less than one million, it was decided to obtain at least 383 questionnaires to ensure that the sample would be representative. It was decided to complete 250 questionnaires at Nelson Mandela Museum and Nelson Mandela Youth and Heritage Centre at Qunu. Fieldworkers distributed the questionnaires to visitors at the four points in the Qunu area: Nelson Mandela Youth Heritage Centre (n=90), Nelson Mandela Youth and Heritage Centre sport grounds (n=35), Nelson Mandela Youth and Heritage Centre Amphitheatre (n=80) and Nelson Mandela Youth and Heritage Centre gardens (n=55). The face to face questionnaire was employed in order to measure the opinions of people at NMHS which means that they are definite visitors. Also, an online questionnaire was run and contributed 123(n) questionnaires to the total. A total of 383(n) questionnaires were thus obtained, 260(n) at Qunu, while 123(n) questionnaires from the online questionnaire. The purpose of using this survey was also to distribute the questionnaire in order to reach a wider audience (national and international) which would contribute to the group who might not be heritage site visitors. As this group might or might not want to visit, it was deemed important therefore also to obtain their information. The data was pooled in order to achieve an adequate sample size.

4.3.7. Data analysis

Data are regarded as one of the most essential parts in the research process (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2008). The NWU made a significant contribution to the study by providing a professional statistical analysis of data through its Statistical Consultation Services.

Microsoft© Excel© was used to capture the data and to do the descriptive analysis. After being captured, the data are called raw data which is what information, captured as numbers, is called (Pietersen & Maree, 2008c:183). An initial analysis (descriptive statistics) was used to determine the profile characteristics of NMHS respondents.

Thereafter, the statistical services at North-West University were tasked to process the raw data into usable information. The statistical software called Statistical Package for Social Scientists (IBM® SPSS) was used. Statistical analyses such as Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), independent samples t-tests and cross-tabulation, correlation analysis through Spearman's rho tests and a stepwise linear regression analysis were conducted to determine the willingness to pay of NMHS respondents.

The above-mentioned data analyses took place during various phases which will be described in the next section.

Phase 1: Profile characteristics of NMHS respondents

In this phase, exploratory analyses were done to determine the profile characteristics of the NMHS respondents. In order to achieve this objective, they study analysed both the socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics of the NMHS respondents in order to understand the complete market profile of cultural heritage tourists. During this phase data analysis and descriptive statistics by means of frequency tables are used to determine the profile of the respondents of the NMHS in order to better understand their general socio-demographics as well as their behavioural characteristics. This was done in the Statistical Package of Social Sciences, version 20.0 (Pallant, 2012). According to Macfie and Nufrio (2006), descriptive statistics are methods that describe a large amount of data in a more reduced form after which these are displayed in frequency tables (De Vaus, 2002:195). From the frequency analyses, tables and figures were compiled to describe the information.

Phase 2: Creating a memorable visitor experience

In order to determine how various attributes influence respondents to visit cultural heritage sites, an Exploratory Factor Analyses (EFA) was firstly done on the data to reduce the data into various factors within the one heading, factors of memorable visitor experience. According to Baggio and Klobas (2011:42), the main uses of a factor analysis is to reduce large amounts of data so that it becomes more simplified, allowing one to identify underlying factors or dimensions in a data set. Gorsuch (1983:2) and Kline (2004:3) furthermore state that a factor analysis simplifies data by summarising the interrelationships of variables. A factor analysis also groups items from a scale together by determining the similarities in which questions were answered. Cooper and Schindler (2006:533) as well as Pallant (2010:181) add that the EFA is mostly used during the early stages of a new research project to determine the interrelationship between

variables used in a Likert-scale. One of the most popular methods for testing reliability, the Cronbach Alpha (α) coefficients (Malhotra, 2007:268) were used in this case. This assisted in identifying the items that have the same traits, thus indicating a strong correlation.

Phase 3: Influencers on respondents' willingness to pay

The socio-demographics, behavioural characteristics as well as factors of memorable visitor experience were measured against willingness to pay. The influence of certain variables was tested using both the independent t-tests and cross-tabulations to determine to what extent they influence respondents' willingness to pay. Also, this was done to determine the statistical differences between selected constructs as well as the effect sizes in order to determine which variables influence NMHS respondents to be willing to pay. Furthermore, in determining if there is significant difference does however not reveal how strong the differences are, in other words, it does not indicate the practical significance (or the magnitude of the difference). This is an issue seeing whether sample size can play a major role in determining significance. A smaller sample may show large differences as insignificant, while with larger samples even the smallest differences can be indicated as very significant. In order to overcome this, the effect sizes of the differences between groups need to be determined (Pietersen & Maree, 2008b:210). Effect sizes can either be determined by calculating the difference between two means or by calculating the relationship between variables. The effect size is indicated by d . An effect size of $d=0.2$ indicates a small effect, while $d=0.5$ indicates a medium effect and $d=0.8$ is a large effect (Pietersen & Maree, 2008b:211).

Phase 4: Determinants of amount willing to pay

The aim of the fourth phase of this study was to determine how the socio-demographic and behavioural aspects as well as factors of memorable experience influence how much respondents are willing to pay in order to visit NMHS. This was done in order to identify the extent of the aspects (independent variables) in determining how much respondents will be willing pay (dependent variables). For this objective to be achieved, the analysis used was the Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient (Hatcher, 2003:323) also known as the Spearman rho (Osborn, 2005:275). This analysis makes use of ranks instead of actual values, which means that it does not make use of assumptions about the distribution of two variables (Pietersen & Maree, 2008c:237). Hatcher (2003:323) continues by stating that the Spearman rank-order coefficient can only be used if both variables being assessed are both assessed on an ordinal scale

(Likert scale in this instance) or if one variable is assessed on an ordinal scale and the other on an interval/ratio scale. This analysis was used to determine what aspects influenced respondents' willingness to pay in order to visit the NMHS. This, however, only revealed the aspects that did play a role in influencing the amount that respondents are willing to pay, but it cannot tell to what extent these aspects can predict how much respondents are willing to pay. For this reason, a regression analysis was done.

Phase 5: Predictors of willingness to pay

In this phase, a Stepwise Linear regression analysis was used to single out the aspects that were the strongest predictors for respondents' willingness to pay. Stepwise linear regression analyses were performed to identify the predictors of willingness to pay arising from the three aspects discussed above. In the regression analysis, R^2 gives the proportion of variance in spending that is explained by the predictors included in the model. An R^2 of 0.25 or larger can be considered as practically significant (Ellis & Steyn, 2003). The adjusted R^2 indicates how much variance in the outcome would be accounted for if the model had been derived from the population from which the sample was taken and also takes into account the number of explanatory variables in the model (Field, 2005). The adjusted R^2 therefore gives an idea of how well the regression model generalises and, ideally, its value needs to be the same as, or very close to, the value of R^2 (Field, 2005).

4.4 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to create an in-depth understanding pertaining to the method that was used throughout this dissertation which assisted in achieving the objectives for the study as stated in Chapter 1. Aspects covered in the empirical analysis section included: the method for data collection, the selection of the sampling frame, the sampling method, the development of the measurement instrument (the questionnaire), the sample as well as the various data analyses that were done on the obtained data. Each of these aspects was critically analysed and the most suitable options for the purposes of this study were chosen.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS AND FINDINGS

“Extraordinary claims require extraordinary evidence” (Carl Sagan).

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter described the methods used as well as the statistical analyses which were employed in the empirical phase of the study. The purpose of this chapter is to analyse, interpret, and present data collected during the research process conducted in July 2015. According to Dlomo (2007:94) and Nkwanyana (2012:62), analysis and interpretation are important components of the research process. The responses are analysed and interpreted so as to give meaning to the objectives of the study. During the analyses and interpretation of data one is able to see whether the objectives of the study have been met and through assessing the responses, one can also be able to accept or reject the hypotheses as proposed in the orientation of the study. Gopaul (2006:91) asserts that analysis means the categorising, ordering, manipulating and summarising of data to obtain answers to research questions. Furthermore, the purpose of the analysis is to reduce data to an intelligible and interpretable form so that the relations of research problems can be studied, and tested, and conclusions drawn (Gopaul, 2006:91). On the other hand, interpretation of data suggests the explanation of the outcome of analysis so as to find meaning in the data. Essentially, interpretation converts the results of the analysis, and makes inferences about the various sections of research design, that is, research objectives, hypotheses, theory and the actual research experiment (Dlomo, 2007:94). The findings reported in this study are not in any way conclusive, but represent some emerging patterns of on-going research.

A total of 383 questionnaires were used in the statistical analysis. The results of this study are presented into five phases of discussion and are shown in Figure 5.1 below:

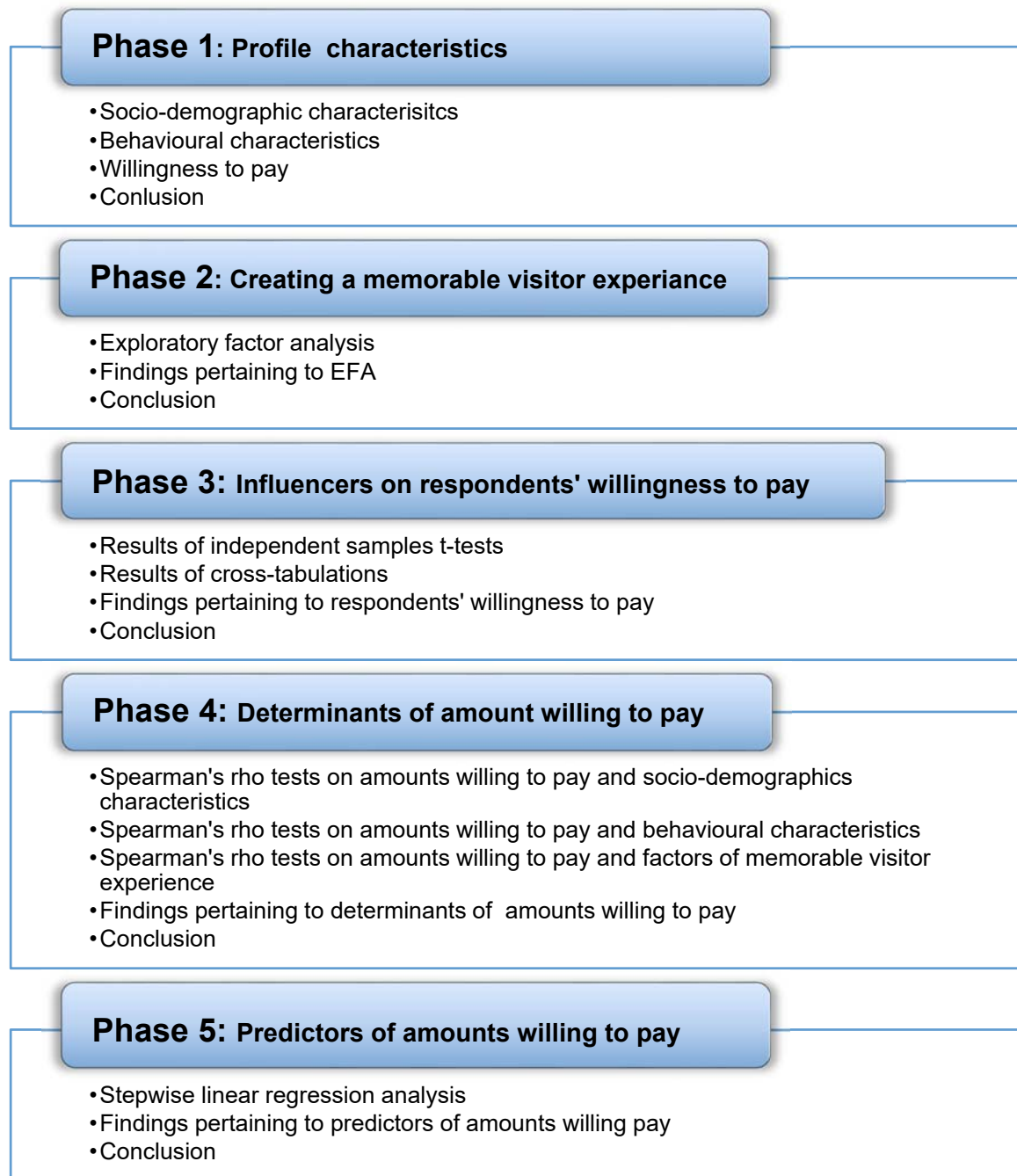


Figure 5.1: Layout of chapter 5

5.2 PROFILE CHARACTERISTICS

Phase one of this study will analyse the results of this study. The results of this study are divided into two parts, namely socio-demographic characteristics, behavioural characteristics and willingness to pay.

5.2.1 *Socio-demographic characteristics of tourists visiting NMHS*

Demographic information of the respondents is divided into gender, age, home language, province of residence or country of origin, and education. Information on these variables is presented in graphs and frequency percentage for analysis purposes.

5.2.1.1 Gender

Understanding of gender differences in the consumption of heritage products has much to offer the heritage managers in identifying and serving their needs and demands. These indicators are easy to identify and use in marketing decisions (Yavuz, 1994). Figure 5.2 shows that female respondents accounted for 56% of the sample while 44% were male. This is in line with the profile characteristics of respondents according to Isaac (2008:128) who conducted a similar study within some of the cities in the Netherlands that profiled cultural heritage attractions. Issac's findings, even though the results are 2% lower when compared to the current study, confirms that the female respondents (54.4%) are more than male respondents.

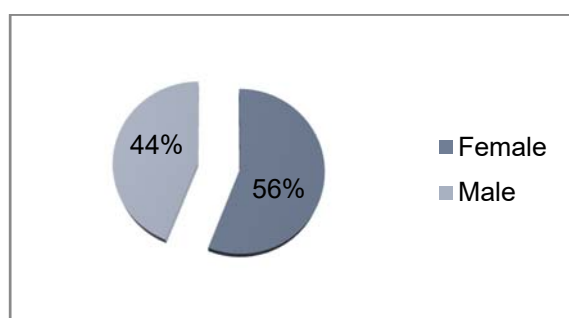


Figure 5.2: Gender

5.2.1.2 Age

Respondents were asked to indicate in what year they were born. This question was asked because there is a perception that cultural heritage motivated travellers are older and mostly retired (Silberberg, 1995). In this study, respondents varied between the ages of 17 and 70 years. For the purpose of this chapter, the age responses are distributed into 6 different groups (see Table 5.1). The average age of respondents was 31.82 years.

Table 5.1: Age (Frequencies)

Age	Percentage
<19	4%
20-29	51%
30-39	26%
40-49	11%
50-59	7%
60+	1%
Average	31.82

The compounded results in Figure 5.3 show that almost 77% of all respondents are between the ages of 20 and 39 years.

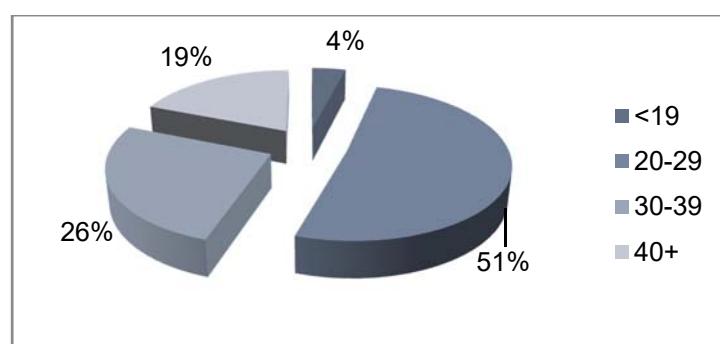


Figure 5.3: Age (Compounded)

5.2.1.3 Home Language

Figure 5.4 indicates that the majority of respondents (65%) spoke IsiXhosa, followed by 13% who speak Afrikaans. Generally, such a ratio (65%) could also be aggravated by the fact that most of the responses (260) were obtained from the respondents who visited Nelson Mandela Museum (Qunu) during a Nelson Mandela birthday celebration. It is worth noting that the majority of the people who live in Qunu speak isiXhosa as their home language. Amongst the languages that fall under African and European visitors include German, Hindi, Portuguese, Swedish Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, Shona, SiSwati, and Tshivenda.

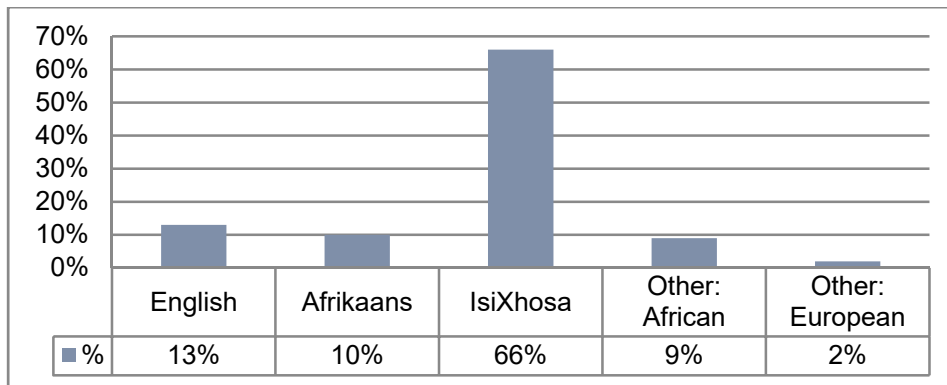


Figure 5.4: Home language

5.2.1.4 Country of origin and (or) province of residence

Figure 5.5 shows the distribution of respondents by the country of residence. As this research deals with the promotion of cultural heritage tourism among other things, understanding a complete market profile is very important. Geographic units such as countries, regions/provinces, cities, urban, rural, climatic regions are used to identify primary and secondary markets. Therefore, while promoting heritage tourism, it is important for heritage managers and planners of the tourism industry in South Africa to know where potential customers of cultural heritage products live or work in order to communicate with them easily. The study of Kerstetter, Confer and Graefe (2001) asserts that international heritage tourists (no matter how few) tend to stay longer and spend more at heritage places. Therefore, understanding the origin of these foreign heritage tourism enthusiasts is very important in the promotion process of heritage destination. For NMHS, the findings reveal that respondents from outside the borders of the country (4%) include those from Germany, United States of America, India, Namibia, Portugal, and Zimbabwe.

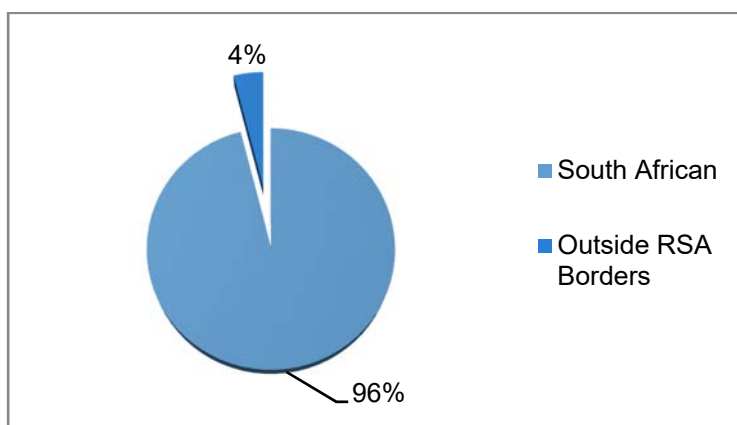


Figure 5.5: Country of origin and (or) province of residence

A high presence of domestic respondents (96%) can also be explained by the site's prominence in creating a new South African national identity. The findings suggest that

heritage sites are highly valued by local communities categorised as day visitors who want to experience the distinctive natural, cultural and the rich stories associated with them. When looking at South African respondents, the results in Figure 5.6 show that the majority of domestic respondents came from Eastern Cape (68%) with the fewest respondents from both KwaZulu-Natal (5%) and Western Cape (4%). The large percentage of Eastern Cape respondents is attributed to the fact that a physical questionnaire was distributed in this area.

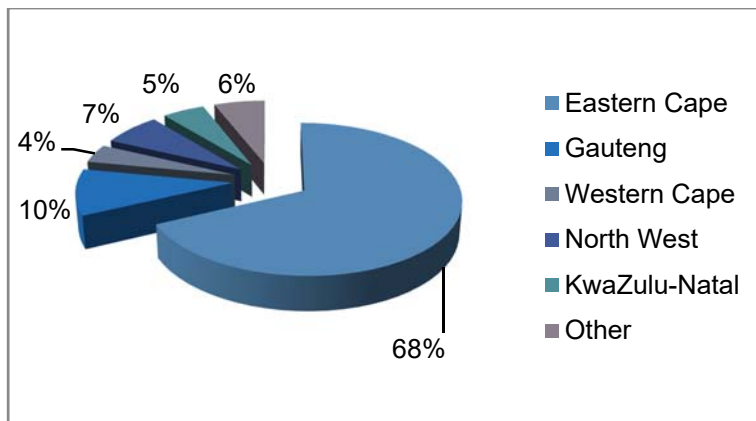


Figure 5.6: Domestic distribution of visitors

5.2.1.5 Level of education

The level of education in any society significantly influences the provision and usage, as well as promotion and development of that community (Ivanovic, 2008:127). The more educated the community is about cultural heritage tourism the more the need and usage of cultural heritage facilities will be required and sustained (Nkwanyana, 2012:67). Figure 5.7 indicates that the largest percentage of respondents (44%) had obtained some form of tertiary training (diploma or degree) followed by 24% of respondents who had obtained a form of secondary education (Matric). Only 24% of respondents possessed post-graduate qualifications. 8% of respondents were professionals.

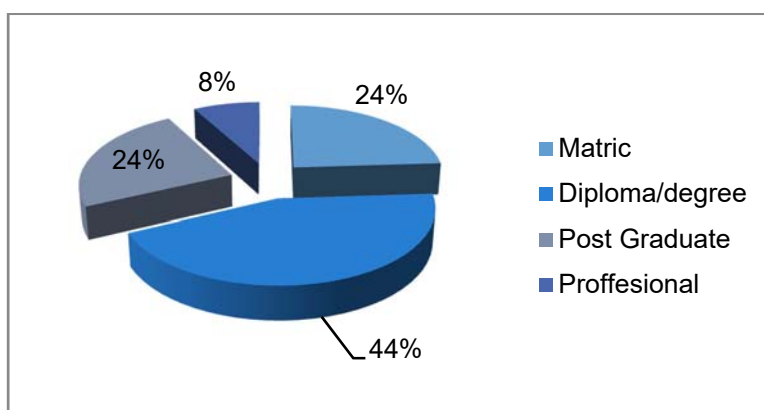


Figure 5.7: Education

5.2.2 Behavioural characteristics of NMHS visitors

When looking at the general behaviour of visitors, one has to examine the factors that influence the tourists to visit the NMHS, as well as their site preference, their knowledge of Nelson Mandela as well as the respondents' feelings towards him.

5.2.2.1 Mode of transport

The results indicate that 28% of the respondents preferred to use a sedan when travelling to NMHS (see Figure 5.8). Also, there is a high number of respondents (19%) who indicated that they use taxis (public transport) when travelling to NMHS. Only 9% of respondents used leisure vehicles.

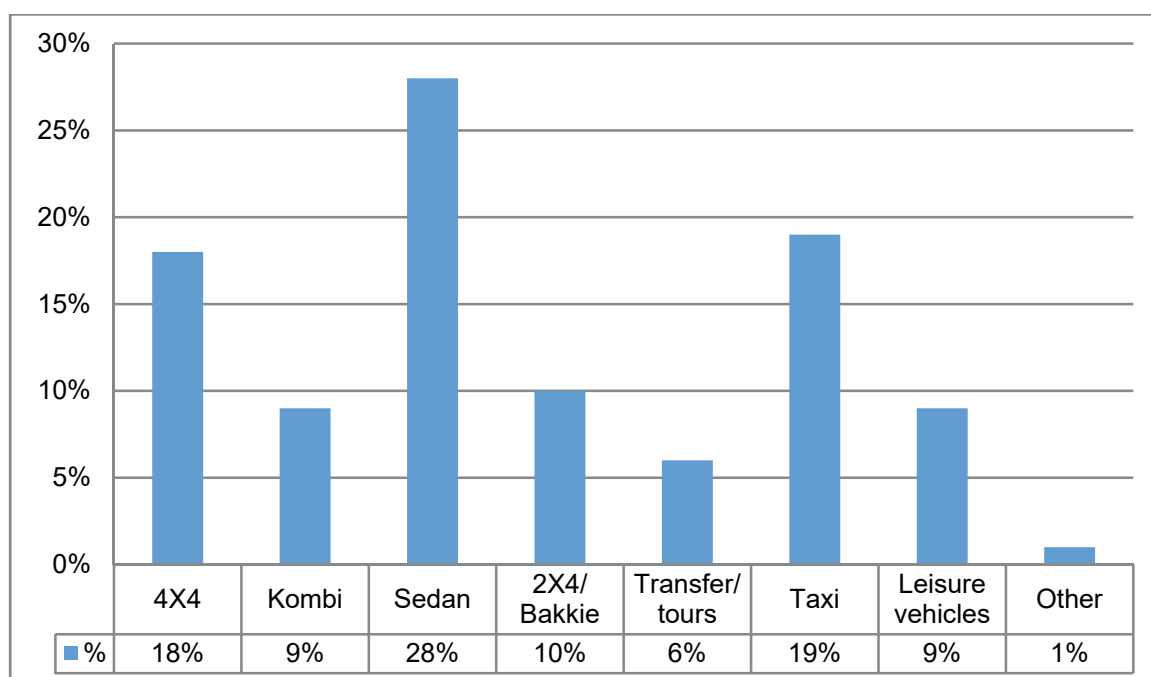
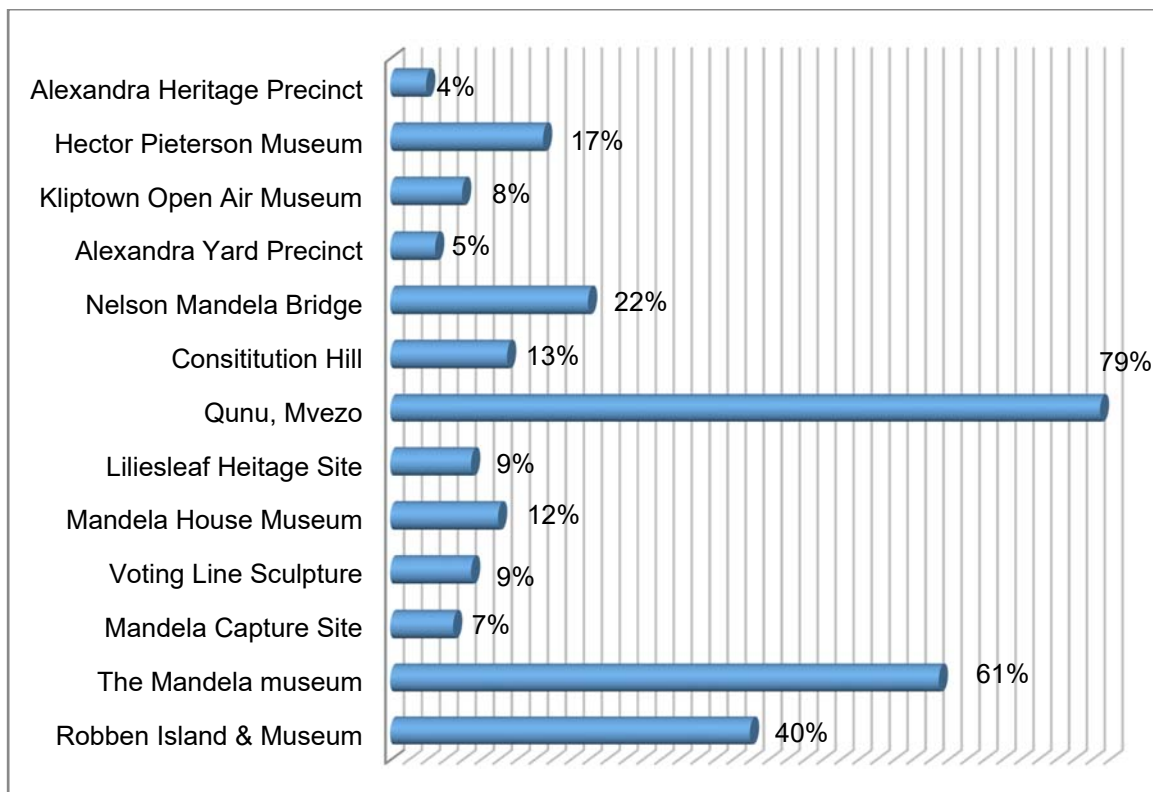


Figure 5.8 Mode of transport

5.2.2.2 NMHS visited

This section reflects on the NMHS visited by the respondents. As indicated in Figure 5.9, the majority of the respondents visited Qunu (79%), followed by the Nelson Mandela Museum (Bhunga Building, Mthatha) with 61%. The site least visited was the Alexandra Yard Precinct, Johannesburg (5%).



5.2.2.3 Knowledge pertaining history and legacy of Nelson Mandela

Respondents were asked to rate their knowledgeability pertaining to the history and legacy of Nelson Mandela. In Table 5.2 below it is evident that the largest percentage of respondents (43%) feel that they know quite a lot about Nelson Mandela's history and legacy, followed by 35% of respondents who feel they know about him at an average level. Only 9% of respondents indicated that they knew little about him.

Table 5.2: Knowledge pertaining to Nelson Mandela’s history and legacy

Do not know much about him			I know everything	
1	2	3	4	5
2%	7%	35%	43%	13%

5.2.2.4 Words that best describes Nelson Mandela

Table 5.3 reveals how the respondent's best describe Nelson Mandela. In this category, multiple responses are expressed in absolute numbers with the top 10 best words presented. The words are listed from the most used to the least used. Most of the respondents' best described Nelson Mandela as a 'hero'. The second largest percentage of

respondents expressed their view of Nelson Mandela as demonstrating ‘freedom’, with the least number of respondents relating to him as ‘democracy’. From these names, one learns that Nelson Mandela is indeed viewed as a very positive icon.

Table 5.3: Words that best describes Nelson Mandela

VARIABLES	FREQUENCY
Hero	94 people
Freedom	56 people
Legend	29 people
Peace	19 people
Father	14 people
Icon	13 people
Leader	12 people
1994	8 people
Forgiveness	7 people
Democracy	6 people

**Represents multiple response expressed in absolute numbers*

5.2.2.5 Sources of information for NMHS

In this section, the respondents were asked to indicate on a four-point Likert (1= “Not at all” to 4= “Completely”) to what extent various forms of media influenced their decision to visit NMHS. The following were the most influential forms of media according to the average ratings out of four:

1. Television (3.23);
2. Word-of-mouth (3.10);
3. Radio (2.96); and
4. Newspaper (2.67)

Table 5.4: Sources of information for NMHS

Information sources	Average out 4	Level of influence
Television	3.23	To a greater extent
Radio	2.96	To a greater extent
Websites	2.49	To a lesser extent
Magazine	2.40	To a lesser extent
Newspapers	2.67	To a greater extent
Word-of-mouth	3.10	To a greater extent
Social media (Facebook, etc.)	2.25	To a lesser extent
Travel blogs	1.80	To a lesser extent
Apps (cell phone applications)	1.73	To a lesser extent
Travel guides	1.94	To a lesser extent
School/ University	2.69	To a greater extent
Other	2.62	To a lesser extent

5.2.3 Respondents' willingness to pay

This section focused on how much respondents are willingness to pay, the reasons for being willing to pay as well as reasons for not being willing to pay.

5.2.3.1 Willingness to pay

Respondents were asked to indicate if they were willing to pay in order to visit NMHS if the sites fulfilled the requirements for providing a memorable visitor experience. The majority of respondents (see Figure 5.10) indicated that they would pay extra in order to see these sites (89%). When asked how much they were willing to pay, respondents, on average, indicated R207.00 if the entire memorable visitor experience aspects were met. When compared to other NMHS in other provinces, this price is similar to what visitors currently pay at Robben Island and Museum and higher to what visitors pay to heritage sites such as Liliesleaf Heritage Site as well as Nelson Mandela House Museum. For Robben Island and Museum, the visitors pay R300.00 entrance fee. However, for the Liliesleaf Heritage Site, the entrance fee for adults is R65.00 for a self-guided tour and R110.00 for a guided tour. In respect to Nelson Mandela House Museum, the price ranges from R75.00 for adults, R60.00 for pensioners, students and children, R30.00 for learners as well as R35.00 for teachers. There is a small number of respondents who indicated that they were not willing to pay (11%).

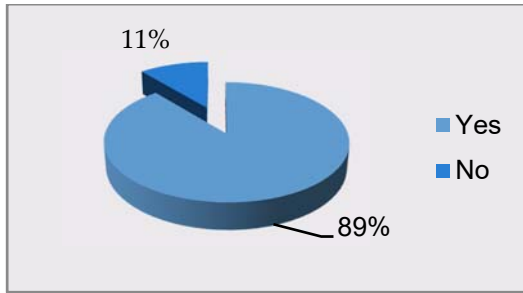


Figure 5.10: Willingness to pay

5.2.3.2 Reasons for being willing to pay

The respondents, who answered “yes” in 5.2.3.1 pertaining to their willingness to pay, also had to indicate why they would be willing to pay. This was measured on a 5-point Likert scale (where ‘1’ = *completely disagree* and ‘5’ = *completely agree*) where respondents indicated to what extent they agreed to a list of statements (see Table 5.5). The following statements obtained the highest mean values (an average out of 5):

1. It is important to protect these heritage sites for future generations (4.31);
2. Supporting these cultural heritage sites creates job opportunities (4.23);
3. Supporting these cultural heritage sites has a valuable educational contribution (4.22);
4. These cultural heritage sites play an important role in understanding history (4.22);
and
5. The cultural heritage sites have important economic value for the host communities (4.21).

Table 5.5: Reasons for being willing to pay

I am willing to pay because...	Average out of 5	Level of influence
1. Supporting these cultural heritage sites creates job opportunities	4.23	Agree
2. The cultural heritage sites have important economic value for the host communities	4.21	Agree
3. It is important to protect these heritage sites for future generations	4.31	Agree
4. Supporting these cultural heritage sites has a valuable educational contribution	4.22	Agree
5. The cultural heritage sites will attract more tourists to the area	4.15	Agree
6. These cultural heritage sites play an important role in understanding history	4.22	Agree
7. Supporting these sites will ensure their protection	4.07	Agree
8. It is important to support these cultural heritage sites as government does not have the capabilities to do so	3.68	Agree
9. Supporting these cultural heritage sites will help to grow the local community's pride	4.13	Agree
10. By supporting the cultural heritage sites, it will become more accessible to other areas of society	3.92	Agree
11. I feel a personal connection with Nelson Mandela and his struggles, therefore I am curious to see and experience the area where he grew up.	4.08	Agree
12. It will bring much needed developments to this rural area	4.09	Agree
13. It will help develop entrepreneurial skills of people living in the area	4.13	Agree
14. It will attract businesses to these rural areas	4.14	Agree

5.2.3.3 Reasons for not being willing to pay

Table 5.6 shows the respondents who answered “no” in 5.2.3.1 pertaining to their willingness to pay, also had to indicate why they would not be willing to pay. This too was measured on a 5-point Likert scale (where ‘1’ = *completely disagree* and ‘5’ = *completely agree*) where respondents indicated to what extent they agreed to a list of statements (see Table 5.6). Only one statement was agreed with:

- I believe that it is government’s role to protect cultural heritages sites (3.81).

Table 5.6: Reasons for not being willing to pay

I am NOT willing to pay because...	Average out of 5	Level of influence
1. The cost of living is too high, therefore I cannot afford it	3.11	Neutral
2. I believe that it is government's role to protect cultural heritage sites	3.81	Agree
3. I do not care for these cultural heritage sites	2.00	Disagree
4. I have more important things to spend my money on	2.44	Disagree
5. I already pay my taxes. and therefore feel that I should not have to pay to visit these sites	3.09	Neutral
6. Only people who care about the cultural heritage sites of Nelson Mandela should pay to visit them	2.13	Disagree
7. Only rich people will benefit from Nelson Mandela's Heritage Sites	1.80	Disagree
8. Cultural heritage sites do not provide enough jobs for those who need them	2.71	Neutral
9. I do not know / understand the history / importance of Nelson Mandela's Heritage Sites	1.87	Disagree
10. I do not identify with Nelson Mandela and his legacy	1.90	Disagree

5.2.4 Findings pertaining to profile characteristics

Phase one analysed both the socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics of the NMHS respondents. It is of interest to learn that most of the respondents were females. The respondents who participated mostly in the survey were between the ages of 20-29, contributing 51% of the survey respondents. Another finding is in how well respondents relate to Nelson Mandela as 94 respondents refer to Nelson Mandela as a hero. To determine whether respondents are willing to pay more in order to visit NMHS, 89% of the respondents reported that they are willing. Only 11% of the respondents who said they are not willing to pay. These respondents said that they were not willing to pay because they believed it was government's duty to protect cultural heritage sites. Others responded by stating that they were not willing to pay more because they already paid taxes, and therefore saw no reason for paying extra. This poses challenges to both the management of cultural heritage sites and local government. For management of NMHS it is important that they understand the importance of involving local communities in cultural heritage activities. If local communities are involved they will get the understanding of the importance of the existence of cultural heritage sites. Such understanding will make them willing to support the development and improvement therefore. This in turn will also mean value by communities

towards cultural heritage tourism. Moreover, for government, it is important that they understand the role they are to play in the development, improvement as well as supporting of cultural heritage sites. For an example, it is the responsibility of the government to provide a range of infrastructure support, such as road, water and sewerage disposal facilities to cultural heritage destinations. The infrastructure does not only benefit the visitors to the cultural heritage sites but the local communities as well benefit in the sense that they make use of the facilities provided. In the processing of providing such infrastructure, local communities will be employed. The employment of such community members will better provide them with broader knowledge on the role played by government in supporting and promoting cultural heritage sites. This in turn could eliminate the respondents' responses that they are not willing to pay because they already pay taxes, because they will have a better idea of where and how the government uses the taxes they pay. According to Timothy and Boyd (2009:220) successful cultural heritage tourism depends on the construction of partnership between government, private sector and local communities who play a hosting role to tourists.

Following is Phase two, where the attributes that play an imperative role in creating a memorable visitor experience for the NMHS respondents are revealed.

5.2.5 Summary

The purpose of phase one was to analyse the profile characteristics of NMHS respondents. The study results show that NMHS respondents feel positively towards Nelson Mandela and they are willing to pay in order to visit NMHS.

5.3 CREATING A MEMORABLE VISITOR EXPERIENCE FOR NMHS

Since this specific research within willingness to pay for NMHS visits has to date and to the researchers' knowledge, not been done in South Africa, an exploratory approach was followed.

5.3.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

In the second phase, an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted on the list of aspects identified as possible influencers of memorable experiences at NMHS. With the knowledge of what contributes to a memorable visitor experience, one can determine how much the respondents are willing to pay in order to have such experiences. In this regard, the EFA method was performed to generate the initial solution. This was done in order to examine the correlation among a set of interrelated variables and to reduce a large number

of items to a smaller number, which simplified the data. The aspects of a memorable experience are listed in Table 5.7. According to Pallant (2010:185), an EFA should be performed using Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity. Therefore, only statements with suitable eigenvalues were considered. An eigenvalue is defined as the amount of variance associated with the factor (Malhotra, 2007:617; Zikmund, Babin, Curr & Griffin, 2010:594).

The eigenvalues suggested that a seven-factor solution explained 66.89% of the overall variance before the rotation. The factors were all tested against Bartlett's test of sphericity, meaning that if a factor had a loading that is $p < 0.005$ it has a statistical significance which in turns supports Pallant's (2007:197) factorability of the correlation matrix. The overall significance of the correlation matrix was 0.000, with Bartlett's test of sphericity value of 9792.55. The statistical probability and the test indicated that there was a significant correlation between the variables, and the use of factor analysis was appropriate. The KMO overall measure of sampling adequacy was 0.96. This ensured that the patterns of correlation are relatively compact and yield distinct and reliable factors (Field, 2013:684).

The Pattern Matrix using an Oblimin rotation with Kaiser Normalisation identified seven distinct factors with 43 variables that were grouped together based on similar characteristics. To test the reliability and internal consistency of each factor, the Cronbach's alpha of each was determined. The results showed that the alpha coefficients ranged from 0.72 to 0.94 for the seven factors. The results were considered reliable since 0.50 is the minimum value for accepting the reliability test (Nunnally, 1967). The average inter-item correlation coefficients varied between 0.39 and 0.58 for the factors, and this also implies internal consistency for all factors. Moreover, all items loaded on a factor with loadings greater than 0.3 and relatively high factor loadings indicate a reasonably high correlation between the delineated factors and their individual items.

The seven factors underlying tourists' aspects for a memorable experience attributes in the Nelson Mandela Heritage Sites were named according to similar attributes and were as follows: Factor 1 = *Technology*; Factor 2 = *Quality service*; Factor 3 = *Amenities*; Factor 4 = *Accessibility*; Factor 5 = *Modern facilities*; Factor 6 = *Interpretation*; and Factor 7 = *Convenience*. The results of the factor analysis are presented in Table 5.5.

Factor scores were calculated as the average of all items contributing to a specific factor so that it can be interpreted on the original 5-point Likert scale of measurement (1 = *Not all*

important; 2 = *Slightly important*; 3 = *Important*; 4 = *Very important*; 5 = *Extremely important*). As shown in Table 5.7, the following attributes were identified of which factor 2 and 4 obtained the highest mean values:

FACTOR 1: TECHNOLOGY

Modern technology factor obtained a mean value of 3.71, a reliability coefficient of 0.90 and an average inter-item correlation of 0.54 and is slightly lower as compared to other factors' mean values. *Technology* (F1) includes the following nine variables, namely: latest forms of technology should be used at the heritage sites; sufficient informative multimedia (videos, sound clips, etc.); interpretation should be done in such a way that young children will also understand; safe facilities where visitors can store their belongings; the site should be eco-friendly (solar panels, recycling, etc.); efficient, reliable bookings/reservation systems; facilities for children (play areas, informative videos, etc.); shaded areas should be available (to shelter from the sun); mobile sound devices with recorded information on the site should be made available to visitors.

FACTOR 2: QUALITY SERVICE

Quality service (F2) was considered to be the most important factor that contributes towards the NMHS establishing a memorable visitor experience. This factor contained the highest number of individual items (12) and ascribed the highest mean value of 3.96, with a reliability coefficient of 0.94 and an inter-item correlation of 0.58. This factor comprises variables such as the staff should be friendly; staff should be knowledgeable pertaining to all aspects of the heritage site; heritage site should be clean (no litter, pollution, etc.); staff should be willing to assist visitors; promises made to visitors should be kept; brochure with map and details of area should be provided; staff should look neat; efficient reception desk (enough staff, short queues, etc.); location should be easily accessible (e.g. good road infrastructure); general maintenance of facilities should be good; proper contextualisation of history (explain how his history affects us today); temperature control inside buildings (for comfort).

Table 5.7: Factor analysis results of aspects of memorable visitor experience

Aspects of memorable experience	Factor 1: Technology	Factor 2: Quality service	Factor 3: Amenities	Factor 4: Accessibility	Factor 5: Modern facility	Factor 6: Interpretation	Factor 7: Convenience
MEAN VALUES	3.71	3.96	3.82	3.92	3.71	3.80	3.84
Latest forms of technology should be used at the heritage site	.641						
Sufficient informative multimedia (videos, sound clips, etc.)	.626						
Interpretation should be done in such a way that young children will also understand	.593						
Safe facilities where visitors can store their belongings	.590						
The site should be eco-friendly (solar panels, recycling, etc.)	.568						
Facilities for children (play areas, informative videos, etc.)	.500						
Shaded areas should be available (to shelter from the sun)	.412						
Mobile sound devices with recorded information on the site, should be made available to visitors	.362						
Efficient, reliable bookings/reservation systems	.261						
Staff should be friendly		-.741					
Staff should be knowledgeable pertaining to all aspects of the heritage site		-.705					
Heritage site should be clean (no litter, pollution, etc.)		-.704					
Staff should be willing to assist visitors		-.681					
Location should be easily accessible (e.g. Good road infrastructure)		-.534					
Proper contextualisation of history (explain how his history affects us today)		-.523					
Promises made to visitors should be kept		-.521					
Brochure with map and details of area should be provided		-.419					
Efficient reception desk (Enough staff. short queues. etc.)		-.353					
General maintenance of facilities should be good		-.317					
Temperature control inside buildings (for comfort)		-.306					

Staff should look neat		-0.260					
The site must provide a fun experience			-0.730				
Sufficient number of ablution facilities (toilets, washing basins etc.)			-0.681				
Site buildings should complement the building designs of the area			-0.622				
Sufficient seating areas			-0.537				
A person should be able to learn from the site			-0.530				
Personal belongings should be on display to create a more intimate experience			-0.518				
Flexible hours (open early, close late)				0.889			
Facilities should be accessible for disabled persons (disabled friendly)				0.550			
Staff should be able to assist disabled persons				0.391			
Transfer service from accommodation to heritage site should be available				0.280			
The site should have a restaurant					-0.698		
Site setting must be attractive (beautiful natural environment)					-0.691		
Buildings should be modern and appealing					-0.577		
Facility interiors should be modern and clean					-0.325		
Curio shop (local arts and crafts, memorabilia, etc.)					-0.290		
Signage interpreting heritage sites to visitors						0.413	
Facilities must have the ability to encourage learning						0.385	
Signage showing visitors where to go						0.355	
Convenient parking facilities (located close to facilities)							0.762
Sufficient number of parking spaces							0.667
Reasonable prices (entrance, curios etc.)							0.646
Skilled tour guides to interpret all aspects							0.392
RELIABILITY COEFFICIENT	0.90	0.94	0.88	0.72	0.84	0.79	0.83
INTER ITEM CORRELATION	0.54	0.58	0.55	0.39	0.52	0.44	0.54

FACTOR 3: AMENITIES

Amenities was rated the fourth most important factor with a mean value of 3.82, a reliability coefficient of 0.88 and an average inter-item correlation of 0.55. *Amenities* (F3) was loaded with six statements such as: the site must provide a fun experience; sufficient number of ablution facilities (toilets, washing basins etc.); site buildings should complement the building designs of the area; sufficient seating areas; a person should be able to learn from the site; personal belongings should be on display to create a more intimate experience.

FACTOR 4: ACCESSIBILITY

Accessibility was regarded as the second most important factor that may contribute to the NMHS visitors having a memorable experience. The *accessibility* factor obtained a mean value of 3.92, a reliability coefficient of 0.72 and an average inter-item correlation of 0.39. F4 was labelled *accessibility* because it attributed the following four aspects, namely, staff should be able to assist disabled persons; flexible hours (open early, close late); facilities should be accessible for disabled persons (disabled friendly); transfer service from accommodation to heritage site should be available.

FACTOR 5: MODERN FACILITIES

Like the *modern technology* factor (Factor 1), the *modern facility* (F5) factor is regarded as the lowest most important factor which the NMHS can apply to create a memorable visitor experience. The Modern facility factor obtained a mean value of 3.71, a reliability coefficient of 0.84 and an average inter-item correlation of 0.54. *Modern facility* includes five attributes and comprises the following variables, namely curio shop (local arts and crafts, memorabilia, etc.); facility interiors should be modern and clean; the site should have a restaurant; site setting must be attractive (beautiful natural environment); buildings should be modern and appealing.

FACTOR 6: INTERPRETATION

A mean value of 3.80 was measured for F6 and the reliability coefficient was 0.79 and the inter-item correlation 0.44. This factor became the sixth most important factor towards creating a memorable visitor experience in the NMHS. It was named *interpretation* and contains six attributes seeing as it consists of items such as: *signage showing visitors where to go*; *signage interpreting heritage sites to visitors*; and *facilities must have the ability to encourage learning*. In this case, the factor's relatively low mean value signifies a more

negative impact and it seems that visitors felt that they had not attained much (or any) learning from the activity of tourism in their area.

FACTOR 7: CONVENIENCE

Convenient parking facilities (located close to facilities); sufficient number of parking spaces; reasonable prices (entrance, curios, etc.); and skilled tour guides to interpret all aspects were all items categorised under F7 and, therefore, labelled *Convenience*. *Convenience* was considered to be the third most important factor contributing towards a memorable visitor experience for NMHS. This factor obtained a mean value of 3.84, a reliability coefficient of 0.83 and an average inter-item correlation of 0.54.

5.3.2 Findings pertaining to the factors of memorable visitor experience

It was essential to this study to name and determine the number of attributes within which a memorable visitor experience is created. The attributes which were highly related or similar to each other were considered within each factor. The findings of phase two, therefore suggest that site attributes themselves are important to understanding what visitors prefer when they visit the sites. This implies that the attributes of the cultural heritage site need to be considered when addressing the underlying reasons visitors visit a cultural heritage site (Hou, 2009; Poria, Butler, & Airey, 2004; Biran, Poria, & Rerchel, 2006). The majority of the attributes presented by the cultural heritage sites should be unique and specific to the cultural heritage visitors to enhance the effectiveness and promotion of cultural heritage site.

It worth noting that, when comparing the results of this study to those of previous studies, both similarities and differences were found. Such investigations have contributed to the theoretical understanding of cultural heritage tourism by highlighting whether there is a need to emphasise the link between the visitors and the cultural heritage sites visited. A few examples are the works presented by authors such as Hou (2009); Kamal and Pramank (2015) and Poria *et al.* (2004) who suggested attributes underlying reasons why visitors visit cultural heritage sites as well as aspects that contribute to their overall experiences whilst at the sites.

Firstly, Hou's (2009) study on visitor's satisfaction with heritage museums identified eight factors. These factors included human interaction (F1); physical evidence (F2); accessibility (F3); opening hours (F4); restroom facilities (F4); exhibition (F5); edutainment (F6); escapism (F7); and aestheticism (F8). In this study, F1 and F2 had high mean values, which attracted above average levels of expectation and of performance. This implies that these

attributes are very important to museum visitors and that the performance of the museums seems to satisfy their needs. However, F3 and F5 fell below average performance, implying that museum visitors had high expectation levels with regard to these factors, but that the actual performance of the museum did not satisfy their needs.

Secondly, Kamal and Pramank's (2015) study on identifying factors influencing visitors to visit museums clustered attributes into seven factors. These factors are motivational (F1); services (F2); promotional (F3); learning (F4); aesthetic (F5); archaeological (F6); and cultural values (F7). The findings reveal that nine attributes that have constituted F1 became a leading factor for visiting a museum and included statements such as psychological, physiological, social, and cognitive and self-actualization. Additionally, the study showed a significant influence of the services (F2) provided by museums on individuals' museum visit behaviour. Four attributes constructed the service related factor where staff behaviour showed the highest strength which is also indicative of the fact that the museums' staff behaviour are performing well. Another factor that became dominant was the F4 which revealed that visitors visit cultural heritage in order to learn new things.

Thirdly, a study conducted by Poria *et al.* (2004) focused on tourists' motivations to visit heritage sites and identified three factors such as tourists' emotional involvement (F1); tourists' lesser involvement (F2); and tourists' willingness to learn (F3). This division suggests that the reasons visitors visit a cultural heritage site could be divided into those motives which are linked to the heart (F1) and, therefore, have the desire to be involved in a heritage experience; not linked with the core of the site (F2) and therefore means a desire to obtain a recreational experience; and lastly linked to the brain (F3), which is the desire to learn.

Therefore, it can be argued that the particular combination of factors found in these studies contains both similarities and differences. Also, the level of importance of each factor was shown to be specific to the particular cultural heritage site. These findings can also be ascribed to the type and nature of the cultural heritage site. These factors can, therefore, be regarded as distinct and especially important in understanding attributes desired by cultural heritage tourists. Furthermore, these findings emphasise that there is no universal set of memorable visitor experience factors for cultural heritage sites and that each set of factors is site-specific. It is thus important for cultural heritage sites across South Africa and the globe to identify their distinct specific attributes, products and services that could allow, motivate, and encourage visitors to be willing both to visit and as well contribute towards conservation, protection and maintenance of such sites.

In view of the aforementioned discussion, seven memorable visitor experience factors were identified (in order of importance) in this study: *Quality service, Accessibility, Convenience, Amenities, Interpretation, Technology, and Modern facilities*. This research identified *quality service factor* as the most important aspect of memorable visitor experience for a cultural heritage site such as the NMHS. All factors obtained high loadings, but some obtained higher loadings than others. As discussed in the literature review, previous research indicated that quality experience is an essential ingredient of cultural heritage tourism (Hargrove, 1999). In a similar vein, Fischer (1999) also emphasised that focus on authentic and quality experience is a basic principle of cultural heritage in cultural heritage tourism development. It can be argued therefore that services provided by cultural heritage sites also influence various individuals to visit the sites and thus contribute to the growth and development of cultural heritage tourism. This furthermore emphasises the important relationship that there is between visitors and staff within a cultural heritage setting. The NMHS's general management team must, therefore, ensure that quality services are being delivered and promises made are being kept. This can all be done through determining the quality of attributes such as knowledge pertaining to all aspects of the heritage sites, efficient reception desks, continuous maintenance of general facilities, and proper contextualisation of history, to name a few. The great services provided should also be made clear in marketing campaigns.

Accessibility is a vital component at the NMHS and was identified as the second most important factor for a memorable visitor experience. The perception of accessibility of the site is influenced by information facilities. Information facilities should be designed for the convenience of visitors and particularly, for the needs of special groups, such as the disabled and aged people. In chapter 2 of this study, Gitira (2008:39) noted that cultural heritage travellers are notable for how they spend their money and how they spend their time. The author elaborated and said that cultural heritage tourists are much more likely to stay in commercial lodging whilst visiting a cultural heritage site as well as take an interest in eating local food. For this study, this implies the importance and availability of transfer services from accommodation facilities to heritage sites. Furthermore, accessibility to these areas should also be indicated clearly in marketing by perhaps have special logos to signify that the sites are for instance disable people friendly.

Convenience was identified as another important contributor to the memorable visitor experience of the NMHS as visitors regarded it as a third important factor when visiting a cultural heritage site. This could be assimilated with the study of Isaac (2008:152) which alleges that perception of safety and security is a major determinant in the travellers'

decision to visit a destination. When visitors visit a destination, they look for convenience, meaning, sites that provide a convenient and sufficient number of parking facilities on the site or in close vicinity. Furthermore, as it was discussed in chapter 2 of this study, McKercher and Du Cross (2002:39) distinguished among five types of cultural heritage tourists. Amongst the identified types of tourists is the purposeful cultural heritage tourist whose motive for the visit is to gain a deep cultural heritage experience. Such a type of cultural heritage tourist requires skilled tour guides that would be able to interpret all aspects or a digital assistant that visitors can carry around with them that will interpret that various aspects that the visitors are looking at.

Amenities were identified as another important factor. This requires cultural heritages sites such as the NMHS to provide support services such as a sufficient number of ablution facilities, with site buildings complementing building designs of the area, as well as a sufficient number of seating areas. When developing or upgrading such sites, this should be taken into consideration.

Interpretation became the sixth important factor towards creating a memorable visitor experience in the NMHS. In this factor, the lowest levels of attributes were associated with signage showing visitors where to go followed by facilities to encourage learning. The results contradict the work of Middleton (1994:249) which emphasises that the visitor experience at an attraction begins with anticipation. The author argues that visitor experience begins in earnest on arrival at the entrance of the site to signage that guides first-time visitors to the site or buildings as well as displays of interpretation material. This requires NMHS managers to take this factor as imperative and provide contingency plans.

Technology and *Modern facilities* have been singled out as the factors of lowest importance. It is crucial that the NMHS managers establish the attractiveness of the site. They should add the attributes of both the F6 and F7 as they are vital to the success of the site. This is because visitors are usually able to discriminate between well-known and less obvious variables. In order to optimise its income generating potential, site activities must be designed to be effective, efficient and modern. Also, attractive, good quality support services such as curio shops and restaurants should be located at the right places so as to minimise queuing, for example. Lastly, the site managers should increase the use of technology in displays to aid interpretation and be more visitors interactive. For example, touch screen computers and televisions can present interesting content in a lively and accessible way.

5.3.3 Summary

Phase two analysed the attributes that create a visitor memorable experience from the 43 attributes that were included in the research instruments. EFA grouped these attributes into seven factors, namely: F1-Technology, F2-Quality service, F3-Ammenities, F4-Accessability, F5-Modern facilities, F6-Interpretation, and F7-convenience. Out of these seven memorable visitor experience factors identified, this research identified F2-Quality service factor as the most important aspect of memorable visitor experience for a cultural heritage site such as the NMHS.

5.4 INFLUENCERS IN RESPONDENTS' WILLINGNESS TO PAY

The analysis presented so far has led to interesting results on what attributes the respondents deemed as important for creating a memorable visitor experience such as NMHS. The purpose of phase three, however, is to explore through the data to see what aspects influenced respondents to be willing to pay in order to visit this specific NMHS. In order to accomplish this, independent samples t-tests and cross-tabulations were used to investigate whether there were any statistically significant differences between how the independent variables or groups of individuals based on the respondents' socio-demographic, behavioural characteristics as well as aspects of memorable experience factors influenced respondents' willingness to pay in order visit NMHS.

5.4.1 Results of independent samples t-tests

The results of the independent samples t-test are set out to provide statistically significant evidence of the difference between the means of the two groups, those who are willing to pay and those who are not willing to pay, for each variable of socio-demographic, behavioural characteristics as well as aspects of memorable experience factors. The results of Levene's test for equality of variances (refer to Table 5.8) show that all *p*-values that are greater than 0.05 are not statistically significant at the 95% confidence level (Pallant, 2010:207). Consequently, the null hypothesis (H_0) of assumed equal variance fails to be rejected, and the assumed equal variance is reported for the t-test. In addition, if equal variance is used then the Type I error will be less likely (Antonius, 2003:281). Furthermore, as shown in Table 5.6 and Table 5.7 below, the primary interest was not only to determine the statistical significance of possible differences, but also to discover the effect size of independent variables. Indicators of the effect size do not point out just whether the difference is accidental or not but the size of differences between the groups (De Vaus, 2003:170).

5.4.1.1 Socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics and willingness to pay

Table 5.8 presents the results of independent sample t-tests for both socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics. Firstly, the study identified those aspects that revealed statistical significant differences but with medium effect sizes. These include magazines, travel guide (books), travel blogs, travel guides (online) and school/university. The result of the Independent samples t-test tested the difference between the means of the two groups (assuming equal variances), those who are willing to pay and those who are not willing to pay in order to visit NMHS. For *magazines*, the results revealed those willing to pay (N= 280, M= 2.48, SD= 0.98) and those not willing to pay (N= 32, M= 1.78, SD= 0.71) is $t(310) = 3.889, p = 0.001$ (eta square=0.71). With *travel guides (books)*, the results reveal that those who are willing to pay are (N= 235, M= 2.19, SD= 1.01) and those not willing to pay (N= 30, M= 1.50, SD= 0.73) is $t(263) = 3.616, p = 0.001$ (eta square=0.68). With regards to *travel blogs* those who are willing to pay (N= 229, M= 1.86, SD= 1.88) and those who are not willing to pay (N= 30, M= 1.40, SD= 0.72) is $t(257) = 2.720, p = 0.003$ (eta square=0.52). Furthermore, *travel guides (online)* revealed those willing to pay: N= 223, M= 2.02, SD= 0.93 and those not willing to pay: N= 29, M= 1.41, SD= 0.68) is $t(250) = 3.397, p = 0.001$ (eta square=0.65). Lastly, for *school/ university*, the independent samples t-test tested the difference between the means of the two groups (assuming equal variances), those willing to pay (N= 257, M= 2.76, SD= 0.96) and those not willing to pay (N= 29, M= 2.17, SD= 1.00) is $t(284) = 3.097, p = 0.005$ (eta square=0.58).

Table 5.8: Group statistics for independent samples t-tests: socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics

Willingness to pay?		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Sig.	Effect sizes
AGE	Yes	338	32,018	10,6807	.285	0.17
	No	42	30,214	10,1490		
Television	Yes	334	3,246	,8766	.269	0.19
	No	37	3,054	,9985		
Radio	Yes	322	2,966	,9869	.790	0.05
	No	37	2,919	1,0105		
Websites	Yes	289	2,526	1,0376	.130	0.29**
	No	32	2,219	1,0697		
Magazines	Yes	280	2,475	,9798	.001*	0.71***
	No	32	1,781	,7064		
Newspapers	Yes	291	2,715	,9309	.010*	0.47**
	No	32	2,281	,8514		
WOM	Yes	304	3,148	,9305	.041*	0.36**

	No	37	2,784	1,0037		
Social media	Yes	268	2,299	1,0058	.029*	0.39**
	No	31	1,903	,9076		
Travel guides (books)	Yes	235	2,191	1,0135	.001*	0.68***
	No	30	1,500	,7311		
Travel blogs	Yes	229	1,856	,8792	.003*	0.52***
	No	30	1,400	,7240		
Apps	Yes	234	1,782	,9262	.003*	0.43**
	No	29	1,379	,6219		
Travel guides (online)	Yes	223	2,018	,9250	.001*	0.65***
	No	29	1,414	,6823		
School/university	Yes	257	2,755	,9552	.005*	0.58***
	No	29	2,172	1,0025		
Knowledgeability	Yes	338	3,601	,8493	.127	0.25**
	No	42	3,333	1,0745		

*Statistically significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$ (Pallant, 2007:190)

* Effect sizes are categorised as small (0.2-0.4)**; medium (0.5-0.8) ***; and large (greater as 0.8) ****.

Secondly, the study also identified aspects that showed statistically significant differences, however, with small effect sizes. These include newspapers, WOM, social media and apps. The result of the independent samples t-test for tested the difference between the means of the two groups (assuming equal variances), those who are willing to pay and those who are not willing to pay in order to visit NMHS. *Newspapers* showed the results of those who are willing to pay (N= 291, M= 2.72, SD= 0.93) and those who are not willing to pay (N= 32, M= 2.28, SD= 0.85) is $t(321) = 2.520$, $p = 0.010$ (eta square=0.47). For *WOM*, the results revealed the results of those who are willing to pay (N=304, M= 3.15, SD= 0.93) and those who are not willing to pay (N= 37, M= 2.78, SD= 1.00) is $t(339) = 2.229$, $p = 0.041$ (eta square=0.36). Moreover, *social media* showed the results of those who are willing to pay (N= 268, M= 2.30, SD= 1.01) and those who are not willing to pay (N= 31, M= 1.90, SD= 0.91) is $t(297) = 2.091$, $p = 0.029$ (eta square=0.39). *Apps* revealed the results of those who are willing to pay (N= 234, M= 1.78, SD= 0.93) and those who are not willing to pay (N= 29, M= 1.38, SD= 0.62) is $t(261) = 2.277$, $p = 0.003$ (eta square=0.43).

Thirdly, the study identified aspects that did not reveal statistical significant differences, however, showed effects sizes. These aspects include websites and knowledgeability. For *websites*, the results revealed those willing to pay (N= 289, M= 2.52, SD= 1.04) and those not willing to pay (N= 32, M= 2.22, SD= 1.07) is $t(319) = 1.584$, $p = 0.130$ (eta square=0.29). Lastly, for *knowledgeability*, the independent samples t-test tested the difference between the means of the two groups (assuming equal variances), those

willing to pay (N= 338, M= 3.60, SD= 0.85) and those not willing to pay (N= 42, M= 3.33, SD=1.07) is $t(378) = 1.864$, $p = 0.127$ (eta square=0.25).

5.4.1.2 Independent samples t-test of aspects of memorable experience factors and willingness to pay

The Independent samples t-test were done between the means of the two groups, those who are willing to pay and those who are not willing to pay, for each variable of aspects of memorable experience. Table 5.9 presents group statistics for the independent samples t-test for seven variables of memorable visitor experience. These aspects include F1-modern technology, F2-quality service, F3-amenities, F4-accessibility, F5-modern facilities, F6-learning environment and F7-convenience. The study results revealed that none of these aspects showed statistical significant differences.

Table 5.9: Group statistics for independent samples t-tests: Factors of memorable visitor experience

Willingness to pay		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Sig.	Effect sizes
F1: Technology	Yes	333	3.73	.684	.324	0.16
	No	42	3.58	.894		
F2: Quality service	Yes	333	3.98	.653	.235	0.19
	No	42	3.90	.905		
F3: Amenities	Yes	318	3.84	.646	.333	0.16
	No	41	3.70	.878		
F4: Accessibility	Yes	333	3.93	.659	.435	0.13
	No	42	3.82	.886		
F5: Modern facilities	Yes	322	3.72	.677	.815	0.04
	No	41	3.68	.842		
F6: Interpretation	Yes	330	3.81	.613	.312	0.16
	No	42	3.68	.814		
F7: Convenience	Yes	328	3.85	.650	.472	0.12
	No	42	3.75	.867		

*Statistically significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$ (Pallant, 2007:190).

* Effect sizes are categorised as small (0.2-0.4) **: medium (0.5-0.8) ***: and large (greater as 0.8) ****

An independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the *Technology* scores for those willing and not willing to pay. There was no significant difference in scores for those willing to pay (N=333, M=3.73, SD=0.68) and those not willing to pay (N=42, M=3.58, SD=0.89) is $t(373) = 1.223$, $p = 0.324 > 0.005$ two tailed).

The result of the independent samples t-test for *Quality service* tests the difference between the means of the two groups (assuming equal variances), those willing to pay (N= 333, M= 3.98, SD= 0.65) and those not willing to pay (N= 42, M= 3.90, SD= 0.91) is $t(337) = 1.545$, $p = 0.235$ (eta square=0.19). The null hypothesis (H_0) for the t-test states

that there is no statistically significant difference in importance of the attributes of the site for the two visitors' groups, those willing and not willing to pay. Since $p > 0.05$, H_0 fails to be rejected. It can be concluded that this memorable experience factor is not statistically significant in determining visitors' willingness to pay for quality service in the NMHS. In other words, quality service as an attribute for a memorable experience does not constitute any of the two groups to be willing to pay extra in order to visit the site.

The result of the independent samples t-test for *Amenities* tests the difference between the means of the two groups (assuming equal variances), those willing to pay ($N = 318$, $M = 3.84$, $SD = 0.65$) and those not willing to pay ($N = 41$, $M = 3.70$, $SD = 0.88$) is $t(357) = 1.237$, $p = 0.333$ (eta square=0.16). The null hypothesis (H_0) for the t-test states that there is no statistically significant difference in importance of the attributes of the site for the two visitors' groups, those willing and not willing to pay. Since $p > 0.05$, (H_0) fails to be rejected. It can be concluded that this memorable experience aspect is not statistically significant in determining visitors' willingness to pay for amenities in the NMHS. In other words, amenities as attributes for a memorable experience do not constitute any of the two groups to be willing to pay extra in order to visit the site.

The independent samples t-test for *Accessibility* is testing the difference between the means of the two groups (assuming equal variances), those willing to pay ($N = 333$, $M = 3.93$, $SD = 0.66$) and those not willing to pay ($N = 42$, $M = 3.82$, $SD = 0.89$) is $t(373) = 0.990$, $p = 0.435 > 0.05$ two tailed).

The results of the Independent samples t-test for *Modern facilities* tests the difference between the means of the two groups (assuming equal variances), those willing to pay ($N = 322$, $M = 3.72$, $SD = 0.68$) and those not willing to pay ($N = 41$, $M = 3.68$, $SD = 0.84$) is $t(361) = 0.279$, $p = 0.815 > 0.05$ two tailed).

The Independent samples t-test for *Interpretation*, testing the difference between the means of the two groups (assuming equal variances) those willing to pay ($N = 330$, $M = 3.81$, $SD = 0.61$) and those not willing to pay ($N = 42$, $M = 3.68$, $SD = 0.81$) is $t(370) = 0.1270$, $p = 0.312 > 0.05$ two tailed). The null hypothesis (H_0) for the test states that there is no statistically significant difference in the importance in signage and facilities that encourage learning by the two groups, those willing and not willing to pay. Since $p > 0.05$, H_0 fails to be rejected, it can be concluded that learning environment as an aspect of a memorable experience is not statistically significant in pointing out visitors who are inclined to pay extra in order to visit the site.

The results of the independent samples t-test for *Convenience* test the difference between the means of the two groups (assuming equal variances), those willing to pay ($N= 3.28$, $M= 3.85$, $SD= 0.65$) and those not willing to pay ($N= 42$, $M= 3.75$, $SD= 0.87$) is $t(368) = 0.904$, $p= 0.472 > 0.05$ two tailed).

5.4.2 Results of Cross-tabulation and willingness to pay

According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) cross-tabulation is a representational device, where one variable is represented in relation to another with the relevant data. Since the questionnaire included the dichotomous variable and nominal data which are non-parametric, inferential statistics were performed (Cohen & Holliday, 1996). In this study, this was employed to profile groups demographically. The study employed demographic variables (gender, home language, province of origin, education levels) as well as behavioural variables (preferred mode of transport and Nelson Mandela' heritage sites) to examine whether statistically significant differences existed among different groups pertaining to willingness to pay. Having done that, cross-tabulation tests with phi-values (ϕ) were used to identify further any significant differences between the groups (refer to Figure 5.7). Cohen (1972) gives the following criteria to interpret phi-values: 0.1 for a small effect, 0.3 for a medium effect and 0.5 for a larger effect.

5.4.2.1 Results of cross-tabulation of socio-demographic variables and willingness to pay

Mean and standard deviations were computed on each of the perception items for *gender*, *home language*, *province* and *education* (see Table 5.10). Although none of these items registered as having statistically significant differences between them pertaining to their willingness to pay, the two aspects: *province* ($p=0.657$; $\phi=-0.133$) and *education* ($p=0.328$; $\phi=-0.124$) revealed a small phi-value (effect size) which indicates that there are small practically significant differences between these when referring to willingness to pay in order to visit NMHS. Respondents from the Eastern Cape Province (82%) were less willing to pay in order to see NMHS, whilst those from other provinces (Gauteng in particular with 11%) were more willing to pay. When examining levels of education, those with post-graduate (25%) or professional qualifications (7%) were more likely to pay, while those with only matric were less likely to pay (36%).

Table 5.10: Cross-tabulation of socio-demographic variables and willingness to pay

Socio-demographic details	Willingness to pay		Df	Sig. level (p-value)	Phi-value (ϕ)
	YES (N=340)	NO (N=41)			
Gender			1	.932	-.004
Male	44%	45%			
Female	56%	55%			
Home Language			4	.538	.091
English	14%	7%			
Afrikaans	10%	12%			
IsiXhosa	64%	74%			
Other: African	10%	5%			
Other: European	2%	2%			
Province			9	.657	.133**
Eastern Cape	66%	82%			
Gauteng	11%	5%			
Western Cape	3%	2%			
North West	7%	5%			
Mpumalanga	2%	0%			
Northern Cape	1%	0%			
KwaZulu-Natal	3%	2%			
Limpopo	1%	2%			
Free State	2%	0%			
Outside the RSA borders	4%	2%			
Education			5	.328	.124**
No school	0%	0%			
Matric	23%	36%			
Diploma/ Degree	44%	45%			
Post-graduate	25%	17%			
Professional	7%	2%			
Other	1%	0%			

*Indicates significance at 5% level; phi-value: **small effect=0.1; ***medium effect=0.3; ****large effect=0.5

5.4.2.2 Results of cross-tabulation of behavioural variables and willingness to pay

When looking at the results of the behavioural aspects (Table 5.11), the following were found to have statistically significant differences as well as small effect sizes pertaining to respondents' willingness to pay: *Robben Island and Museum* ($p=0.171$; $\phi=0.001$), *The Mandela House Museum* ($p=0.945$; $\phi=0.004$), and *Liliesleaf* ($p=0.034$; $\phi=0.111$). Those who had visited *Robben Island and Museum* were more likely to pay in order to visit NMHS (43%). This was also true for those who had visited the *Mandela House Museum* (13%) and *Liliesleaf* (10%).

Although not statistically significant, a small effect size was found pertaining to *transport* ($p=0.632$; $\phi=0.119$). It appears that those who travelled with transport such as *sedan* (28%), *2x4/bakkie* (11%), *transfer tours* (7%), and *leisure vehicles* (9%) were more likely to pay, while those who made use of a *taxi* (26%), *kombi* (12%) or *4x4* (19%) were less willing to pay.

Table 5.11: Cross-tabulations for behavioural characteristics variables and willingness to pay

Willingness to pay	NMHS Clusters		Df	Sig. level (p-value)	Phi-value (ϕ)
	YES	NO			
Transport			7	.632	.119**
4X4	17%	19%			
Kombi	9%	12%			
Sedan	28%	26%			
2X4/Bakkie	11%	10%			
Transfers/tours	7%	5%			
Taxi	18%	26%			
Leisure vehicles	9%	2%			
Other	1%	0%			
Robben Island & Museum			1	.001*	.171**
Yes	43%	17%			
No	57%	83%			
The Mandela Museum			1	.945	.004
Yes	61%	62%			
No	39%	38%			
Capture site			1	.564	-.030
Yes	7%	9%			
No	93%	91%			
Voting Line			1	.840	-.011
Yes	9%	9%			
No	91%	91%			
Mandela House Museum			1	.042*	.106**
Yes	13%	2%			
No	87%	98%			
Lilliesleaf			1	.034*	.111**
Yes	10%	0%			
No	90%	100%			
Qunu/Mvezo			1	.717	-.019
Yes	79%	81%			
No	21%	19%			
Constitution Hill			1	.535	.032
Yes	13%	10%			
No	87%	90%			
Nelson Mandela Bridge			1	.199	.067
Yes	23%	14%			
No	77%	86%			

Alexandra yard			1	.538	-.032
Yes	5%	7%			
No	95%	93%			
Kliptown			1	.160	.073
Yes	9%	2%			
No	91%	98%			
Hector Pieterse Museum			1	.637	.025
Yes	17%	14%			
No	83%	86%			
Alexandra Heritage Precinct			1	.345	-.049
Yes	4%	7%			
No	96%	93%			

* Indicates significance at 5% level; phi-value: **small effect=0.1; ***medium effect=0.3; ****large effect=0.5

5.4.3 Findings pertaining to the influencers on respondent's willingness to pay

The purpose of the third phase was to examine the association between socio-demographic characteristics, behavioural characteristics as well as factors of memorable visitor experience of NMHS respondents and willingness to pay. It examined whether these aspects revealed any statistically significant differences and also looked at the degree of the effect sizes. To achieve this, independent sample t-tests and cross-tabulations were applied to determine whether there were statistical significant differences in respondents' socio-demographic, behavioural as well factors of memorable visitor experience towards willingness to pay. According to Phosikham *et al.* (2015:48) and Chiu *et al.* (2013:89) the understanding of tourists' characteristics, including socio-demographic characteristics and behavioural characteristics, is significant for tourism marketing as well as cultural heritage tourism management in the tourist destinations. They further state that these characteristics can assist cultural heritage tourism managers to know how to provide the tourism activities, facilities and services to meet the needs of the tourists in order to increase tourist satisfaction. Also Chiu *et al.* (2013:89) noted that it is commonly accepted that this knowledge will help managers and marketers to determine people's desires and needs based on generalized patterns. It is for this reason that this study undertook both the independent samples t-tests as well as cross-tabulations to explore how these aspects influence tourists in order to be willing to pay for cultural heritage sites.

Firstly, using independent t-tests analyses, the study analysed both the aspects of socio-demographic characteristics, behavioural characteristics as well as factors of memorable visitor experience to examine whether any significant differences existed as well as levels of effect sizes. The independent t-tests results revealed the aspects that were statistically significant with medium effect sizes. These aspects included magazines;

travel guides (books); travel blogs; travel guides (online) and school/university. Moreover, the analysis identified those aspects that revealed statistically significant differences but with small effect sizes, namely, newspapers; WOM; social media and apps. Furthermore, aspects that did not reveal statistically significant differences but showed small effect sizes were also looked at. These aspects included websites and knowledgeability. The results of the independent t-tests analysis indicate that these aspects were predominantly used by respondents in shaping their journey to the NMHS. According to Phosikham *et al.* (2015:49) understanding tourists' behaviour is important for marketing and cultural heritage tourism management. Karim (2006) also states that if marketers want to market their products effectively, they should know what, how and where to communicate the message that they want to convey. This information is also imperative for NMHS marketers to know as it will assist them to market the sites to the right media sources in order to reach the target audience.

Secondly, cross-tabulation tests were done on the aspects of socio-demographics as well as behavioural characteristics. The results of the cross tabulations for socio-demographics did not reveal any statistically significant differences among these aspects. However, the test analysis showed aspects that had small effects sizes for province, education, sites visited as well as transport.

In terms of respondents' province of residence, the results of the cross tabulation analysis revealed that respondents from the Eastern Cape are not willing to pay as compared to other provinces such as Gauteng. The respondents from Gauteng province showed that they were more likely to be willing to pay. It can be argued that although the Eastern Cape respondents were the majority in terms of visiting Qunu/Mvezo, however, in terms of willingness to pay they are not willing to pay. Assumptions can be further made that this could be because the Eastern Cape residents already live in the area and thus are already accustomed to it, so they do not see the point of paying. Additionally, it could also be associated with the lack of disposable incomes. It is stated by Chiu *et al.* (2013:89) that it is helpful for managers to understand the spatial or geographical patterns of behaviour, whether international or domestic; since tourists from different regions have different behaviours and the levels of satisfaction (Phosikham *et al.*, 2015:49). Places of international fame will bring in large numbers of visitors on their own merit, while smaller regional sites will draw more domestic tourists and local recreationists, although some international tourists may visit in conjunction with larger package tours and because they are already near the site for other reasons (Chiu *et al.*, 2013:90). Chiu *et al.*'s (2013) sentiments support the findings of this study. This presents

a challenge to the management of the NMHS in Qunu/Mvezo as these sites seem to be dominated by the local visitors who appear not to understand the importance of cultural heritage sites. The understating of such sites by local communities is possible only if locals are involved in management and are made aware of the importance of these sites. This will provide local communities with a clear understanding of the existence of such and also provide knowledge on how these sites could benefit them socially and economically. Also, the locals will learn to take pride in their communities.

For marketers of NMHS, this requires aggressive marketing strategies to attract more international visitors as well as visitors from other regions of the country. The cross-tabulation results revealed a small minority of visitors who visited NMHS in Qunu/Mvezo from provinces such as Gauteng, Western Cape as well as KwaZulu-Natal. Also, the sites were visited by a small number of international visitors. This requires the marketers of the NMHS to identify means for turning their region's unique cultural heritage into sought-after attractions by generating local, national as well as international awareness. Also, a coordinated approach to promoting local cultural heritage assets is imperative. This approach will allow for the creation of new markets for local arts and crafts which will generate sources of income for locals, thereby improving quality of life and thus heightening pride in communities.

In respect to education, the cross-tabulation results revealed that respondents who had post-graduate qualifications were more likely willing to pay, followed by those who were professionals. On the other hand, respondents who had matric were not willing to pay. According to Chiu *et al.* (2013:89) on average, the cultural heritage tourists are more educated than the general public as high levels of education are the most important characteristics possessed by cultural heritage visitors. The study conducted by Richards (1996) involving 6400 respondents revealed that more than 80% of cultural heritage tourists in Europe had tertiary (university/college/trade school) education, and nearly a quarter had post-graduate education. Additionally, the study of Baez-Montenegro *et al.* (2012:248) which investigated the inhabitants' willingness to pay for cultural heritage in Valdivia, Chile, emphasised that the higher academic qualifications reflected a greater willingness to pay for the cultural goods considered. Furthermore, they added that the greater the purchase volumes of cultural goods, the higher the willingness to contribute to cultural heritage conservation. They concluded that findings of their study reflect the close relationship between willingness to pay and educational qualifications, as well as residents' accumulated cultural consumption experiences.

The findings entails that the target markets for NMHS are the people who are well-educated. If these respondents are well-educated it means that they possess money that they can spend on local cultural heritage assets. This places challenges on both the managers and markets of NMHS. For managers, this highlights the type and nature of visitors who will visit their sites and what they are looking for. This includes full understanding of the profile of this type of people. They are highly educated and thus possess money to spend in a cultural heritage sites; however, factors such as quality service, modern technology as well as good facilities might be of importance to attract as well as keep this type of market. For marketers, as it has been previously stated, independent t-tests revealed that NMHS respondents make use of magazines, travel guides (books and online) as well as travel blogs. This means that these respondents have high enough disposable incomes to spend in purchasing these media sources as well an ability to make use of them. As they are educated, they make use of the internet to read about travel blogs as well as purchase cultural heritage-related magazines. This information is very imperative for NMHS marketers to know so that they are able to market the NMHS products to the right target market effectively.

In respect to various NMHS sites, the results of the cross-tabulation analysis showed that respondents who visited sites located in urban areas as well as those that reflect international fame showed statistically significant differences. These include sites such as Robben Island and Museum, Mandela House Museum as well as the Liliesleaf Heritage Sites. These cultural heritage sites influence respondents to be willing to pay. As previously mentioned, this supports Chiu *et al.* (2013:90) who maintained that places of international fame bring in large numbers of visitors on their own merit, while smaller regional sites draw more domestic tourists and local recreationists. Again, this underlines concerns about marketing strategies employed by marketers of NHMS as well the extent to which NMHS products attract national and international visitors.

Lastly, the results of the cross-tabulation analysis revealed no statistically significant differences for aspects of transport. However, some aspects revealed small levels of effect sizes, namely, sedan; 2x4/bakkie; transfer tours and leisure vehicles. The respondents who make use of these aspects are likely to be willing to pay. On the other hand, the results showed aspects that were less likely influencing willingness to pay, namely, taxi, kombi and 4x4. To managers of the NMHS, this entails the availability of shuttle services that can be used as transfer tours for cultural heritage tourists and this also challenges the local government as well the district municipalities to provide good

infrastructure such as roads, bridges in order to cater for the market that utilises both sedans as well leisure vehicles.

5.4.4 Summary

The purpose of this analysis was to determine how much the demographic, behavioural as well factors of memorable experience within NMHS influence visitors to be willing to pay. It was found that the Eastern Cape respondents are not willing to pay whereas Gauteng respondents are likely to be willing to pay. Moreover, the study revealed that cultural heritage respondents possess post-graduate qualification and are also professionals. Furthermore, the study showed that Robben Island and Museum, Mandela House Museum as well as Liliesleaf Heritage Site are statistically significant in willingness to pay. Additionally, for aspects of transport, sedan, 2x4/bakkie, transfer tours as well as leisure vehicles are likely to influence willingness to pay.

The next phase of the research places emphasis on the extent to which the variables arising from socio-demographic, behavioural and factor aspects determine how much (in monetary) respondents are willing to pay. This is an important phase as it influences the main aim of this study, willingness to pay.

5.5 DETERMINANTS OF AMOUNT WILLING TO PAY

The aim of the fourth phase of this study was to see how aspects of socio-demographics, behavioural characteristics as well as factors of memorable visitor experience influenced how much respondents are willing to pay. For this aim to be achieved correlation and regression analyses were conducted, firstly, to see whether there were correlations between the various aspects and the amounts respondents indicated they would pay, a correlation analysis using a Spearman's rho was done to see what came out as significant. In order to do this, the data were firstly dummy-coded into 0s and 1s (refer to Table 5.12). The dependent variable was defined as "1" if a respondent is willing to pay more in order to visit NMHS, and defined as "0" if a respondent is not willing to pay more for visiting NMHS.

As noted above, Spearman's rank order correlations were calculated to determine the nature and strength of the correlations between the identified aspects of socio-demographic and behavioural factors and how much respondents are willing to pay. The correlation coefficient is a standardised measure of an observed effect and is a commonly used measure of the size of an effect. Values of 0.1 represent a small effect,

± 0.3 is a medium effect and ± 0.5 is a large effect (Field, 2009:170). A positive value (+) indicates a positive correlation between two variables while a negative value (-) indicates a negative correlation between two variables.

Table 5.12: Questions used and the descriptions

Category	Question description	Coding	Variable
Socio-demographics	Home language	isiXhosa = 1; Other = 0 Afrikaans = 1; Other = 0 English = 1; Other = 0 Other African = 1; Other = 0 Other Foreign = 1; Other = 0	LANGUAGE_ISIXHOSA LANGUAGE_AFRIKAANS LANGUAGE_ENGLISH LANGUAGE_OTHERAF LANGUAGE_OTHERFOR
	Gender	Female = 1; Male = 0	GENDER
	Age	Open question	AGE
	Province of origin	Eastern Cape = 1; Other = 0 Gauteng = 1; Other = 0 North West = 1; Other = 0	EASTERN CAPE GAUTENG NORTH WEST
	Country of residence	South Africa = 1; Other = 0	COUNTRY_R
	Level of education*	High level = 1; Other = 0	LEVEL OF EDUCATION
Behavioural	Mode of transport	4x4 = 1; Other = 0 Sedan = 1; Other = 0 Taxi = 1; Other = 0	4x4 SEDAN TAXI
Nelson Mandela Heritage Sites	Nelson Mandela Heritage Sites Visited by respondents	Rob&museum = 1; Other = 0 MandelaMus = 1; Other = 0 CaptureSite = 1; Other = 0 Votingline = 1; Other = 0 Mandelahouse = 1; Other = 0 Liliesleaf = 1; Other = 0 Qunu/Mvezo = 1; Other = 0 ConstHill = 1; Other = 0 NHBridge = 1; Other = 0 AlexYardP = 1; Other = 0 KliptownMus = 1; Other = 0 HectorP = 1; Other = 0 AlexHer = 1; Other = 0	ROB&MUSEUM MANDELAMUS CAPTURESITE VOTINGLINE MANDELAHOUSE LILIESLEAF QUNU/MVEZO CONSTHILL NHBRIDGE ALEXYARDP KLIPTOWNMUS HECTORP ALEXHER
Knowledge and feelings towards Nelson Mandela	Respondents' feelings towards Nelson Mandela	Positive feelings = 1; Negative feelings = 0	POSITIVE FEELINGS
	Willingness to pay	Yes = 1; No = 2	WILLING PAY
	Nelson Mandela knowledgeability	5-point Likert scale	KNOWLEDGE
Media Influence	Television Radio Websites Magazines Word-of-mouth Social media (Facebook, etc) Travel guides (books) Travel blogs Apps (cell phone applications) Travel guides (Online) School/University	4-point Likert scale 4-point Likert scale 4-point Likert scale 4-point Likert scale 4-point Likert scale 4-point Likert scale 4-point Likert scale 4-point Likert scale 4-point Likert scale 4-point Likert scale 4-point Likert scale	TELEVISION RADIO WEBSITE MAGAZINES WOM SOCIALMED TRAVELGUIDES TRAVELBLOGS APPS TRAVELGUIDES_a SCHOOLUNI
Media Influence Factors	Modern technology Quality service Amenities Accessibility Modern facilities Learning environments Convenience	5-point Likert scale 5-point Likert scale 5-point Likert scale 5-point Likert scale 5-point Likert scale 5-point Likert scale 5-point Likert scale	F1 F2 F3 F4 F5 F6 F7

**Diploma, degree/post-graduate/professional*

A Spearman's rho correlation was performed on the amounts willing to pay and socio-demographic, behavioural and factor variables. Tables 5.13, 5.14, and 5.15 depict the correlation among the three independent variables. Results revealed significant relationships amongst other variables; therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. Each variable is explained in detail below.

5.5.1 Spearman's rho tests of correlation on willingness to pay value and socio-demographic aspects

A Spearman's Rho correlation coefficient revealed significant correlations between *isiXhosa*, *other African languages*, and *Eastern Cape* towards how much respondents are willing to pay. The Spearman's Rho correlation coefficient revealed a negative significant correlation between the isiXhosa speaking respondents and the value they place on willingness to pay, $r_s(337) = -.135, p = .013$. This entails that isiXhosa people are more likely to pay less for visiting NMHS. A Spearman's rho correlation for other African languages and amounts willing to pay was demonstrated. The correlation revealed a positive significant correlation $r_s(337) = .187, p = .001$ which had a relatively small effect. This entails that respondents who speak other languages were more inclined to pay more. A spearman's Rho correlation between the respondents from the Eastern Cape and how much they were willing to pay revealed a negative correlation, $r_s(340) = -.184, p = .001$ and showed a small effect. The results show that respondents from the Eastern Cape will likely pay less to visit NMHS. The results of the Spearman's correlation coefficient (r_s) between amounts willing to pay and socio-demographic aspects are presented in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13: Spearman's rho test between amounts willing to pay and socio-demographic variables

SPEARMAN'S RHO TEST	Correlation Coefficient	1.000
REG_Gender	Correlation Coefficient	-.069
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.206
	N	339
AGE	Correlation Coefficient	-.019
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.724
	N	338
LANGUAGE_ISIXHOSA	Correlation Coefficient	-.135*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013
	N	337
LANGUAGE_AFRIKAANS	Correlation Coefficient	.023
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.679
	N	337
LANGUAGE_ENGLISH	Correlation Coefficient	.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.998
	N	337
LANGUAGE_OTHERAF	Correlation Coefficient	.187**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
	N	337
LANGUAGE_OTHERFOR	Correlation Coefficient	.017
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.750
	N	337
EASTERN_CAPE	Correlation Coefficient	-.184**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
	N	340
GAUTENG	Correlation Coefficient	.087
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.111
	N	340
NORTH_WEST	Correlation Coefficient	.048
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.375
	N	340
COUNTRY_R	Correlation Coefficient	-.066
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.225
	N	340
LEVEL_OF_EDUCATION	Correlation Coefficient	.019
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.724
	N	338

*small correlation ($\rho=0.10-.29$), **medium correlation ($\rho=0.30-0.49$), ***large correlation ($\rho=0.50-1.0$)

5.5.2 Spearman's rho tests of correlation between amounts willing to pay and behavioural variables

To determine if statistically significant relationship existed between amounts willing to pay and selected behavioural variables, Spearman's rho correlation coefficient was performed on the data. The analysis was done in order determine the aspects that influence how much respondents are willing to pay. The null hypothesis was rejected because results from the correlation revealed four statistically significant relationships, which are shown in Table 5.11. *Robben Island and Museum*, $r_s(326) = .181$, $p = .001$, and *Alexandra Heritage Precinct*, $r_s(326) = .150$, $p = .006$, had a small effect, whilst *travel blogs*, $r_s(229) = .140$, $p = .034$, and *Hector Pieterse Museum*, $r_s(326) = .111$, $p = .044$, and had a small positive relationship with the amount willing to pay. *Sedan* had a small, negative relation (340) $= -.112$, $p = .039$, to amounts willing to pay. Also, *apps* had a small effect to amounts willing to pay, $r_s(234) = .119$, $p = .069$. The results of the Spearman's correlation coefficient (r_s) between the amounts willing to pay and behavioural aspects are presented in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14: Spearman's rho test between amounts willing to pay and behavioural variables

	Correlation efficient	
4x4	Correlation Efficient	.074
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.172
	N	340
Sedan	Correlation Coefficient	-.112*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.039
	N	340
Taxi	Correlation Coefficient	-.075
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.166
	N	340
Robben Island & Museum	Correlation Coefficient	.181**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
	N	326
Mandela Museum	Correlation Coefficient	.024
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.660
	N	326
CAPTURESITE	Correlation Coefficient	.081
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.142
	N	326
VOTINGLINE	Correlation Coefficient	.038
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.500
	N	326
MANDELAHOUSE	Correlation Coefficient	.024
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.671

	N	326
LILIESLEAF	Correlation Coefficient	.049
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.375
	N	326
QUNU/MVEZO	Correlation Coefficient	.049
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.376
	N	326
CONSTHILL	Correlation Coefficient	-.022
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.695
	N	326
NHBRIDGE	Correlation Coefficient	.044
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.426
	N	326
ALEXYARDP	Correlation Coefficient	.054
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.329
	N	326
KLIPTOWNMUS	Correlation Coefficient	.097
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.081
	N	326
HECTORP	Correlation Coefficient	.111*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.044
	N	326
ALEXHER	Correlation Coefficient	.150**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.006
	N	326
KNOWLEDGE	Correlation Coefficient	.101
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.064
	N	338
POSITIVE_FEELINGS	Correlation Coefficient	-.025
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.652
	N	340
TELEVISION	Correlation Coefficient	.021
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.701
	N	334
RADIO	Correlation Coefficient	-.029
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.610
	N	322
WEBSITE	Correlation Coefficient	.080
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.173
	N	289
MAGAZINE	Correlation Coefficient	.011
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.859
	N	280
NEWSPAPER	Correlation Coefficient	-.028

	Sig. (2-tailed)	.637
	N	291
WOM	Correlation Coefficient	-.031
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.596
	N	304
SOCIALMED	Correlation Coefficient	.054
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.381
	N	268
TRAVELGUIDES	Correlation Coefficient	.072
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.270
	N	235
TRAVELBLOGS	Correlation Coefficient	.140*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.034
	N	229
APPS	Correlation Coefficient	.119
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.069
	N	234
TRAVEL GUIDE_a	Correlation Coefficient	.035
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.602
	N	223
SCHOOLUNI	Correlation Coefficient	.079
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.206
	N	257

*small correlation ($\rho=0.10-.29$), **medium correlation ($\rho=0.30-0.49$), ***large correlation ($\rho=0.50-1.0$)

5.5.3 Spearman's rho tests of correlation on amounts willing to pay and factors of memorable visitor experience

Spearman's rho correlation coefficient was performed to determine whether relationships exist between amounts willing to pay and factors of memorable visitor experience variables. The analysis revealed a relationship between one of the seven factors. F2: Quality service revealed a small negative relationship, $r_s(333) = -.141, p = .010$. This means that quality service has no relationship with amounts people are willing to pay. This entails that this group of people will still pay, but will pay less than other people. The results of the Spearman's correlation coefficient (r_s) between amounts willing to pay and aspects of memorable factors are presented in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15: Spearman's rho test between amounts willing to pay and factors of memorable visitor experience

Spearman's rho test	Correlation Coefficient	
F1	Correlation Coefficient	-.024
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.660
	N	333
F2	Correlation Coefficient	-.141*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.010
	N	333
F3	Correlation Coefficient	-.002
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.970
	N	318
F4	Correlation Coefficient	-.048
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.380
	N	333
F5	Correlation Coefficient	-.078
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.164
	N	322
F6	Correlation Coefficient	-.072
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.195
	N	330
F7	Correlation Coefficient	-.035
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.532
	N	328

*small correlation ($\rho=0.10-.29$), **medium correlation ($\rho=0.30-0.49$),

***large correlation ($\rho=0.50-1.0$)

5.5.4 Findings pertaining to determinants of amounts willing to pay

Pertaining to the socio-demographic characteristics, only three correlations were significant. However, these correlations had both negative and positive relationships. The respondents who speak African languages showed a positive relationship to amounts willing to pay. However, those who speak isiXhosa and whose province of origin is the Eastern Cape showed a negative relationship to amounts they are willing to pay. This indicates that this group of respondents tend to pay less. It has been mentioned before that this might be caused by a number of factors. Firstly, isiXhosa-speaking respondents originate from the Eastern Cape, where Nelson Mandela was born. This entails that these respondents might be less willing to pay as NMHS is part of their Xhosa culture and thus see no reason to pay in order to visit. Secondly, the Eastern Cape is the poorest province in the country which could mean that respondents do not have disposable incomes to pay more in order to visit NMHS. Thirdly, it could mean that these respondents lack substantial knowledge on the imperativeness of NMHS in their

region and the reasons behind supporting it through willingness to pay. Kim *et al.* (2007:320) maintain that the richer an individual is, the higher the agreement of a given price offer is. Thus the findings are consistent with the study of Tohmo (2004) who investigated the factors that influence the economic value of the Museum of Central Finland in Jyväskylä. The study revealed that Jyväskylä residents contributed less in to the Museums of Central Finland than they report that they are willing to pay.

With regards to behavioural characteristics, five correlations were significant. These included sedans which had a negative relationship. This could mean that respondents who drive sedans (their private cars) might not want to drive all the way to see the sites meaning that visits to these sites might work better as part of packaged holiday deals where people do not have to go out of their way in order to visit. In support of this sentiment, the study of Casurao and Rebollo (2015) revealed that the tourists who visited Davao City in Philippines preferred public transport such as taxis or organised group transport because they are relatively cheap, there is no need to find parking and one can sit back and rest while letting someone else do the driving. Furthermore, Robben Island and Museum, Alexandra Heritage Precinct, Hector Pieterse Museum and travel blogs showed a positive association. This indicates that these variables serve as determinants of willingness to pay for visitors to the NMHS. In respect to heritage sites the results are similar to the study of Cegielski, Janeczko, Mules and Wells (2000) who conducted a study on the economic value of tourism to places of cultural heritage significance in three mining towns in Australia. When comparing the flows of visitors within these towns, especially international and regional visitors, the study results revealed that Charters Towers appeared to be more successful in attracting international visitors as well as regional visitors. The authors argued that both the Maldon and Burra towns face a lack of development (Cegielski *et al.*, 2000:10) whilst Charters Towers is currently experiencing an economic boom through the resurgence of the mining industry. Another study has been conducted by Lakkanaadisorn (2013) on willingness to pay for heritage interpretation for the historic city of Ayutthaya. The study findings revealed that the link between the locality of the respondent's residence province and Ayutthaya province is not a statistically significant variable. The author argued that local visitors who live in Ayutthaya province are supposed to be individuals who should have been in the market, meaning, willing to pay for the improved heritage interpretation of the Historic City of Ayutthaya located in their province residence, however, they were not in the market, thus not willing to pay.

The above case is no different for NMHS. It is of interest to note that respondents that showed positive relationship to amounts willing to pay for the above mentioned sites are those whose localities are in the big cities as compared to Qunu/Mvezo museum located in rural setting. Also, these outstanding sites might be of interest to the respondents as they bare tragic realities of the past, making people feel more personal feelings as compared to Qunu/Mvezo which serve as a birth place for the former late president.

As one type of source of information, travel blogs came out significantly as a determinant for amounts people are willing to pay. This indicates that travel blogs encouraged NMHS respondents to be more willing to pay in order to visit NMHS. In support of this, Pan, MacLaurin and Crotts (2006) conducted a study in the Charleston area, South Carolina to gain insight into the meaning of travel blogs and their relationship to a specific tourist destination. The characteristics of bloggers and blogs revealed travel blogs as the manifestation of travel experience (Pan *et al.*, 2006:31). The authors identified three major popular travel blogs sites through searches on Google. From this, the authors learned that all the sites had a directory of blogs which has a hierarchical structure of continents, countries, states, and cities. For Charleston, more than 40 blogs from the three sites were downloaded which contained content relating to visitor experience in Charleston. In these blogs, every aspect of the travel experience, from visiting attractions and dining at restaurants, to relatively ancillary activities such as camping all become the major content of blogging and constituted a part of the travel experience. Additionally, travel blogs qualitatively covered every aspect of a visitor's trip, from the overall experience of travelling, the anticipation, planning, packing, departure, flying and delays *en route* were all reflected in the travel blogs. Moreover, the analysis on the blogs revealed strengths and weaknesses of the tourist destination. The authors concluded that travel blogs are effective in assisting and enticing visitors to choose a cultural heritage destination. Also, others studies agree to this by arguing that blogs, as "push-button publishing for people", have gained more and more popularity (Cayzer, 2004); as there are currently 31.6 million blogs on the internet (Perseus, 2005); with 40,000 new blogs coming online each day (Baker & Green, 2005). Internet blogs have important implications for destination marketers that have also been overlooked by researchers (Pan *et al.*, 2006:5).

Lastly, for memorable experience factors, F2- *Quality service* revealed a small negative correlation towards amounts willing to pay. An assumption can be made that the better the quality that is expected, the lesser the extent to which people are willing to pay more. Perhaps people with more disposable income might be used to good service quality and

thus expect it to be present without paying extra for it. As discussed in the literature review, previous research indicated that quality experience is an essential ingredient of cultural heritage tourism (Hargrove, 1999).

5.5.5 Summary

The purpose of this section was to identify variables of socio-demographic characteristics, behavioural characteristics as well as factors of memorable visitor experience that serve as a determinant amount of how much respondents are willing to pay. It was found that isiXhosa speaking respondents will pay less, whilst other African languages will pay more. This raises concerns about the reasons why local respondents would not be willing to pay more; whether they really do know their distinctive cultural resources; how these resources can be of value to them economically and otherwise. Nkwanyana (2012:45) argue that for cultural heritage tourism, there is a lot that still needs to be done in terms of managing, sustaining and promoting cultural heritage tourism especially in rural areas. If local communities are not aware of the value that cultural heritage tourism provides, they are likely to lack knowledge on the importance of its preservation.

Furthermore, this study advises managers and marketers on guidelines with proper advertising and promotion of cultural heritage sites. The results showed that travel blogs as a source of information encourage respondents to be willing to pay more.

5.6 PREDICTORS OF AMOUNT WILLING TO PAY

In an attempt to determine how independent variables (socio-demographic and behavioural aspects) predict the dependent variable (amount willing to pay), a stepwise linear regression analysis was performed in this study.

5.6.1 Stepwise linear regression analysis

In this last phase all the items that revealed significant loadings in Spearman's rho tests were placed into the regression analysis to better understand how it can predict the dependent variable (amount willing to pay). Table 5.16 shows that travel blogs and sedans were the only significant variables for predicting whether respondents are willing to pay more or less, $F(0.60) = 6.660$, $p < 0.001$. The negative sign indicates that respondents who preferred a sedan as mode of transport ($\beta = -.160$, $p = 0.019$) will most likely pay less. However, the positive sign indicates that respondents whose source

of information has been strongly influenced by travel blogs are willing to pay more (beta = .194, $p=0.004$).

Table 5.16: Aspects as predictors of amount willing to pay

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
	(Constant)	73,420	43,667		1.681	.094
	TRAVELBLOGS	60,123	20,850	.194	2.884	.004
	Sedan	-91,922	38,861	-.160	-2.365	.019

5.6.2 Findings and summary pertaining to predictors of amount willing to pay

In the regression analysis, the beta coefficients could be used to explain the relative importance of the aspects (independent variables) in contributing to the variance in willingness to pay (dependent variable). As far as the relative importance of the aspects is concerned, travel blogs ($B2=.194$, $p=0.004$) carried the heaviest weight for respondents' willingness to pay. The results revealed travel blogs as the major strength of the NMHS. Therefore, marketers of NMHS need to promote transformation of the image of NMHS.

5.7 CONCLUSION

The aim of chapter 5 was five-fold. The results of the first phase analysed the profile characteristics of NMHS respondents. This included both their socio-demographic characteristics and their behavioural characteristics. The study results showed that NMHS respondents feel positively about Nelson Mandela and they are willing to pay in order to visit NMHS. This is evidenced by the 89% of the respondents who responded that they are willing to pay.

In the second phase, the study analysed the attributes that create a memorable visitor experience from the 43 attributes that were included in the research instruments. The attributes which were highly related or similar to each other were considered within each factor which constituted seven factors of a memorable visitor experience, namely, F1-Modern technology, F2-Quality service, F3-Ammenities, F4-Accessability, F5-Modern facilities, F6-Learning environment, and F7-convenience. Out of these seven memorable visitor experience factors identified, the analysis identified F2-Quality service factor as the most important aspect of memorable visitor experience for a cultural heritage site such as the NMHS. This entails that respondents prefer to visit a cultural heritage site whose staff are neat, friendly, willing to assist and knowledgeable pertaining to all

aspects of the site. Also, it means that the site itself should be easily accessible, clean, its facilities maintained and with a proper contextualising of history.

The third phase employed both the independent t-tests and cross-tabulations to determine how much the demographic, behavioural as well factors of memorable experience within NMHS influence visitors to be willing to pay. It was found that the Eastern Cape respondents are not willing to pay whereas Gauteng respondents are likely to be willing to pay. Moreover, the study revealed that cultural heritage respondents possess post-graduate qualification and are also professionals. Furthermore, the study showed that Robben Island and Museum, Mandela House Museum as well as Liliesleaf Heritage Site are statistically significant in willingness to pay. Additionally, for aspects of transport, sedan, 2x4/bakkie, transfer tours as well as leisure vehicles are likely to influence willingness to pay.

The purpose of the fourth phase was to identify variables of socio-demographics, behavioural characteristics as well as factors of memorable experience that serve as a determinant of the amount respondents are willing to pay. For this phase to be achieved, correlation analysis using Spearman's rho tests was done to see what came out as significant in these aspects. It was found that isiXhosa-speaking respondents will pay less, whilst other African language-speakers will pay more. This raises concerns as to the reasons why local respondents would not be willing to pay more; whether they really do know their distinctive cultural resources; how these resources can be of value to them economically and otherwise. Nkwanyana (2012:45) argues that for cultural heritage tourism, there is a lot that still needs to be done in terms of managing, sustaining and promoting cultural heritage tourism especially in rural areas. If local communities are not aware of the value that cultural heritage tourism provides, they are likely to lack knowledge on the importance of its preservation. Furthermore, the results showed that travel blogs as a source of information type encourages respondents to be willing to pay more.

In an attempt to determine how independent variables (socio-demographics and behavioural aspects) predict the dependent variable (amount willing to pay), a stepwise linear regression analysis was performed in the fifth phase. From the results, travel blogs ($B2=0.194$, $p=0.004$) carried the heaviest weight for respondents' willingness to pay.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

“It always seems impossible until it’s done”
(Nelson Mandela).

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of Chapter 6 is to discuss the results of this study according to the aims and objectives of this dissertation. This will inform the formulation of conclusions and recommendations for this study.

The main goal of this study was to determine the willingness of people to pay for visiting NMHS, with specific reference to valuation of cultural heritage sites. In order to achieve this goal, various objectives were set in Chapter 1 and achieved in the subsequent chapters.

- The first objective was to analyse the concept of cultural heritage tourism and how this concept relates to cultural heritage sites which encapsulates the history of apartheid whilst interpreted as an integral part of the new South African national identity. To achieve this, the study critically studied the development of cultural heritage tourism worldwide and how this alternative form of tourism has grown over the years. The terms “cultural tourism” and “heritage tourism” were critically examined in order to fully understand the term “cultural heritage tourism”. A theoretical background of what history is was used as cultural heritage to promote regions as tourism destinations were discussed. This assisted in the understanding of the new class of cultural heritage attractions representative of the new rainbow nation of the explicitly multiracial South Africa. Moreover, both the profile characteristics and the typology of cultural heritage tourists were examined in order to know who cultural heritage tourists are and what their behaviour is when they travel as well as what cultural heritage tourism activities, facilities and services meet their needs. Furthermore, the role that cultural heritage tourism plays in achieving economic, social as well as environmental benefits was critically analysed. Also, authenticity in cultural heritage tourism destinations was discussed. Lastly, tourism and cultural heritage tourism were discussed both in South African and Eastern Cape contexts. This assisted in understanding the evolution of cultural heritage tourism and how it has been used

to promote tourism growth as well as enhancing the social well-being of locals. This was thoroughly analysed in the first literature review (Chapter 2).

- The second objective critically analysed valuation of cultural heritage goods. This was done with a focus on developing cultural heritage sites such as NMHS. This assisted in an understanding of how and why cultural heritage goods are valued through methods that are used to determine willingness to pay. To achieve this, international case studies were used as a reference for valuing NMHS. This information is captured in the second literature review in Chapter 3.
- The third objective was to determine whether respondents are willing to pay or not in order to visit NMHS as well as amounts willing to pay. This assisted in identifying variables that influenced willingness to pay as well as variables that served as determinants and predictors of amounts willing to pay. This was achieved in Chapter 5.
- The fourth and final objective is to draw conclusions, complete the critical review and make recommendations pertaining to the literature review, the results of the study as well as to draw comparisons between literature and the empirical findings.

The purpose of this chapter is thus to achieve this final objective of the study. This will be done by drawing conclusions according to the objectives, making recommendations for the study and future studies. Lastly attention is given to the limitations of the study.

6.2 RESEARCH CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions can be drawn with regard to the research done in this dissertation:

- Conclusions with regard to the analysis of cultural heritage tourism encapsulated from the history of apartheid whilst interpreted as an integral part of the rainbow nation (objective 1);
- Conclusions with regard to the critical analysis of valuation of cultural heritage goods, looking at why and how valuation is done (objective 2); and
- Conclusions with regards to the determination of willingness to pay as well as amounts willing to pay (objective 3).

6.2.1 Conclusions with regard to the analysis of cultural heritage tourism, encapsulated from the history of apartheid whilst interpreted as an integral part of the rainbow nation

The following are regarded as the main conclusions with respect to research objective 1 (c.f.1.4.2):

- Tourism has been firmly established as the number one and fastest growing industry in many countries with cultural heritage considered to be its main component. The diversity and popular appeal of cultural heritage attractions have made cultural heritage tourism a major area of growth and a special interest type of tourism (c.f.2.1).
- In order to understand cultural heritage tourism and how it is used to promote economic growth of economically depressed regions while enhancing the socio-economic well-being of its indigenous citizens, the researcher first looked at cultural heritage tourism in context, looking at how cultural heritage tourism is viewed both in a global as well as South African perspective.
- Many destinations are aggressively marketing their cultural heritage tourism products in order to encourage more visitors to visit their destinations (c.f.2.2).
- 40% of all trips undertaken world-wide are the results of cultural heritage component (c.f. 2.2).
- South Africa capitalises on aspects of cultural heritage tourism such as township tourism, cultural heritage routes, iconic routes, political cultural heritage sites, cultural villages, urban tourism as well as museums and is experiencing a spectacular expansion of international tourist arrivals (c.f.2.2). These aspects form part of cultural heritage tourism products.
- Cultural heritage tourism is the simultaneous consumption of both cultural tourism and heritage tourism. Cultural tourism includes all movements of persons to specific cultural attractions, such as heritage sites, artistic and cultural manifestations, arts and drama outside their normal place of residence (c.f.2.3.1). Heritage tourism includes both the tangible (sites, structures, cultures, human activities and events) and intangible (traditions, folklore and customs) (c.f.2.3.2). Cultural heritage tourism is tourism that is based on cultural tourism and heritage tourism in which cultural tourism and heritage tourism simultaneously are the central elements of the tourism products (c.f.2.3.4).
- Cultural heritage is frequently linked to history (c.f.2.4). History is present in various historical events and elements that are not condoned nor preserved as heritage and therefore not passed down to future generations (c.f.2.4)

- Because of contentious issues in cultural heritage versus history in selecting the past which is the most representative of a particular cultural heritage site historical narrative transmitted through cultural heritage are selective (c.f.2.4).
- For an example, South African cultural heritage tourism products are frequently linked to history which consists of selective fragments of the past incorporated into a new South Africa's miracle democracy (c.f.2.4).
- Cultural heritage tourists are people who visit or intend to visit a cultural heritage attraction, museum or historic site, attend a performance or festival, or participate in a wide range of activities (c.f.2.5.1). There are various factors that influence cultural heritage tourists. These factors can include profile characteristics as well typology of cultural heritage tourists. Profile characteristics can include gender, age and level of education, occupation, income and region of residence (c.f.2.5.2). Types of cultural heritage tourists can include purposeful, sightseeing, serendipitous, casual as well as incidental cultural heritage tourists (c.f.2.5.3).
- Cultural heritage is used to maximise the benefits of economic, social as well environmental within a particular region (c.f.2.6).
- Examples of these benefits include :
 - o Economic benefits (c.f.2.6.1)
 - Increased employment opportunities
 - Creation of new business opportunities
 - Stimulation of local economies
 - Improved standards of living
 - Improved investments and development
 - o Social benefits (c.f.2.6.2)
 - Improvement of general living standards for all communities
 - Heightening of pride in community
 - Provision of education for educational experiences
 - Improvement of understanding of different cultures
 - Gaining of usable skills by local communities
 - o Environmental benefits (c.f.2.6.3)
 - Improves area's appearance
 - Protects selected environments
 - Preserves historic buildings and monuments
 - Establishes a clean environment
 - Creates awareness of the importance of green industry

- When referring to the above discussions, destinations are faced with the notion of providing authentic cultural heritage tourism experiences. Authenticity presents an opportunity to portray the past in the present as a means of staged authenticity, which presents the visitors with the salient features of a community's cultural heritage whilst reducing the need for encroaching on the private space of the host population (c.f.2.7). Staged authenticity is a result of host communities' quest to deliver goods and services that perform better than other destinations as well as to protect their cultural heritage from demanding tourists who are willing to pay for exotic and unique cultural heritage experiences (c.f.2.7).
- In South Africa, Nelson Mandela's release from prison marks the start of the transition from the apartheid government to a democratically elected government which successfully opened up the doors of South Africa to the rest of the world, paving the way for a previously isolated tourism industry (c.f.2.8.1).
- As a result, tourism arrivals have increased significantly, leading to government recognising the tourism sector to create employment, alleviate poverty and catalyse the construction of infrastructure in rural communities (c.f.2.8.1).
- In order to ensure growth and success of tourism and cultural heritage tourism, policies and legislation are created in South Africa to provide guidance on how potential could be harnessed (c.f.2.8.2).
- These policies and legislation include (c.f.2.8.2):
 - o Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP, 1994) (c.f.2.8.2.1)
 - The RDP identified tourism as a potential sector that can be used to eradicate poverty among the poor, particularly in rural areas.
 - o White paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism Development (1996) (c.f.2.8.2.2)
 - The White Paper provided directions and guidelines for the development of innovative programmes where the community members themselves can become participants within the tourism sector to reduce inequalities as well as creating opportunities for economic growth.
 - o National Tourism Sector Strategy (NTSS, 2011) (c.f.2.8.2.3)
 - The NTSS seeks to promote rural tourism practices within the sector and unlock tourism economic development at provincial and local levels through the development of cultural heritage products especially new niches with a specific focus on South Africa icons and routes.

- o National Heritage and Cultural Tourism Strategy (NHCTS, 2012) (c.f.2.8.2.4)
 - The NHCTS serves to guide and provide strategic direction for the development and promotion of cultural heritage tourism in South Africa.
- However, in South Africa there is an absence of cultural heritage purpose for the visit, meaning there is no measurement of the volume and value of foreign and domestic market (c.f.2.8.3). Lack of statistical data makes it difficult to make any comparisons in both the national as well as international trends (c.f.2.8.3). Currently, lack of statistical data is substituted by data on the propensity for cultural heritage consumption derived from international tourists on holiday, business and VFR tourists as they comprise the leisure segment which consume cultural heritage as a secondary motivation (c.f.2.8.3).
- Also, the development of cultural heritage tourism is faced with some critical challenges (c.f.2.8.4). South African cultural heritage products are not properly standardised, well presented, not properly interpreted, and not properly marketed and packaged (c.f.2.8.4.1). The cultural heritage sector remains unregulated with its product often underperforming in terms of authenticity and uniqueness (c.f.2.8.4.1).
- Communities are still an isolated part of the total tourism product and are not integrated and involved in the development of tourism (c.f.2.8.4.2).
- The emergence of cultural heritage tourism as a new type of mass tourism lacks a comprehensive national strategic focus, an integrated approach to its development, branding as a uniquely South African class of cultural heritage (c.f.2.8.4.3).
- In South Africa cultural heritage tourism is still researched to a lesser extent as only few studies have been undertaken (c.f.2.8.5). These studies highlight a limited number of existing works on cultural villages, cultural heritage routes, cultural heritage sites, arts and festivals (c.f.2.8.5). Their findings also reveal a lack of the South African government strategic focus regarding cultural heritage tourism (c.f.2.8.5).
- Foreign tourism market share in provinces such as the Eastern Cape continues to decline both in volume and value (2.8.6.3). This is despite the province endowed with rich authentic cultural heritage, which is currently dominating the cultural heritage consumption in South Africa (2.8.6.5). The province has significant cultural, historical as well as liberal potential, however, products related thereto

are largely undeveloped, and require extensive intervention marketing and information provision (c.f.2.8.6.5).

- From this literature review, it has become clear that it is important to contribute knowledge on cultural heritage tourism. Cultural heritage tourism has potential to develop previously disadvantaged communities who possess rich cultural heritage products. For this reason, heritage sites such as NMHS can be valued as they have potential for preserving and communicating the country's historic legacy while also being used to generate financial as well as social benefits using resources within communities.

6.2.2 Conclusions with regard to the critical analysis of valuation of cultural heritage goods, looking at why and how valuation is done

The following are regarded as the main conclusions with respect to research objective 2 (c.f.1.4.2):

- Many cultural heritage products often include non-market goods (c.f.3.1).
- In an effort to capture the understanding of the value for cultural heritage goods the concept of economic value is used to measure these non-market goods within the standard economic model, reflecting the worth of the goods when assessed in cultural heritage terms (c.f.3.2).
- The concept of Total Economic Value (TEV) is applied to the valuation of cultural heritage sites (c.f.3.3). TEV is categorised between two concepts, namely, use values and non-use values (c.f.3.3).
- Categories of TEV (c.f.3.3):
 - o Use values
 - Direct use values
 - Refers to the utilitarian value that can be derived from cultural heritage, e.g. visit to the historic sites)
 - Indirect use values
 - Refers to the additional value that arises in participation in cultural activities, e.g. general cognitive skills fostered by cultural engagement)
 - o Non-use values
 - Option value

- Refers to the value individuals place on themselves or others having the option to consume and enjoy cultural heritage at some point in future.
 - Existence value
 - Value related to the satisfaction that individuals derive from the mere knowledge that cultural heritage exists even though they will not consume the good.
 - Bequest value
 - Value attached by individuals because they wish to pass on heritage assets to future generations
- Non-use values have been found to make up a significant portion of the TEV of cultural heritage (c.f.3.3).
 - Valuation of cultural heritage goods requires effective assessment methods that can be used to measure value in economic terms (c.f.3.4). Economists have developed a range of these methods to understand value in cultural heritage setting and are referred to as non-market valuation techniques and are used to measure willingness to pay for cultural heritage assets (c.f.3.4).
 - There are two methods of assessing willingness to pay for cultural heritage assets within the cultural heritage discipline (c.f.3.4):
 - o Revealed preference techniques (c.f.3.4.1)
 - These techniques are used as an approach to capture preference based valuations based on what people actually do markets. They include Travel Cost Method (TCM) which uses the amount of effort expended in travelling to a site to estimate the value visitors place on the particular non-market good (3.4.1.1); as well as Hedonic Pricing Method (HPM) which is commonly applied to variations in housing prices that reflect the value of local heritage attributes used to estimate economic benefits associated with listed heritage (3.4.1.2).
 - o Stated preference techniques (c.f.3.4.2)
 - These techniques are used to capture the users and non-users valuation of cultural heritage. They comprise Choice Modelling (CM) where respondents are presented with various alternative descriptions of a good, differentiated by their attributes and levels, and asked to rate them or to choose their most preferred

(c.f.3.4.2.1); as well as Contingent Valuation Method (CVM) which assesses willingness to pay (c.f. 3.4.2.2).

- CVM is a preferred method in the cultural heritage setting (c.f.3.4.2.2)
- Both the biases and reliability of CVM have been explored by academics through voluminous literature over the past decade contributing to a wealth of knowledge about proper CVM designs (c.f.3.4.2.2).
- As a reference, this study reviewed international willingness to pay for studies in cultural heritage tourism to inform the views of this study (c.f.3.5).
- There are a limited number of studies on CVM for cultural heritage resources world-wide, with the researcher finding none on South African cultural heritage sites studies (c.f.3.6).
- Previous research suggest that cultural heritage tourism is increasingly important as an engine of growth and development for countries such as South Africa as there are still problems of high unemployment levels, significant poverty rates and inequalities. Recent studies argue that cultural heritage has the potential to assist government in achieving macroeconomic goals, yet little research has been done on this topic.
- It is the purpose of this study to contribute to the notion of valuing cultural heritage goods which is the most powerful way to best capture and present evidence for the value and significance of cultural heritage in South Africa.

6.2.3 Conclusions with regards to the determination of willingness to pay as well as amounts willing to pay

The following are regarded as the main conclusions with respect to empirical research conducted to complete objective 3 (c.f.1.4.2):

- A large number of respondents are willing to pay more in order to visit NMHS; with only a small minority of respondents not willing to pay (c.f.5.2.3.1).
- They are willing to pay because they want to protect these sites for the future generations; they believe they create job opportunities; and also for belief that they a valuable educational contribution (c.f.5.2.3.2).
- Respondents consider quality service to be the most important factor that contributes to their willingness to pay (c.f.5.3.1)
- When examining influencers on willingness to pay, the respondents from the Eastern Cape, where the NMHS studied is located did not influence willingness to

pay as compared to respondents from other provinces such Gauteng (Robben Island and Museum and Liliesleaf Heritage Sites) which greatly influenced willingness to pay (c.f.5.4.2.1). Also, when examining levels of education, those with post-graduate or professional qualifications are more likely to pay, while those with only matric are less likely to pay (c.f.5.4.2.1). Moreover, those who travel with transport such as sedan, 2x4/bakkie, transfer tours, and leisure vehicles are more likely to pay, while those who make use of a taxi, kombi or 4x4 are less willing to pay (c.f.5.4.2.2).

- When examining variables that determine amounts people are willing to pay, isiXhosa-speaking respondents were found to be willing to pay less when compared with other African language speakers who are willing to pay more (c.f.5.5.1). This indicates that local respondents are not willing to support cultural heritage tourism. When examining sources of media as variables that determine amounts willing to pay, travel blogs encourage respondents to be willing to pay more (c.f.5.5.2).
- When examining variables that predict amounts willing to pay, travel blogs carried the heaviest weight for respondents' willingness to pay (c.f.5.6). This has implications for development and marketing of NMHS as a tourist destination (c.f.5.6.2).
- The results of this research show that WTP varies considerably among the population and among sub-groups identified in accordance with their attitude towards cultural heritage. Although people are WTP, however, they their WTP varied. This suggest that managers and marketers should ensure that they meet the needs of the cultural heritage tourist to encourage, improve as well maintain WTP. Variables that encourage visitors' willingness to pay should be maintained while variables that do not influence willingness to pay should be improved.

6.3 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THIS STUDY

The following contributions are made with regards to scholarly content:

- It is the first study of its kind in the country and presents a contribution to South African cultural heritage tourism discourse as it conceptualises the concept of valuing cultural heritage goods as a gestalt phenomenon pertinent to revitalisation of poor local communities.
- NMHS has been used to determine willingness to pay. In determining willingness to pay, this study critically discussed cultural heritage tourism as well as

economic value of cultural heritage goods separately. This provides a new, unique perspective on the analysis of valuing cultural heritage assets.

- It contributed to the research pertaining to the valuing of cultural heritage sites in South Africa by determining willingness to pay for the Nelson Mandela Museum in Mthatha, Eastern Cape which is conceptualised as a single museum with three interrelated components, namely the Bhunga Building, Nelson Mandela Youth and Heritage Centre (Qunu) as well as the Mvezo homestead. These findings will enable these heritage sites and other similar heritage sites to improve their understanding and management of these sites and directly contribute to the development of cultural heritage tourism industry for these regions which in turn will enhance socio-economic well-being of the local people as well as improving their environment thereto.
- Because this study revealed that there were differences in the consumption of cultural heritage in terms of gender, age, levels of education, modes of transport, media sources, to name a few, it is hoped that the results of this study will provide some insights that may help cultural heritage tourism marketers develop specific promotional strategies. For an example, the study results show that NMHS visits are typically made by women, therefore, cultural heritage tourism marketers may keep this in mind as they develop special products and services for their market. On the other hand, this finding can be useful to the managers of these sites if they wish to enhance the number of male visitors to their sites as they can improve the standard of facilities and services that male visitors use.
- The study also revealed that visitors to NMHS are between the ages of 20-39 years and hold university degrees. This finding is also important to both the managers as well marketers to improve and provide key attributes for this market.
- Several factors identified are (in order of importance) quality service, accessibility, convenience, amenities, interpretation, technology as well as modern facilities. This finding is imperative as it is useful for the management of the NMHS in formulating strategies to develop attributes such as these in order to maintain memorable visitor experiences for its visitors. Also, this finding provides guidelines for other similar heritage sites that have not yet investigated attributes that satisfy their visitors as well keep the visitors who visit their sites. Thus, this study helps to identify the importance of cultural heritage destination attributes that create a memorable visitor experience as perceived by visitors who visit NMHS.

- The study also revealed variables that were statistically significant in influencing willingness to pay. These included magazines, travel guide (books), travel blogs, travel guides (online) and school/university, newspapers, WOM, social media and apps, Robben Island and Museum, Liliesleaf Heritage Site and Nelson Mandela House Museum. For media sources, these findings are imperative for marketers in terms of providing them with knowledge regarding sources applicable for proper marketing of these sites. The findings of heritage sites visited provide managers as well as marketers with information of the quality of visitors that visit these sites. Visitors who are willing to support these sites visit NMHS such as Robben Island and Museum, however, those who visit NMHS in Mthatha are the kind of visitors that are not willing to pay, meaning are not willing to support this site. This poses challenges on the management to make this site to be visited by both international as well as domestic visitors. Also, this finding contributes greatly in informing management of this site that a lot still needs to be done to involve local communities to fully understand the importance of existence of these sites in their local communities.
- The research contributes to literature in that it revealed that travel blogs not only influenced willingness to pay but also served as a determinant as well as predictor for amounts willing to pay. This change the way marketers promote cultural heritage products.

Finally this study will contribute to literature by publishing these findings in accredited journals for researchers and interested stakeholders to read.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Various recommendations are made regarding this study. These recommendations will be discussed in this section.

6.4.1 Managerial recommendations

The following recommendations regarding the research are made for tourism managers:

- It is important for managers to always keep in mind that visitors to NMHS are not homogeneous. It becomes imperative therefore, that managers should be able to coordinate clearly defined cultural heritage tourism strategies for their visitors that seeks to understand needs of varied visitors.

- Cultural heritage tourism managers should provide quality service to visitors of their sites. Visitors expect staff that is friendly, neat, willing to assist, knowledgeable pertaining to all aspects of heritage sites; a heritage site that is clean, its location easily accessible, having proper contextualisation of history.
- Cultural heritage tourism planners and managers should strive to generate local, national as well as international awareness of these sites. For the current study, this factor is revealed to be lacking as visitors to this area were less likely to be willing to pay. There is more that needs to be done to encourage locals to be part of these sites by not merely attending events, but fully understanding and willing to support as well as to be part in cultural heritage activities in order to improve economic vitality of these rural areas. This requires extensive educational awareness for local communities.
- Planners and managers should find ways in order to attract domestic as well international cultural heritage visitors. The results of this study reveal a small number of both domestic as well as international travellers who visit NMHS. This calls for a coordinated approach to promoting cultural heritage assets to these markets.
- Managers should ensure local communities of a basic involvement in sharing economic benefits from cultural heritage tourism.
- Local government, cultural heritage planners and managers should find strategies to deal with the declining socio-economies in rural areas of the Eastern Cape and other similar localities by making cultural heritage tourism as a complementary tool for economic and social regenerations in these rural areas.
- Local government, planners and managers should integrate cultural heritage of local communities with tourism so as to create inclusion of local communities in decision making thereby enhancing tourism's potential for local communities.

6.4.2 Marketing recommendations

The following recommendations regarding marketing of the cultural heritage sites are made:

- NMHS is not yet marketed well as it is mainly dominated by as compared to domestic as well as international. This suggests packaging of local cultural heritage products for these untapped markets.
- Marketers should adhere to the factors of memorable visitor experience. For an example, the content of brochures and web-site of NMHS should reflect clear

map and details of the area, availability of facilities for disabled persons, reveal how the site contributes to providing fun experience as well as learning as well as appropriate signage that interpret heritage sites.

- Promotion of cultural heritage products should be channelled in the right direction. This study revealed that NMHS visitors make use of travel blogs as media sources. This information is useful for NMHS marketers.

6.4.3 Limitations of study

With regard to the title of this dissertation, the researcher would like to point out some limitations and provide recommendations for future studies. The following gaps that need attention are identified:

- Firstly, the attributes chosen as independent variables could be a limitation because other attributes, which were not used in this study, could elicit dependent variables, meaning, WTP.
- Secondly, the population sample obtained through self-administered survey instrument presented some challenges due to time-constraints. This limitation resulted from a two-day measurement for data collection.
- Thirdly, the online survey posed challenges to the people who were using smart phones as the pages of the survey were too narrow for the phones, causing a large number of respondents to not complete the survey, thereby limiting the number of respondents who could have also contributed.
- Fourthly, unlike the self-administered survey which was accompanied by the letter explaining the purpose of the survey, the link of the online questionnaire did not. This presented challenges for other respondents as they did not understand the purpose of the research.
- Fifthly, the NMHS is not representative of all cultural heritage destinations, as the respondents were mainly locals.

6.4.4 Recommendations for future research

The following recommendations are made pertaining to future research on this subject:

- In South Africa the questions still remain regarding valuation of cultural heritage tourism. These questions serve as recommendations for future research:
 - o How much do the managers of cultural heritages sites know about the importance of valuing cultural heritage tourism products?

- o How knowledgeable are policy-makers of cultural heritage sites in formulating policies that support and encourage economic valuation of cultural heritage goods?
- o How sensitive are marketers of cultural heritage sites in packaging and marketing cultural heritage tourism products that will attract local, domestic, as well as international visitors with the purpose of encouraging and instilling WTP?
- o How are local cultural heritage attractions used by both managers and marketers to secure greater local community participation as well as memorable visitor experience?
- o How integrated are local communities into cultural heritage activities to enhance understanding as well as raise awareness on WTP for development, conservation, maintaining of local cultural heritage attractions?
- o How knowledgeable are the managers, marketers of cultural heritage sites about cultural heritage tourists who visit their sites? These sites receive an influx of visitors year-round; however, do managers and marketers understand what that means for the sites, for the local community economies and for economic growth of the country?
- Government-led strategy to curb issues associated with scarcity of resources and absence of a strong and experienced private sector for cultural heritage tourism development in this province.
- Indicates the maze of government authorities' awareness on the issue of what role the governments should play in cultural heritage tourism development.
- It is evident that cultural heritage produces economic value; the question that remains is whether the South African government policies on cultural heritage tourism acknowledge these values.
- As it has already mentioned, this study is the first of its kind to determine willingness to for NMHS in South Africa, a recommendation for future research therefore is to produce more economic values for heritage sites in South Africa, so that value transfers become possible.
- When WTP value transfers are possible, cultural heritage tourism stakeholders should embrace them as they allow sites in finding new sources of potential direct revenues necessary to both increase the degree of freedom and less depended on political (changing) will in managing, conserving the sites which is another recommendation for future research.

- Another recommendation for future research could be how figures derived from willingness to pay could be associated with an increase in conservation activities of these sites.
- Future research could also focus on different attributes of cultural heritage tourism products to study how much each of these attributes weights in cultural heritage tourists' preferences thereby influencing their willingness to pay.

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DEDEAT **see** South Africa. Department of Economic Development and Environmental Affairs and Tourism

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ANNEXURE 1: QUESTIONNAIRE

ANNEXURE 2: LANGUAGE EDITOR CERTIFICATE

NELSON MANDELA HERITAGE SITES SURVEY 2015
Mthatha, Qunu & Mvezo in the Eastern Cape, South Africa
SECTION A: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC

1. Gender?

Male	1
Female	2

2. What year were you born?

19

3. Home language?

English	1
Afrikaans	2
Other, specify below:	3

4a. Province of residence?

Eastern Cape	1
Gauteng	2
Western Cape	3
North West	4
Mpumalanga	5
Northern Cape	6
KwaZulu-Natal	7
Limpopo	8
Free State	9
Outside RSA borders	10

4b.If outside RSA borders, please specify your country of origin.

5. Highest level of education?

No school	1
Grade 12/ Matric	2
Diploma, degree	3
Post-graduate	4
Professional	5
Other, specify	6

6. Which mode of transport do you prefer to travel with?

4x4	1
Kombi	2
Sedan	3
2x4/Bakkie	4
Transfers/tours	5
Taxi	6
Leisure vehicles	7
Other (specify)	8

7. Have you visited any of these Nelson Mandela Heritage Sites?

Robben Island & Museum, Cape Town	Yes	No
The Mandela museum, Mthatha	Yes	No
Mandela Capture Site, Howick	Yes	No
Voting Line sculpture, Port Elizabeth	Yes	No
Mandela House Museum, Soweto	Yes	No
Liliesleaf Heritage Site, Johannesburg	Yes	No
Qunu / Mvezo, Mthatha	Yes	No
Constitution Hill, Johannesburg	Yes	No
Nelson Mandela Bridge, Johannesburg	Yes	No
Alexandra Yard Precinct, Johannesburg	Yes	No
Kliptown Open Air Museum, Soweto	Yes	No
Hector Pieterse Museum, Soweto	Yes	No
Alexandra Heritage Precinct, Alexandra	Yes	No
Other, specify:		

8. How would you rate your knowledge pertaining to Nelson Mandela, his history and his legacy?

Don't know much					I know everything about him
1	2	3	4	5	

9. When thinking about Nelson Mandela, what is the first word that comes to mind?

10. To what extent did the following information types influence your knowledge of Nelson Mandela's heritage sites?

	Completely			
	To a greater extent			
	To a lesser extent			
	Not at all			
Television	1	2	3	4
Radio	1	2	3	4
Websites	1	2	3	4
Magazines	1	2	3	4
Newspapers	1	2	3	4
Word-of-mouth	1	2	3	4
Social media (Facebook, etc)	1	2	3	4
Travel guides (books)	1	2	3	4
Travel blogs	1	2	3	4
Apps (Cell phone applications)	1	2	3	4
Travel guides	1	2	3	4
School/University	1	2	3	4
Other, specify:	1	2	3	4

SECTION B: ASPECTS FOR A MEMORABLE EXPRIENCE AT NELSON MANDELA HERITAGE SITES

11. When visiting one of Nelson Mandela's heritage sites, please indicate how important the following attributes are to you in creating a memorable visitor experience.

	Extremely important				
	Very important				
	Important				
	Slightly important				
	Not at all important				
The following aspects are important for a memorable heritage site experience:	1	2	3	4	5
1. Flexible hours (open early, close late)	1	2	3	4	5
2. Staff should look neat	1	2	3	4	5
3. Facilities should be accessible for disabled persons (disabled friendly)	1	2	3	4	5
4. Reasonable prices (entrance, curios etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
5. Efficient, reliable bookings/reservation systems	1	2	3	4	5
6. Mobile sound devices with recorded information on the site, should be made available to visitors	1	2	3	4	5
7. Location should be easily accessibly (e.g. Good road infrastructure)	1	2	3	4	5
8. Staff should be friendly	1	2	3	4	5
9. Heritage site should be clean (no litter, pollution, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
10. Staff should be knowledgeable pertaining to all aspects of the heritage site	1	2	3	4	5
11. Temperature control inside buildings (for comfort)	1	2	3	4	5
12. Staff should be willing to assist visitors	1	2	3	4	5
13. Brochure with map and details of area should be provided	1	2	3	4	5
14. Proper contextualisation of history (explain how his history affects us today)	1	2	3	4	5
15. Shaded areas should be available (to hide from the sun)	1	2	3	4	5
16. Facilities for children (play areas, informative videos, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
17. Interpretation should be done in such a way that young children will also understand	1	2	3	4	5
18. Promises made to visitors should be kept	1	2	3	4	5
19. Staff should be able to assist disabled persons	1	2	3	4	5
20. Latest forms of technology should be used at the heritage site	1	2	3	4	5
21. Facility interiors should be modern and clean	1	2	3	4	5
22. Efficient reception desk (Enough staff, short queues, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
23. Transfer service from accommodation to heritage site should be available	1	2	3	4	5
24. Sufficient informative multimedia (videos, sound clips, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
25. The site should be eco-friendly (solar panels, recycling, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
26. Safe facilities where visitors can store their belongings	1	2	3	4	5
27. General maintenance of facilities should be good	1	2	3	4	5
28. Signage showing visitors where to go	1	2	3	4	5
29. Site setting must be attractive (beautiful natural environment)	1	2	3	4	5
30. The site should have a restaurant	1	2	3	4	5
31. Skilled tour guides to interpret all aspects	1	2	3	4	5
32. Sufficient number of parking spaces	1	2	3	4	5
33. Convenient parking facilities (located close to facilities)	1	2	3	4	5
34. Signage interpreting heritage sites to visitors	1	2	3	4	5
35. Buildings should be modern and appealing	1	2	3	4	5
36. Facilities must have the ability to encourage learning	1	2	3	4	5
37. Personal belongings should be on display to create a more intimate experience	1	2	3	4	5
38. Sufficient number of ablution facilities (toilets, washing basins etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
39. A person should be able to learn from the site	1	2	3	4	5
40. The site must provide a fun experience	1	2	3	4	5
41. Curio shop (local arts and crafts, memorabilia, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5

42. Sufficient seating areas	1	2	3	4	5
43. Site buildings should compliment the building designs of the area	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C: WILLINGNESS TO PAY

Nelson Mandela is one of South Africa's most prominent cultural heritage figures. After being imprisoned for 27 years, he was freed in 1990 and negotiated the end of apartheid in South Africa, bringing peace to a racially divided country and leading the fight for human rights around the world. There are various Cultural Heritage Sites in South Africa, with the aim of preserving his heritage, and educating future generations.

Nelson Mandela was born on July 18, 1918 into a royal family of the isiXhosa-speaking Thembu tribe in the village of Mvezo in the Eastern Cape, but grew up in Qunu, where he also spent his last, "happiest" years. After his death, he was also buried in Qunu at a spot that he selected. The Bhunga Building in Mtatha currently serves as a museum, depicting Nelson Mandela's life, and also provides conference facilities.

12.1 When taking into account that all attributes indicated in the previous section are present, would you be willing to pay for a single ticket providing entrance to the Bhunga building in Mthatha, as well as Mandela's birth place in Mvezo and where he grew up and was buried in Qunu?

Yes	No
-----	----

12.2 If you are willing to pay in order to visit these sites, what is the amount that you are willing to pay in order to purchase such a ticket? (Please indicate in South African currency (rand))

VALUE:

R

12.3 If you are willing to pay to visit these Nelson Mandela Cultural Heritage Sites (Indicated in question 12.1), please indicate to that degree the following statements play a role in your decision.

	Completely agree				
	Agree				
	Neutral				
	Disagree				
	Completely disagree				
I am willing to pay because...	1	2	3	4	5
1. Supporting these cultural heritage sites creates job opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
2. The cultural heritage sites have important economic value for the host communities	1	2	3	4	5
3. It is important to protect these heritage sites for future generations	1	2	3	4	5
4. Supporting these cultural heritage sites has a valuable educational contribution	1	2	3	4	5
5. The cultural heritage sites will attract more tourists to the area	1	2	3	4	5
6. These cultural heritage sites play an important role in understanding history	1	2	3	4	5
7. Supporting these sites will ensure its protection	1	2	3	4	5
8. It is important to support these cultural heritage sites as government does not have the capabilities to do so	1	2	3	4	5
9. Supporting these cultural heritage sites will help to grow the local community's pride	1	2	3	4	5
10. By supporting the cultural heritage sites, it will become more accessible to other areas of society	1	2	3	4	5
11. I feel a personal connection with Nelson Mandela and his struggles, therefore I am curious to see and experience the area where he grew up.	1	2	3	4	5
12. It will bring much needed developments to this rural area	1	2	3	4	5
13. It will help develop entrepreneurial skills of people living in the area	1	2	3	4	5
14. It will attract businesses to these rural areas	1	2	3	4	5

12.4 If you are not willing to pay to visit these Nelson Mandela Cultural Heritage Sites (Indicated in question 10.1), please indicate to that degree the following statements play a role in your decision.

	Completely agree				
	Agree				
	Neutral				
	Disagree				
	Completely disagree				
I am not willing to pay because...	1	2	3	4	5
1. The cost of living is too high, therefore I cannot afford it	1	2	3	4	5
2. I believe that it is government's role to protect cultural heritage sites	1	2	3	4	5
3. I do not care for these cultural heritage sites	1	2	3	4	5
4. I have more important things to spend my money on	1	2	3	4	5
5. I already pay my taxes, and therefore feel that I should not have to pay to visit these sites	1	2	3	4	5
6. Only people who care about the cultural heritage sites of Nelson Mandela should pay to visit them	1	2	3	4	5
7. Only rich people will benefit from Nelson Mandela's Heritage Sites	1	2	3	4	5
8. Cultural heritage sites do not provide enough jobs for those who need it	1	2	3	4	5
9. I do not know / understand the history / importance of Nelson Mandela's Heritage Sites	1	2	3	4	5
10. I do not identify with Nelson Mandela and his legacy	1	2	3	4	5

13. Do you have any suggestions pertaining to Nelson Mandela's Heritage sites?



THANK YOU FOR YOU CONTRIBUTION TO THIS STUDY

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Declaration

*This is to declare that I, Annette L Combrink, accredited
language editor and translator of the South African
Translators' Institute, have language-edited the dissertation
by*

B.B. Mgxekwa (25871854)

with the title

**Determining the willingness to pay for visiting
Nelson Mandela's Heritage Sites**



Prof Annette L Combrink

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Date: 26 April 2016