

An Investigation into the Adequacy of Retail Facilities
in Chatsworth in view of Modern Retailing Trends

by

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Contents

Chapter 1

	<u>PAGE</u>
Introduction	1
1.1 Motivation	3
1.2 Aims of the Investigation	8
1.3 Objectives of the Study	9
1.4 Definitions and Concepts	11

Chapter 2

<u>The Nature of the Retailing System</u>	14
2.1 <u>Retailing within the Store</u>	16
2.1.1 <u>The General Store</u>	16
2.1.2 <u>The Convenience Store</u>	17
2.1.3 <u>The Department Store</u>	17
2.1.4 The Speciality Store	19
2.1.5 The Chain Store	20
2.1.6 <u>The Supermarket</u>	21
2.1.7 <u>The Discount Store</u>	22
2.1.8 The Superstore	22
2.1.9 <u>The Hypermarket</u>	23
2.1.10 Franchising	25

	<u>PAGE</u>
2.2 Non-Store Retailing	27
2.2.1 Mail Order Retailing	27
2.2.2 Retail Catalogue Showroom	29
2.2.3 Door to Door Retailing	30
2.2.4 Vending Machines	31
2.3 Shopping Centres	31
2.3.1 Definition	32
2.3.2 The Regional Centre	34
2.3.3 The Neighbourhood Centre	36
2.3.4 The Community Centre	36
2.3.5 Tenant Mix	37
2.3.6 Design of Shopping Centres	45
2.3.7 <u>Parking</u>	49
2.4 The Wheel of Retailing	49
2.5 The Small Shop	52
2.5.1 Criteria used to measure Shop Size	52
2.5.2 Problems facing the Small Shop Operator	54
2.5.3 Survival of the Small Shop	59
2.6 Location of Retail Outlets	62
2.6.1 The General Trade Area	63
2.6.2 Traffic Flow Analysis	63
2.6.3 Population and its Mobility	64

		<u>PAGE</u>
2.7	Conclusions	65

Chapter 3

3.1	Environmental Forces Influencing Retailing	67
3.1.1	Technological Forces	67
3.1.2	Economic Forces	75
3.1.3	Social Forces	81
3.1.4	Legal Forces	91
3.1.5	Competitive Forces	93
3.2	The Future of Retailing	101
3.3	Conclusions	110

Chapter 4

4.1	Consumer Spatial Models and Consumer Behaviour	111
4.1.1	Central Place Models	112
4.1.2	Spatial Interaction Models	117
4.1.3	Multivariate Attitude Models	120
4.2	Consumer Behaviour	122
4.2.1	Nature of Consumer Behaviour	124
4.2.1.1	Needs	126
4.2.1.2	Motivation	130

	<u>PAGE</u>
4.2.2 Consumer Decision-Making	132
4.2.2.1 Problem Perception	132
4.2.2.2 Deliberation	134
4.2.2.3 Problem Solution	135
4.2.2.4 Post Purchase Review	136
4.2.2.5 Cognitive Dissonance	137
4.2.3 Consumer Perception	139
4.2.4 Consumer Search Process	146
4.2.4.1 Patterns of Consumer Search	148
4.2.4.2 The Cost Versus the Benefit Search	151
4.2.5 Consumers and Social Influences	152
4.2.5.1 The Influence of the Family on Consumer Behaviour	156
4.2.6 Culture	172
4.2.7 Effects of Income on Consumer Behaviour	181
4.2.7.1 Income by Age of Family Head	182
4.2.7.2 Income and Family Size	183
4.2.7.3 Income According to Sex	183
4.2.7.4 Income and Education	185
4.2.7.5 Income by Occupation	185
4.2.7.6 The Low Income Consumer	186
4.3 Conclusions	192

Chapter 5

	<u>PAGE</u>
Methodology	193
5.1 Selection of Research Design	193
5.2 Selection of Survey Method	195
5.3 Designation of the Universe	198
5.4 Determination of Sample Size	199
5.5 Selection of Respondents for Inclusion in the Sample	201
5.6 Construction of an Interview Guide	201
5.7 Selection and Training of Interviewers	204
5.8 The Pilot Study	204
5.9 Administration of the Interviewing Phase of the Research	206
5.10 Coding, Recording and Analysis of Data	207

Chapter 6

6.	Analysis and Interpretation of the Results of the Survey	208
6.1	Introduction	208
6.2	The Respondents	210
6.3	Employment	215
6.4	Car Ownership	216
6.5	Ownership of Refrigerator and Deepfreezer	218

		<u>PAGE</u>
6.6	Purchase Patterns with regard to the Various Items	220
6.7	Amount Spent on the Various Items	225
6.8	Existence of Cornershop	226
6.9	Intended Patronage of New Cornershop	229
6.10	Existence and Patronage of Shopping Centre	230
6.11	Information on New Shopping Centre	235
6.12	Travel by Bus	237
6.13	Adequacy of Shopping Facilities	238
6.14	Patronage of Hawker	241
6.15	Patronage of Private Home	244
6.16	The Town Centre	247

Chapter 7

7.1	Conclusions	251
7.2	Recommendations	262
7.3	Summary	265

Appendices

A.	Questionnaire	269
B.	Tables	283
C.	Figures	336
D.	Location Map of Chatsworth	342
E.	Location Map of Town Centre	343
	Bibliography	344

LIST OF TABLES

<u>Table</u>	<u>Description</u>	<u>Page</u>
6.1	Distribution of Respondents	283
6.2	Number of Desired Respondents Substituted	283
6.3	Reasons for Substitution	284
6.4	Number of Dwelling Units and Respondents from different units	284
6.5	Length of Residence in Chatsworth	285
6.6	Size of Household	286
6.7	Total Monthly Household Income	285
6.8	Size of Household and Total Monthly Household Income	287
6.9	Employment Status of Respondents and/or Spouses	288
6.10	Place of Work of Respondents and/or Spouses	288
6.11	Mode of Travel to Work of Respondents and/or Spouses	289
6.12	Ownership of Car by a Member of the Household	289
6.13	Ownership of Car and Total Monthly Household Income	290
6.14	Availability of Car for Shopping Purposes	291
6.15	Ownership of Refrigerator and Deepfreezer	291
6.16	Ownership of Refrigerator and Frequency of Purchase of Milk	292
6.17	Ownership of Refrigerator and Frequency of Purchase of Fruit and Vegetables	293
6.18	Ownership of Refrigerator and Frequency of Purchase of Meat	293
6.19	Ownership of Deepfreezer and Frequency of Purchase of Meat	294
6.20	Respondents' Purchases of the various Items	295
6.21	Purchase of the various Items by different Members of the Household	296

<u>Table</u>	<u>Description</u>	<u>PAGE</u>
6.22	Place of Purchase of the Various Items	297
6.23	Reasons for Purchase of Various Items in the Places Mentioned	298
6.24	Frequency of Purchase of the Various Items	299
6.25	Mode of Travel for the Purchase of the Various Items	300
6.26	Manner of Shopping for the Various Items	301
6.27	Amount Spent on the Various Items	302
6.28	Existence of Cornershop Nearby	303
6.29	Existence of Cornershop/Convenience Stores in the Various Units	303
6.30	Number of Cornershops Nearby	304
6.31	Number of Cornershops in the Various Units	304
6.32	Cornershops as part of a Shopping Centre	305
6.33	Length of Residence and Existence of Cornershop	305
6.34	Patronage of Cornershops	306
6.35	Reasons for Use or Non-Use of Cornershops	306
6.36	Perceived Distance from Home to Cornershop	307
6.37	Opinions of Respondents as to whether the Cornershop is near enough	307
6.38	Frequency of Support of Cornershop by Respondents	308
6.39	Intended Patronage of Cornershop if established nearby	308
6.40	Reasons for Intended Patronage or Non-Patronage of Cornershop if established	309
6.41	Distance Respondents are Prepared to Travel to support a new Cornershop	309
6.42	Existence and Patronage of Shopping Centre	310
6.43	Existence of Shopping Centres in the Various Units	310

<u>Title</u>	<u>Description</u>	<u>Page</u>
6.44	Length of Residence in Chatsworth and Existence of Shopping Centre	311
6.45	Existence of Shopping Centre and Cornershop	311
6.46	Reasons for Use or Non-Use of Shopping Centre	312
6.47	Frequency of Patronage of Shopping Centre	313
6.48	Respondents' Knowledge of Existence, their Patronage of Various Stores as well as their desire for stores not available in existing Shopping Centres	314
6.49	Perceived Distance from Home of Shopping Centre	313
6.50	Opinion as to whether Shopping Centre is Near Enough for Respondents	317
6.51	Intended Patronage of Shopping Centre if Established	318
6.52	Reasons for Intended Use or Non-Use of Shopping Centre if Established	318
6.53	Distance Respondents are Prepared to Travel to Support a Shopping Centre if Established	319
6.54	Respondents' Preference for Shops in new Shopping Centres if Established	320
6.55	Willingness to Travel by Bus to Support a Shopping Centre	321
6.56	Reasons for Willingness/Unwillingness to Travel by Bus	321
6.57	Opinions as to whether Shopping Facilities in Chatsworth should be Improved	322
6.58	Manner in which Facilities should be Improved	322
6.59	Existence of Shopping Centres and Improvement of Shopping Facilities	323
6.60	Patronage of Hawker by Respondents	323
6.61	Existence of Cornershop and Patronage of Hawker	324
6.62	Existence of Shopping Centres and Patronage of Hawker	324

<u>Table</u>	<u>Description</u>	<u>Page</u>
6.63	Reasons for Patronage/Non-Patronage of Hawker	325
6.64	Purchase of Goods, other than Milk, Bread, Fruit and Vegetables from Hawker	325
6.65	Frequency of Purchase of these Goods from Hawker	326
6.66	Respondents' Inconvenience if Hawker's services cease	326
6.67	Existence of Cornershop and Inconvenience of Cessation of Hawker's Service	327
6.68	Existence of Shopping Centre and Inconvenience upon Cessation of Hawker's Service	327
6.69	Reasons for Inconvenience if Hawker's Service Ceases	328
6.70	Patronage of Private Homes by Respondents	328
6.71	Existence of Cornershop and Patronage of Private Home	329
6.72	Existence of Shopping Centre and Patronage of Private Home	329
6.73	Patronage of Hawker and Patronage of Private Home	330
6.74	Reasons for Purchase/Non-Purchase from Private Homes	330
6.75	Items Purchased from Private Home	331
6.76	Purchase of Items from Other Places	331
6.77	Frequency of Purchase from Private Home	332
6.78	Awareness of Development of Town Centre	332
6.79	Intention to Support Town Centre	333
6.80	Existence of Shopping Centre and Intention to Support Town Centre	333
6.81	Reasons for Intention to Support/Not to Support Town Centre	334
6.82	Possible Mode of Travel to Town Centre	334
6.83	Intention to Support the Various Stores in the Town Centre	335

LIST OF FIGURES

<u>Figure</u>	<u>Description</u>	<u>Page</u>
4.1	A Consumer Decision Model	140
4.2	Family Decision Process	167
6.1	Distribution Reflecting the Length of Residence of Respondents in Chatsworth	336
6.2	Distribution Reflecting Mode of Travel to Work of Respondents and Spouses	337
6.3	Distribution Reflecting Respondent's Knowledge of Existence and Patronage of Shops in Shopping Centre	338
6.4	Distribution of the Manner in which Facilities should be Improved	339
6.5	Distribution of Respondents Desiring Stores in New Shopping Centres	340
6.6	Distribution Reflecting Respondents Intention to visit Various Stores in the Town Centre	341

INTRODUCTION

The Chatsworth Indian Public Housing Estate, situated approximately nineteen kilometres to the south-west of Durban was chiefly the result of the provisions of the Group Areas Act, No. 41 of 1950. The Group Areas Act, which followed the National Party's victory in 1948, embodied the policy of separate development in different areas for the various population groups, that is, the Whites, the Indians, the Blacks, and the Coloureds. This legislation which embodied the policy of racial segregation, as expounded by the governing National Party, was a radical change from the earlier measures to prevent residential integration. The earlier measures mainly pegged Indians to their existing areas. Earlier, in 1920 The Asiatic Inquiry Commission suggested that a system of residential segregation was unavoidable and recommended it with the proviso that available services be adequate. In 1922 the Durban Land Alienation Ordinance, No. 14/1922, marked the first legislative attempt to segregate Indian residential areas in Natal. A similar Ordinance, No. 5 of 1923 covered all Natal towns. But according to the Asiatic Land Tenure and Indian Representation Act, No. 28 of 1946 no person was allowed to own or occupy land in any area not classified for that particular racial group. This was the last stepping stone to the Group

Areas Act, No. 41 of 1950. (Oosthuizen and Hofmeyer 1979, p. 8). The Group Areas Act envisaged the following results:

- i. the creation and maintenance of occupational and ownership rights for each population group in its own area;
- ii. the opportunity for individual and community development;
- iii. the right to self-expression for each group and full opportunities in the economic and other fields; and
- iv. the right of each group to control its own local government.

Chatsworth was developed on this basis, and is considered to be the largest Indian public housing estate outside India (Oosthuizen and Hofmeyer 1979, p.11) with a population of about 160 332 and a density of 80.16 persons per hectare.

However, the Phoenix housing scheme, situated approximately 20 kilometres north of Durban is expected to be larger than Chatsworth with an anticipated 35 350 dwelling units, accommodating a population of some 250 000 people¹.

1. Figures obtained from Durban City Engineer's Department Old Fort Road, Durban on 15 February 1982

Chatsworth is situated on 2 000 hectares and has 21 428¹ dwelling units. It has provided the major proportion of the programme for large scale housing projects undertaken by the Durban Municipality.

Phoenix, on the other hand, has approximately 15 000 dwelling units with a further 20 350 to be built by 1986². The Durban Corporation, which was the body charged with the implementation of the large housing scheme in Chatsworth, was restricted by conditions laid down in the Housing code and plans had to be approved by the Department of Community Development. Corbett states that "the procedure followed in the case of Chatsworth was that the Durban Corporation acquired the land, mostly by private treaty, planned the township, and itself constructed services such as roads, sewers, and water reticulation. Contracts for the dwelling units were awarded on a tender basis to private contractors but in sufficiently large parcels to allow economies of mass production" (1980, p.6).

1.1 MOTIVATION

Criticism of Chatsworth was inevitable, and many families expressed feelings of suffering arising from enforced movement, dispossession of property and dissatisfaction over compensation. Other grievances of the residents are

1 & 2. Figures obtained from Durban City Engineer's Department, Old Fort Road, Durban on 12 January 1984.

the closeness of houses, inadequate community facilities such as meeting places, recreation grounds, the inaccessibility of essential services and the inadequate shopping facilities. Much of the criticism has been levelled against Town Planners, who generally have wide powers concerning what the private individual as a developer of urban space, can or cannot do. The Town Planner creates standards which decide the extent of various zonings within a planning district, and where they will be situated.

Unfortunately, it can be observed in Chatsworth that many of the planner's regulations and standards have been developed without sufficient research, and antiquated standards have been adopted without regard for changing conditions and life-styles. Land use planners who have been left with the task of retail planning have evidently been unable to decide whether retailing is an economic industry or a social service. There appears to be no clarity among planners as to how far retail location should be controlled or what considerations should be used in deciding policy or granting locational permits. Other questions raised are : Should spatial competition be left to the free market and how far should government intervene in the retail market? Planners have also been criticized for responding to pressures and inhibiting rather than providing positive plans to encourage healthy retail development within Chatsworth. Further, they

are often taken by surprise at the speed of response of retailing to innovative marketing; and they have naïve assumptions about consumer behaviour¹, and the relationship between sales, floor space, profits and costs. It is apparent that their belief is that location² is the single dominant influence on business and social activity. But no planner, however ingenious, can allocate the countless elements of urban resources as efficiently as the market. The inefficiencies that exist in Chatsworth, stem from a lack of foresight, and an insensitivity to the needs of the people.

On the basis of a survey undertaken by the Planning Department in 1977 among 952 householders in Chatsworth³, the actual allocation of floor space per type is as follows:

-
1. See 4.2
 2. See 2.6
 3. The Provision of Shopping in Chatsworth (File 9/3/2/22) City Engineer's Department 14 February 1978.

In the Town Centre; Fruit and vegetable market	3 500m ²
Fish market	2 000m ²
Supermarket	8 000m ²
Cornershops	1 500m ²
Butcheries	225m ²
Outfitters	1 400m ²
Hardware	800m ²
Bottle Store	150m ²
Service and Non-Retail Activity	1 200m ²
Total	<u>43 500m²</u>

while floor space allocation in other areas is provided for as follows:

Cornershops	1 500m ²
Butcheries	6 000m ²
Bottle Store	1 475m ²
Service and Non-Retail Activity	2 250m ²
Total	<u>24 725m²</u>

The above figures are only the planned allocation and although the present population is 160 332, the present

retail floor space (as indicated in Chapter 6) is well below the planned figure, as the Town Centre has not yet been developed, and the dispersed areas do not possess the floor space allocation as indicated above.

In contrast to the floor space allocation, the actual number of shops¹ that is planned for the different units is as follows:

Unit	Shops
1	13
2	24
3	27
4	6
5	18
6	10
7	28
8	22
9	12
10	14
11	16
Total	<u>190</u>

1. this number was made on assumptions contained in "An Estimate of the Shopping Requirements in Chatsworth R16/A/Research Department April 1975 City Engineers Department.

A further 50 shops is proposed for the Town Centre, on the basis of these assumptions made in 1975. Despite the fact that the population and expenditure has increased since then, the rate of establishment of the proposed shopping areas, has not kept pace, nor has there been a revision of shopping requirements in view of modern retailing trends¹. Although Chatsworth has a population of over 160 000, it does not have a Community Shopping Centre, which is generally established to cater for up to 150 000 people within a 2-4 kilometre radius, with a maximum of 50 shops. It does appear, however, that the Town Centre may qualify as a Community Centre, since it has a trade area of more than 150 000 people and is planned to have 50 shops. In the light of the foregoing, an investigation into the adequacy of retail facilities in Chatsworth has been undertaken.

1.2 AIMS OF INVESTIGATION

The aims of this study are:-

1. To determine whether or not the existing retail facilities in Chatsworth are adequate for the needs of its residents; and
2. To present an analysis of the consumption behaviour patterns of the residents.

1. See Chapter 2.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The specific objectives of this study are:-

1. to present an analysis of the retail facilities in Chatsworth;
2. to ascertain whether or not the residents' mobility, or lack of it, affects their shopping patterns;
3. to determine whether or not residents would patronize the Town Centre which is to be developed; and
4. to identify attribute variables of the shopping environment which the consumers prefer in their shopping centres as well as the Town Centre.

One must be cognizant of the fact that shopping behaviour may be influenced by an almost infinite number of human and natural factors, some of which are little known.

Therefore it is understandable, that a study of this nature has inherent limitations, and thus the information contained herein may only be used as guidelines against which judgement must be continually exercised with regard

to any specific decision.

The fact that the retailing structure is constantly evolving in response to changing patterns, both, in the demands for its services and the means of providing them, further accentuates the need for a comprehensive knowledge of consumer behaviour.

In order to control the market process as a whole, retail strategists must analyse the market at its most fundamental level, that is, the activities of the individual consumer. However, it must be remembered that consumers do not behave in complete accordance with a rational model. Davies (1972) recognized three sets of inter-related factors which condition the shopping journey. They are i) socio-economic characteristics, ii) other major factors involving the size, attractiveness and proximity of shopping centres and iii) the means of travel in terms of transportation mode. Therefore, in this study the review of literature includes such aspects as the retailing system, environmental forces influencing retailing, a brief review of consumer spatial models and consumer behaviour which may elucidate the analysis and interpretation of the data obtained in this study.

1.4 DEFINITIONS AND CONCEPTS

The following concepts require definition:

Convenience Goods

Convenience goods are those goods that the consumer purchases frequently and regularly with the minimum of effort in selection and buying. These products are usually of low unit value and are highly standardized. Examples of such goods are bread, milk, cigarettes, newspapers, etc. Convenience goods outlets include cafes, supermarkets, grocers, chemists as well as hypermarkets.

Shopping Goods

Shopping goods are those goods that the customer buys infrequently but regularly on a long term basis, characteristically comparing on such basis as suitability, quality, price and style. These goods which may also be called consumer durables are usually stocked in a wide range of sizes, colours, styles and qualities. Shopping goods

are often sold in departmental stores, discount stores, boutiques as well as hypermarkets. Examples of such goods are electrical goods, clothing, footwear and furniture.

Speciality Goods

Speciality goods possess unique characteristics and/or brand identification for which a group of consumers are willing to make a special purchasing effort. These goods which are bought infrequently and irregularly after careful consideration of style, quality and price include such goods as jewellery, photographic equipment and sports goods. They are obtainable chiefly at specialist outlets dealing exclusively with one type of product.

Trade Area

The geographical limit of a shopping centre's significant trade is referred to as the trade area.

Planned Shopping Centres

Planned shopping centres are groups of commercial establishments, planned, developed, owned, and managed as specific units, with a carefully planned mix of tenants in relation to the market served, and free parking is a characteristic feature.

Unplanned Shopping Area/Centres

These are usually composed of ribbon developments of commercial establishments that arise in response to the needs of the market and is generally not managed as a unit.

Self-Service

Self-Service is a method of retail operation that is characterised by high turnovers of goods and a layout to facilitate the movement of customers who select their goods and pay at mechanised checkouts.

CHAPTER 2

THE NATURE OF THE RETAILING SYSTEM

Retailing is a challenging and complex field of business, which includes all the activities associated with the sale of products and services to ultimate consumers for personal nonbusiness use.

Whereas, initially retailers were looked upon with scorn and contempt, (Larson 1976 p.8), and their services were not appreciated, today, retailers are an important element in our economic life.

Being the final link in the chain between the producer or manufacturer and the consumer, the retailer's task is complicated because of the breadth of expertise he needs in order to be successful.

The retailer's most important functions are buying, selling, storage, bulk breaking, risk-sharing, display, information, credit extension and services. The retailer orders large quantities of goods from numerous wholesalers and manufacturers in advance of expected sales. His selection of goods from numerous wholesalers and manufacturers places him in the position of sharing in the risks of procuring goods which may or may not be desired by his customers.

In addition to his capital being tied up in inventory, he also shares the cost of handling and storing the goods, promoting, and incurring costs in the extension of credit and services to his customers.

The characteristics of retailing are:

- i. that the retailer offers the goods to the public in a variety of ways, namely within the store, by telephone, door-to-door, direct mail, or through vending machines;
- ii. that he caters to the consumer's sense of urgency by selling convenience goods, throughout the day and until very late at night, especially in the case of convenience store retailers;
- iii. that small quantities of goods comprise the typical transaction; and
- iv. that retailing is generally localized, that is, most customers do not have to travel far in order to obtain products and services that satisfy their needs.

Types of Retail institutions:

There are many types of retail institutions, all of which did not appear on the scene simultaneously. Two types of Retailing may be distinguished :

- i. Retailing within the store, where consumers come to the store and purchase their items and
- ii. Non-Store Retailing, where customers need not visit a store in order to purchase items.

2.1 RETAILING WITHIN THE STORE

2.1.1 The General Store

Initially the community was served by a general store which stocked groceries and general merchandise. Variety was limited because the retailer had to stock different types of goods for his customers. Van Niekerk (1968, p.5) concurs with this view that "die keuse tussen die verskeidenheid handelsmerke wat vir die verbruiker beskikbaar is, is in die reël egter beperk, aangesien 'n groot verskeidenheid tipes artikels gewoonlik aangehou word."

These stores still exist and flourish especially where the modern shopping centre has not made its impact.

2.1.2 The Convenience Store

Convenience stores are generally found near major intersections, highly travelled secondary roads, or within walking distance from home. Convenience stores or "corner-shops" as they are often referred to, have carved a significant niche in the South African retailing structure. These stores are essentially family businesses, stocking a balanced inventory for daily needs, usually close to their customers, operating until late at night, and offering neighbourhood friendliness.

These stores sell the same type of items found in large supermarkets, but their offerings are limited to the most popular brands, while prices charged per item are usually higher than those found in supermarkets. Customers therefore have to make monetary sacrifices for the kind of convenience that these stores offer.

2.1.3 The Department Store

A department store is a large retailing business-unit that deals with an extensive variety of products and is organised into separate departments for purposes of promotion, service and control. Department stores were regarded as the giants of

twentieth century retailing and still exert considerable impact on the entire retailing industry.

These stores are distinguished by a "segmentation" of product lines, each of which has space allocated to it and each department is provided with a cash register to record sales, and salespersons to assist the customers. In some cases, departments are leased to persons not affiliated to the store. In South Africa, the "bazaar", has also become a typical department store.

Most of the early department stores attempted to raise the standards of retailing by emphasizing quality at low price. They also made shopping a pleasant and convenient experience by being among the first establishments to use such symbols of progress as elevators, telephones and electric lighting. Department stores have used innovative marketing strategies over the years. The use of the leased department concept was begun by a department store. They have also been perceptive in using suburban shopping centre facilities while simultaneously altering its strategy to maintain central business district profitability.

2.1.4 The Speciality Store

The speciality store category covers many kinds and sizes of business. Usually a speciality store is opened when the entrepreneur identifies or recognizes an unmet need among customers of regular business establishments. On the basis of some differential advantage or specialised ability of the proprietor, the store thrives despite the direct competition with large department stores. A speciality store is able to tailor its merchandising strategy to satisfy a specific market.

Operators of these stores specialise in a particular kind of merchandise, for example, jewellery, bakery goods, sports goods and lingerie. The customer, although restricted to one line of goods, can choose from a large variety within the line.

Moreover, Van Niekerk (1968, p.5) states that "die verkoopkierke van spesialiteitswinkels beskik gewoonlik oor meerdere kennis as dié van algemene handelaars oor die besondere tipe goedere waarin hulle winkels spesialiseer, en kan gevolglik klante van deskundige raad bedien".

The appeal of the speciality store has created problems for department stores. Because of this, department stores are placing increased emphasis on

boutiques and speciality shops within the department stores themselves.

2.1.5 The Chain Store

Chain stores are large groups of retail outlets joined together through common ownership by some central management. The growth of many chain stores occurs after a company has successfully met the needs of its immediate market area and then expands operations to seek market opportunities. The growth may be achieved through the acquisition of an already established firm in another location or through the establishment of one or more outlets in other areas. The subsequent branches cater to the same type of customer and are organized on the successful pattern established in the original store. Major chains may carry most of their merchandise under their own brand rather than the brands of manufacturers. Van Niekerk (1968, p.7) distinguishes between two types, namely:

- i. Gewone kettingwinkels, dit wil sê kettingwinkels wat vanuit 'n sentrale plek bestuur en deur een inrigting besit word.
- ii. Vrywillige kettingwinkels, dit wil sê, 'n groep inrigtings gewoonlik dieselfde tipe, wat deur

individuele eienaars op verskillende plekke besit en bestuur word, maar gesamentlik optree ten opsigte van "grootskaalse" aankope ten einde groter hoeveelheidskortings te kan afdwing, of teen fabriekse pryse te kan aankoop. Voorbeelde hiervan is lede van "SPAR".

2.1.6 The Supermarket

Supermarkets cater to a consumer demand for limited services, lower-priced merchandise, ample parking and a product mix of primarily groceries supplemented with selective sundry items. Their merchandise lines have expanded by using sales representatives who come into their stores to sell and stock goods. These rack jobbers complement stock which has the effect of increasing the supermarket's offerings. Initially supermarket operations paid little attention to store decor or sophisticated lighting and signs, but nowadays, careful attention is paid to architecture and fixtures as well as to decor, lighting and signs.

The characteristic feature of supermarkets is operation on a self-service basis, and payment by customers at automated checkout facilities.

2.1.7 The Discount Store

Discount stores are stores which generally operate on a low-expense, low-markup basis and which emphasize competitive pricing as a main attraction to win customers. They carry a reasonably complete line of hard and soft goods with well known presold brand names. They were first established in South Africa around 1965. Their growth is due to the expansion of mass merchandising techniques and mass sales promotion of nationally accepted brands at less than the normal prices. Furthermore, the promotional gimmicks of the store give an air of excitement to the entire operation. Discount stores possess the following characteristics: lower prices, inexpensive buildings and fixtures, aggressive advertising of merchandise, strategic location of stores, easy accessibility to large masses of people and free parking for customers' convenience.

2.1.8 The Superstores

Superstores are freestanding stores with large floor areas that are regarded as "... the logical extension to the supermarket concept," by Salmon et al (1974,p.91) They provide a wider range of food and non-food items as well as the convenience of "one-stop" shopping. In addition superstores are able to pass

considerable savings on to consumers who generally buy in bulk, by virtue of their mass merchandising techniques. Although the selling area is smaller than that of a hypermarket, it nevertheless "seems to be a natural outcome of the process of competition among food chains and other types of retail outlets". Salmon et al (1974; p.91).

Superstores can support trade areas of about 100 000 to 1 000 000 people.

2.1.9 The Hypermarket

Hypermarkets represent another response to the changing retailing environment in South Africa. Just as in France, where hypermarketing originated, retailers attempted to respond to the desires of the more prosperous consumers who wish to shop by private cars and to buy stocks in bulk. Hypermarkets appeared in South Africa in 1977 and presently represent the most efficient stage in a stream of retail evolution that began with over-the-counter grocery stores.

The accepted definition which is based on European standards is that they must cover at least 10 000 square metres with the shopping area behind one line of check-outs, offering a wide range of food products, soft goods, hardware, furniture and a variety of durable goods, as well as ample parking.

Hypermarkets developed for two basic reasons, namely,

- i. Consumers began demanding more value for money;
and
- ii. because of the rising cost of retailing.

Hypermarkets manage to relieve cost pressures at the manufacturing, distribution and retailing stages and sell goods in bulk enabling them to accept small profit margins which are derived from stocks turning over more times than in conventional stores.

Since hypers must be built on inexpensive land in order to achieve cost savings, they are invariably sited on the outskirts of cities and on main arterial roadways giving easy access and egress from huge parking lots, thus providing for the needs of suburban shoppers.

With the increased suburban sprawl, together with

the rise in the number of private vehicles, coupled with increasing competition amongst retailers, and the increasing cost of retailing, hypermarkets represent the most advanced technological device yet conceived for optimising economies of scale and overheads.

2.1.10 Franchising

Franchising is a contractual agreement in which the franchisor (supplier) extends to independent new franchisees (entrepreneurs) the right to conduct a certain kind of business in a specific marketing area and according to a particular format, specified by the franchisor.

The franchisee is an independent businessman and not a legal agent of the franchisor, although both parties work closely together, and perform the duties designated in their contractual agreement.

In franchising, small entrepreneurs can benefit from the experience, the buying capabilities and the image of the large franchisor, while the use of proto-type stores, standardized merchandise lines and cooperative advertising give a group of franchisees a compatibility that was previously found only in chains.

"In a typical franchise arrangement, the franchisee pays an initial fee and a monthly percentage of gross profit in exchange for the exclusive rights to sell a product or service and for advice on site location and construction planning. The franchisee usually gets intensive training, a complement of promotional material, the assistance of a company trouble-shooter and continuing services such as bookkeeping" (Berman and Evans 1979, p.32).

The franchisor is often successful because he provides the franchisee with a high degree of motivation by giving him the opportunity to satisfy his natural desire to be on his own. Because the franchisee is his own boss, his personal success is related directly to the success of the outlet and he is willing to work long hours, forgo vacations and engage in evening and night work in order to increase sales and thus profits.

Franchising is now widespread and popular because it has solved several problems for both the franchisor and the franchisee.

2.2 NON-STORE RETAILING

2.2.1 Mail Order Retailing

Mail Order Retailing initiated originally as a method of serving rural customers with a wider choice than was available at their local stores. Although it originated immediately after the general store, it did not gain momentum until recently, in response to modifications of retailing strategies and tactics to meet changing competitive conditions. Mail order retailing may take one of three forms, namely:

- i. the customer may purchase from a catalogue;
- ii. the customer may order from an order blank appearing in a magazine or newspaper advertisement; or
- iii. the customer may order from a form sent through the mail by the seller.

The mail order retailer depends on the transportation system of the country to carry on his business, because customers receive delivery by parcel post or freight. The reasons for the success of early mail order retailing was the convenience in purchasing, the low prices and the variety of goods. The customer made his/her selection from the illustrated catalogues

without having to travel over poor roads to the shop.

It is believed that mail order houses were pioneers in sponsoring truthful and informative advertising, and they granted liberal return privileges and guaranteed customer satisfaction. These retailing policies and procedures now permeate most forms of retailing.

The advantages of mail order retailing are that:

- i. Costs are reduced because initial investment is low. It can be operated from a garage or basement; no fixtures or display is required; a prime location and personal salesforce are unnecessary and store hours do not have to be maintained.
- ii. A large geographic area can be covered.
- iii. Firms may offer lower prices because of reduced costs relative to other retailers.
- iv. Consumers are given a convenient alternative to shopping.
- v. For a store-retailer, mail order trade supplements normal sales volume.

The disadvantages are that:

- i. Merchandise cannot be examined prior to purchase by a consumer.
- ii. Personal service is absent.
- iii. Range of merchandise is limited.
- iv. There are often severe delays in delivery.
- v. Several unscrupulous mail order retailers have given these firms a poor reputation.

2.2.2 The Retail Catalogue Showroom

A retail catalogue showroom is an operation where the consumer selects merchandise from a catalogue and shops at a warehouse.

They are regarded overseas as a hybrid between discount stores and mail order operations.

Retail catalogue showrooms specialize in appliances and durable goods and except for a few, most catalogue showrooms have their catalogues prepared by large merchandise companies.

The success of a catalogue showroom results because of its ability to cut costs further than a discount store, namely:

- i. Losses from shoplifting are reduced.
- ii. Fewer salespeople are required.
- iii. Perishable soft goods are avoided so that the problem of deterioration in quality does not exist.
- iv. Locating of showrooms is inexpensive, high traffic areas are not necessary as buyers preshop in catalogues.

2.2.3 Door-to-door retailing

This type of non-store selling, perhaps one of the oldest form, is done through "cold canvassing" that is, a salesperson goes from house to house, sometimes, without prior selection of potential customers, and at other times according to established routes.

This is considered to be an effective method of retailing because it permits extensive personal demonstration of the product or service and offers unparalleled convenience to the customer.

While door to door retailing is only a small part of total retail sales, it is far from being an obsolete form.

Another form of door to door selling is party selling, where a party is organised by the salesperson in the home of a hostess, who invites her friends. The hostess usually receives a gift which may be a small percentage of the value of the sales, while the salesperson receives a commission on the total sales. Many types of crockery and linen are sold in this way.

2.2.4 Vending machines

Vending machines are generally placed in heavy traffic locations and may be used as long as the buildings accommodating them are open.

It is a convenient retailing method for merchandise lines, such as cigarettes, sweets and soft drinks. Vending machines are high-cost operations and their prices are usually higher for the same goods purchased elsewhere. A major shortcoming is that not all types of goods can be sold through this method.

2.3 SHOPPING CENTRES

The impact of migration of citizens from central cities to suburban locations has resulted in varied implications for the retailer. This movement of the people to the suburbs enticed many retailers to follow them and to build facilities to accommodate their needs. The establishment of Shopping Centres in suburbs has been one of the results of the retailers' attempts to serve the consumer.

The rapid rise in private car ownership and the concomitant increase in personal mobility has resulted in consumers' preference for facilities in the suburbs where parking space is ample. The development of the "one stop" shopping centre is the result of the grouping together of retail operations which attempts to achieve collective attractiveness. The shopping function is being combined with other facilities such as cultural, recreational and educational facilities in order to reproduce the characteristics of the old city centres, while eliminating or reducing the need to travel further for equivalent facilities.

2.3.1 Definition

Gruen and Smith¹ define a shopping centre as follows:-

"The shopping centre is one of the few new building types which represents a response to the emergence of the automobile as a means of mass transportation. It is the grouping of buildings and related spaces, establishing a new environment in twentieth century life not only for shopping but many other activities as well. Its building group and related spaces are not strung out along existing roads but constitutes a new planning pattern of their own. The centre furthermore is the expression of a rare occurrence in our free enterprise economy - the banding together of individual businesses in cooperative fashion with

1. Gruen and Smith quoted in Johnston (1973, p.26)

the aim of creating greater commercial effectiveness through unified endeavour".

While the Community Builder's Council of the Urban Land Institute² defines it thus:- "a group of commercial establishments, planned, developed, owned and managed as a unit, related in location, size and type of shops to the trade area that the unit serves; it provides on-site parking in definite relationship to the types and sizes of stores."

Larson, Weigand and Wright (1976, p.38) concur that a shopping centre is a cluster of shops arranged in different patterns, that provides off the street parking for customers. In some instances, tenants of the centre are chosen to limit direct competition, so that stores are selected with the market potential of each line of merchandise carefully considered. However, it has been recently recognized that the presence of competing retailers draws more customers to a centre, thus resulting in two or more competing stores in a centre.

2. Quoted in Mandy S.N. (1977, p.41 The Mall, no. 1)

Most shopping centres are found in suburbs, though there is an increasing tendency to locate in or near the central business district. An example of a shopping centre that is located in the central business district is the Carlton Shopping Centre in Johannesburg, which, according to Mandy (1977 p.42) is "a true regional shopping centre, but also forms part of Johannesburg's downtown shopping district."

Most shopping centres are planned and are usually classified into three categories, namely Regional Shopping Centres, Neighbourhood Centres and Community Centres.

2.3.2 The Regional Shopping Centre

The Regional Shopping Centre is the largest of the three types and is usually located outside of a central city on an arterial highway or expressway. This Shopping Centre provides for general merchandise, apparel, furniture and home furnishings in full depth and variety, as well as a range of services and recreational facilities, which infringes significantly upon the retail activities of the Central Business District or downtown. It serves a motor car-borne trade area that could have a diameter of 16 km or 24 km, or a trade area within 30 minutes driving time to the centre, or a population of between

100 000-1 000 000 consumers. It is built around a full line department store of generally not less than 10 000 square metres as the principle tenant. The typical size is considered to be above 16.2ha with 40-100 or more shops. Usually there are other tenants, apart from retailers, who offer professional services such as, doctors, dentists, insurance firms, banks and even accountants.

The first regional shopping centre in South Africa, namely Sandton City in Sandton, Transvaal, opened its doors to the public in 1973. It comprises a fully enclosed air conditioned shopping centre with 140 shops and a Gross Leasable area (GLA) of 30 658 m², a two floor medical block with a Gross Leasable Area of 4 120 m², and a 20 floor office tower.

However, the opening of Eastgate at Settler's Park in the Transvaal in March 1979, marked the advent of South Africa's first big Regional Shopping Centre, being about three times as large as Sandton City. The total site covers 18 ha and it has a Gross Leasable Area of 90 000 m² with about 180 shops.

2.3.3 The Neighbourhood Centre

This is the smallest type and comprises a group of retail and service facilities for the day to day needs of a neighbourhood. It is designed to serve a population of about 3 000 to 40 000, within a 1,6 km radius. The selling space is between 1 860 to 8 300 m² with about 5 to 15 stores. The typical size of the trading site is between 1,62 - 4,05 ha. It is built around a supermarket as the principle tenant, with satellite shops ranging from chemists, tailors, dry cleaners, hairdressers, hardware shops, to banks, and/or building societies.

This kind of centre is most numerous, many being of the "strip type" that is, the shops are set alongside a major thoroughfare but far enough from the street to permit parking in front for a few cars.

2.3.4 The Community Centre

These centres exhibit greater functional complexity than neighbourhood centres, comprising a group of retail and service facilities that provide a wider range of hard lines and soft lines, in addition to convenience goods and personal services. It serves a population of between 20 000 to 150 000 within a 2-4 km radius. The selling space is between 9 300 to 27.900 m² with about 15-50 shops. The typical

size of the trading site is between 4,05 to 16,20 ha.

It is usually built around a junior department store as a major tenant with other stores being, variety shops, supermarkets, chemists, jewellers, confectioners, apparel and accessories shops, home furnishers as well as doctors, lawyers, insurance agents, banks and building societies.

The design of this centre may be a "strip type" or a mall and it differs from the neighbourhood centre in that it exerts an innate attraction.

However, it will be observed that wide variations in the estimates of actual and potential pulling power exist due to factors such as population density, the extent of retail competition, mobility of residents and the shop hours of a particular centre.

2.3.5 Tenant Mix

The clustering of related merchants and services around a meeting place or major merchant is common in all areas of the world from the village square to the largest urban centres, and is commonly termed the tenant mix. The following indicates the importance of tenant mix. "The tenant mix is a major key to the success of any centre", (Rapp 1978, p. 31). (The Mall no. 6).

"After location, the most important factor in a retail complex from the initial stage and as an ongoing strength is the tenant mix. A great design, but a weak tenant mix, does not make for a successful centre." (Speakman 1977, p.11). (The Mall no.3).

"The single most important factor in any shopping centre is the quality of its tenants, for besides the accepted principles in the development process (i.e. location, parking and design) a shopping centre will, in the final analysis, rise or fall by the quality of its tenants." (Menachemson 1978, p.37). (The Mall no. 7).

It is clear from the above that the tenant mix is fundamental, especially since it plays such a vital part in the success of any centre. A good quality of tenants will not only make the shopping centre an economic success but will do much to improve the quality of the social content and contribute to the fostering of links within the community.

The term quality does not only embrace financial stability alone but includes a wider combination of factors. Having entered the era of increasing retail sophistication and competition, it is only those retailers who possess the requisite aggressiveness and foresight who will survive. Erwee (1977,p.123)

states that "variations in the retail composition of different shopping clusters have suggested that the mix of retail outlets may in part be reflected by differential functional utilization by different socio-economic groups of consumers."

It is the tenants of the shopping centres that create the atmosphere and ambiance within the centre and they must therefore be allowed and encouraged to create this retail excitement. The consideration of the retail element begins with the establishment of a tenant mix plan which locates the various types within the centre. Some believe that the tenants should be scattered around the complex, thus forcing the shopper to walk the full length of the mall for comparison shopping while others feel that related tenant types should be grouped in proximity to each other and should be related in merchandising type to the major tenants in the complex.

The latter situation seems more desirable because it allows the customer a better comparison shopping trip while at the same time allowing the developer a greater design freedom in establishing an environment related to the tenant mix.

The elements used to create an exciting retail experience should vary in relationship to the type

or quality of retailers in the different areas of the centre. For example the fast food area may be brash and bright in comparison to the fashion boutiques which will ideally be softer and more sophisticated in its environment. The variety of moods in a shopping centre which creates its own excitement, is further enhanced by the various types of shops.

Notwithstanding these aesthetic considerations, the fact is that the centre as a whole is more important than its individual parts, but at the same time to get a "successful whole", the parts must be sound. This would mean that the failure of a trader is not only his personal concern but directly affects the other retailers in that shopping centre. In many instances in South Africa, tenant mix is still unsophisticated, because leasing operators who are being forced to fill space under financial return pressures, are generally too busy convincing themselves that they have secured the "right tenant" to worry about tenant mix.

With the constant change in retailing and the new areas of development, "the mix" and the quality of it is becoming more critical.

How can the retailer offer a quality operation?

The following are the major elements that contribute towards quality:

i. Merchandise

Merchandise is the retailer's basic tool of the trade and therefore great care must be taken to ensure that the selection of it is right for the target market. An enterprising retailer should be able to interpret the needs and wants of his target consumers, and select quality merchandise at a price realistic enough to allow him a sufficient profit margin and to be competitive as well.

ii. Display

The merchandise, once judiciously selected, must be displayed in a manner that would create the greatest degree of customer interest. A retailer should ensure that correct lighting is used to accent the merchandise and to ensure that the store is always neat and tidy and provides unrestricted customer movement and easy access to merchandise.

iii. Knowledge and Recognition of Customer

Customer relationship is vital in retailing, for the customer is the most important single factor in the retail business. A customer should receive the most courteous and attentive treatment possible since a lost customer is a costly liability while a satisfied customer, the most valuable asset.

iv. Promotions and Advertising

Retailers should participate actively in the promotional activities of the centre since the objective is to generate custom to the whole centre including his store. Collective advertising can result in greater benefits with minimum costs.

v. Administration

This is the backbone of every business. Retailers must ensure that the stock control methods are effective and that bookkeeping is up to date. Store security must be adequate to minimize shrinkage.

In short, retailers must provide the professionalism required by the more sophisticated and educated consumers, regardless of the type of operation being conducted.

Furthermore, the success of a shopping centre depends on the success of individual tenants of which the key tenant or anchor tenant has the most important place. In some cases, the anchor tenants themselves are the property developers and managers of the shopping centres, for example, Checkers in South Africa played a large part in the development of Shopping Centres. Anchor tenants attract a broad array of small and mainly specialist shops. Ideally there should be little direct competition between these stores, for they should rather complement each other. However, some developers, in desperately trying to fill spaces in their centres, lease out to competing stores and the shopping centre invariably ends up as a mini CBD as regards the tenant mix.

Anchor tenants are often reputable supermarkets, discount houses and departmental stores. In some cases, hypermarkets are the anchor tenants in a centre, where they are also the developers for example the Pick 'n Pay Hypermarket Centre in Boksburg, where the Hypermarket checkouts feed straight out into the mall, with the shop fronts completely open onto the mall.

Since anchor tenants are the most important tenants in shopping centres, a brief discussion of the

different considerations would be appropriate.

Before anchor tenants agree to be the drawcard tenants, they have to take into account, the location, access, design and planning, small shops, customer services, parking and feasibility of the shopping centre. The feasibility study would consider aspects such as the viability of the centre in a particular area, the number of customers that would patronize them, whether their services will cause traffic congestion and thus affect the value of residential property.

In the design and planning of shopping centres, the anchor tenant's location is first planned with the smaller shops and malls in relation to it. In some cases there may be two anchor tenants in a shopping centre e.g. Woolworths, the departmental store, and Checkers, the supermarket, in the Killarney Shopping Centre in Johannesburg. The anchor tenants must be planned and located in such a way that it draws customers past the small shops, that is customers intending to visit the anchor tenant must walk past the small shops to get there and it is then the small retailer's opportunity to make use of the "captive market". This implies that the entrances must be in the right places as well as the anchor tenant, for if the anchor tenant has its own private entrance, customers will walk straight into the supermarket and

straight out again giving little opportunity for the smaller shops to make use of the captive market. Anchor tenants directly affect the overall patronage of shopping centres.

Secondary Customer Attractions

Other customer attractions in shopping centres are banks and building societies, personal service shops for example hairdressing salons, and dry cleaning depots, specialist sports stores, garden and hardware stores, bottlestores, specialist confectionery stores, pharmacy, library, recreational centres such as squash courts, and offices.

2.3.6 Design of Shopping Centres

The design of the shopping centre is considered of major importance both from the overall plan of the buildings and the location of the key tenants. The centre should be designed so that people are attracted to the centre and can be channelled through it, thereby creating a maximum flow of traffic. The key tenants should be located where they can attract people through the centre, so that shoppers will have the opportunity of passing shops and being made aware of their existence.

Gruen and Smith¹ state:-

"The primary objective of the merchandising planner is to select stores and to arrange them in such a manner that the greatest possible number of people are attracted to the centre and funnelled through it."

The shopping public of today looks for more than just a collection of commercial and service interests in shopping centres. Therefore shopping centre planners and developers should ensure that shopping will be an experience which the public can look forward to, and an expedition for the individual or family which is both pleasant and interesting.

The separation of the selling area from the service is of major importance in the design of shopping centres. The larger the shopping centre the easier this is to achieve, but too often service areas are insufficient with goods-vehicles becoming entangled with customers' cars. It is also important that the traders in a shopping center are not placed in inconvenient situations in this regard. If there are various parking levels, then there should be direct access from the parking areas into each of the shopping levels by means of a system of slow

1. quoted in Johnston (1973, p.30).

travelling escalators, for example at Sanlamsentrum in Randburg. Sanlamsentrum has also catered for paraplegics by providing facilities at the Mall entrances to make shopping easier for them.

Moreover, the malls should not be too broad that shoppers have no contact with the shops on each side, but at the same time, it should not be so small that it becomes an alley. Where malls are too wide, shoppers will not pass closely enough to the merchandise displayed in the windows.

Malls in addition, should be designed to incorporate as many natural decorative qualities as possible, while at the same time protecting them from the wind and rain. This has been successfully achieved at The Link Shopping Centre in Claremont, Cape, where natural light, shrubs and flowers have been used extensively in the building. The huge dome-light over the Centre Court and smaller dome-lights over the malls, give soft natural lighting. Similarly at the Eastgate Centre, which is South Africa's biggest Regional Shopping Centre, use is made of natural light, through light wells which have pyramid-shaped space frames. Trees, flower boxes, hanging plants, pools and fountains give the centre a natural look.

When shopping centre gardens are properly planned, it is a fine and rewarding investment for the owner and his tenants, and is also a pleasing environment for their customers and the community as a whole.

The configuration of the mall and the selection of finishes, relate to the quality of environment that can be achieved in relation to the retail component in the centre. However, the major design element in any retail complex is the shop-front which surrounds the shopper and which is by far the strongest visual element within the shopping centre. Standard shop fronts do not work for the various retailers required to make up a shopping centre, for example, the shop front required for a jeweller is different from that required for a dress shop. On the other hand where there is not a single standard shopfront and where the centre does not have control over the shop front design, it would create an environment of total confusion, with each tenant trying to outdo his neighbour.

Every shopping centre requires a design criterion which controls the design of all elements in the shop front from materials to display lighting. A properly prepared criterion will provide relief from the monotonous standard shop front design and

will allow for a more personalised projection of the individual tenants within given limits.

2.3.7 Parking

Parking is of prime importance to any suburban shopping centre, since virtually all its customers rely on private transport.

The design of a centre should ensure that there is direct and easy access to all the shopping levels within the centre.

Dissatisfaction among customers in parking lots may mean that the customer will refuse to come back. Therefore, owners and developers should consider controls as an additional service to the customer, since parking is vital to attract them.

2.4 THE WHEEL OF RETAILING

The development of retailing cannot be disposed of without some mention of the "wheel of retailing", which is a name given to an explanation of retail development by McNair. (McNair and May 1978,p.81). He states that new retailers enter the marketing areas as low-price operators,with little

status and poor facilities and offer a minimum of services to customers. The establishments are operated by those who are extremely cost conscious and aggressively competitive, but eventually they invest in better stores and more elaborate facilities; they add more services and increase their prices to cover these additional costs. Ultimately these merchants mature into high-cost, high-price retailers offering merchandise, accompanied by considerable service. They are now open to competition from entrepreneurs who aggressively pursue a low-cost, low price strategy. The wheel continues to turn and each competitor repeats this cycle of growth.

Not until recently, has attention been given to the nature of evolutionary change in the character and structure of retailing enterprises. Changes in ways of doing business are primarily the consequence of competitive innovation based on opportunities afforded by changing circumstances. With the advent of the department store, consumers responded to the greater convenience and the time-savings in filling many needs, to greater variety and larger selections. In addition to the department store, the chain store, resulted in a major change in the pattern of South African retailing.

Consumer buying habits changed with purchases of larger quantities which was made possible by inter alia refrigeration and the increasing use of the motor car. As consumers began to depend on the motor car, suburban retail outlets began to be grouped and located strategically for driving

convenience. These replaced neighbourhood stores which had been located for neighbourhood convenience and eventually led to another important institutional change, namely the suburban shopping centre. Another innovation, namely the self-service and checkout in soft goods and general merchandise followed, with an increasing ferment in the distribution of food. Food supermarkets grew larger in size and added more lines; many of them being non-food products. Subsequently superstores appeared, with a wider range of items and a larger floor area than the supermarkets.

One of the strengths of these operations is that they cater for specific shopping needs. Finally the hypermarkets, (which is the most recently established retailing institution), by introducing elements of warehouse operations through mechanical handling, operate at a lower labour-cost percentage, thus passing on the reduction in operating costs to the consumer in the form of lower prices.

2.5

THE SMALL SHOP

It would be expedient to discuss small scale retailing and the small shop in order to appreciate and understand the nature of retailing in Chatsworth.

A popular conception of a small shop is that of a corner or convenience shop as described in chapter 2. It is however not easy to define a small shop, as a number of criteria are used to measure shop size.

2.5.1 Criteria used to measure shop size

Dawson and Kirby (1979 p.1) list some of the criteria that may be used:-

- i. The small shop should have a small share of the market, but this poses a problem because the location of a "small" shop may give it an effective monopoly in that it has a larger market share than another shop of the same size in a different location.
- ii. The small shop should be managed by its owners or past owners in a personalized manner but it means that any small shop unit belonging to a retail chain or cooperative society is excluded since both have formalized manage-

ment structures. However, many of the problems arising from small physical size of shops are common to units, no matter what the management structure; and the role, function and value to the consumer is very similar with both an independently owned shop and a small unit of a chain or co-operative society. It may be stated that independent ownership is not an exclusive criterion for small shop definition.

- iii. The owner/manager should be free from outside control in taking the principal decisions, which is not usually the case when a store is part of a retail chain.
- iv. The turnover of a small shop should not exceed a specified amount. However, the price differences associated with different commodities mean that in some cases the specified amount is easily passed, whilst in other cases it is more difficult to raise sales above this level, for example unit sales value in green grocery shops compared with a jewellery shop illustrates this problem. In terms of sales, smallness is not an absolute measure but a relative one. Furthermore, due to inflation, the critical values

constantly have to be revised upwards.

- v. The number of employees is also a possible measure. The number of employees may be influenced by the different selling techniques in shops as well as the commodity mix sold. Other measures that may be used are, size of capital invested, floorspace and size of gross margin; Although extensive studies of the small shop have not been carried out in South Africa, there has been some concern over the problems facing small shop operators.

2.5.2 Problems facing the small shop operator

Some of the problems according to Dawson and Kirby (1979 p.67) are:-

- i. Small shops tend to have a higher mortality rate due especially to the ease of entry of other small stores and the proliferation of large chain stores and hypermarkets. These stores' success has stemmed as much from the flexibility made possible by specialization as from the economies of large-scale retailing. Their bargaining power is also stronger.

- ii. The undercosting of labour is a characteristic feature of small shop operation especially since labour is provided by family members.
- iii. The difficulty of keeping up with competition in the form of new and improved retailing techniques because of increased capital expenditure. For example, self-service operations require larger floor space which can only be acquired through considerable capital outlay.
- iv. Changes in the pattern of consumer expenditure also influence the retailer's operations. For example, catering for the demand in frozen convenience foods requires extensive capital outlay and modification to premises. Self-service refrigerators are not only expensive items, they also require considerable space and specialized fittings.
- v. Financial difficulties are also more common among small shop operators, because of the difficulty of acquisition of funds from lending institutions. Dawson and Kirby further state that the businesses most susceptible to financial problems are those

which have been run by the same person for all or most of his working life. Usually these people are nearing retirement and have not adapted to change as well as having lost their impetus and initiative.

- vi. A fundamental problem facing the small shop is that of supply. This is particularly pertinent as regards the mounting costs of distribution and the need for distributors to reduce journeys and increase order sizes. The complexity of the distributive system stems from the fact that small retailers may use one or a combination of the various suppliers available. For example, he can buy directly from the manufacturer, be supplied by a traditional wholesaler who delivers to his store or he can procure his goods from a wholesale cash-and-carry just as a consumer purchases from a retail outlet.

For those shops affiliated to a voluntary group, trade with the group wholesaler is particularly important but it is not necessarily 100 percent.

- vii. Managerial expertise is limited because there is generally one manager, who may not

necessarily be formally trained and who is required to devote his attention to various aspects of the business, as opposed to a specialist manager in a large shop.

- viii. Of major significance is the influence of planning legislation, and the lack of co-ordination of land-use controls directed at the retailing and wholesaling sectors.

Through clearance schemes, the small retailer has suffered a growing physical separation from his main sources of supplies. Lock¹ adds that clearance schemes have also "... either extinguished small shops altogether or-somehow more cruelly - have marooned them in a sea of dereliction and have shipped their customers off to new estates."

In some areas land-use controls and building regulations, lead to a shortage of sites while suitable sites have inflated prices and rents. Retailers who absorb the higher rents, increase the prices of their goods and services.

1. quoted in (Foreman 1977 p.20)

Furthermore, planners do not intervene to hinder larger developers who clear blocks of small shops to provide premises for chain stores, Davies¹ has made a plea "that future planning policies must be more feasible and sensitive in approach and be able to deal with a wide range of different problems." He has listed general and specific requirements of such an approach and policy. Among the general requirements are, first, that the problems of local shops should be treated within the wider context of changes in the distributive trades. Secondly, more choice in sites to enable operators to adapt more readily to changing conditions in the market.

- ix. Road-widening schemes also contribute to the problems facing the small retailer; motorways have separated local shops from their customers since they present a physical and visual barrier to the customer.

1. quoted in Froneman (1977, p.24)

Having discussed the problems faced by small stores, it is interesting to see how they manage to survive in the face of such problems.

2.5.3 Survival of the Small Shop

The small shop has a high social value, especially for those people who do not possess cars, who are poor, aged and infirm, and who are particularly inconvenienced by the lack of local shopping facilities.

A small shop has always been more than merely an economic unit as it offers values which cannot be accounted for in monetary terms, for example, the small shop operator extends credit more readily to his customers who are usually well known to him, being residents in the neighbourhood. Furthermore the personal service and friendliness cannot be compared with the cold, impersonalized atmosphere of large stores.

Various studies have shown that small stores are regularly patronized by particular groups. Dixon and McLaughlin (1968)¹ found that small food shops

1. quoted in Dawson and Kirby (1979 p.9)

were patronized particularly by the poor in Philadelphia and there was a correlation between low income and membership of ethnic minorities.

In Britain, studies also indicate that the heavy users of small shops are well defined minorities. In the city centres they are the poor; in suburban neighbourhood centres they are the less mobile who may be old, infirm or have young children, and in the villages they are the older and more traditionally minded. (Dawson and Kirby 1979 p.9).

In response to the inroads made against them by chain stores and other large retailers, many small retailers have joined voluntary retail buying groups, such as Spar, who offer support service in the form of finance, and retail site selection which is particularly needed, for seldom is the location of shops determined by scientific research in South Africa. Small retailers can achieve some of the economies of integration by coming into closer association with a wholesaler. The small retailers undertake to purchase from this voluntary group in return for a discount and supporting services.

Cash and Carry wholesalers have also benefited small retailers because this type of wholesaling is

based on the retailer's selecting, collecting and paying cash for his goods, thus enabling the wholesaler to reduce selling, assembly, distribution, and credit costs and to pass over the savings to the retailer, who can in turn be competitive.

Efforts to preserve the corner shop should come from organised commerce and should be possible within a framework created by the various levels of government. The decline of small shops is both a social and an economic problem as well as a problem created by planners.

In retail planning, a detailed understanding of consumer behaviour and the way it is changing is fundamental. Further, forecasting the future level of demand for any land use activity is difficult and is often exacerbated by some deficiencies in the amount and kind of data required. Therefore close co-operation between the private and public sectors will be facilitative.

Johnston (1979,p.13) also submits that the Town Planner needs to seek more aid from non-town planning experts. He adds that "this would mean a greater investment of capital into the town planning process in its formative stages but the dividends to be gained from such foresight should be bountiful."(in R16/03/22/A).

2.6

LOCATION OF RETAIL OUTLETS

The primary justification for the existence of a retail business is its ability to serve a customer group. Thus, it should be conveniently located. Therefore, because of population movements, the changing urban social conditions, and continually rising land costs, greater attention should be devoted to retail site location.

However, it is a field of study which is changing very rapidly and which possesses no universally accepted framework. It ranges over academic and applied aspects and the theorist is often thwarted by apparently arbitrary or random locational decisions in practice, or strategies which are clearly based upon nothing more than educated guesses, subjective experience or rule of thumb principles (Kivell and Shaw 1980 p.95. Article in Dawson, J A ed. 1980).

Location in retailing is fundamental because a firm has to have the right merchandise mix at the right place; and location has great importance in competitive strategy.

The value of specific site locations tends to change over time, and depends primarily on three factors:-

- i. the general trade area,
- ii. traffic flow and its analysis and
- iii. the population and its mobility.

2.6.1 The General Trade Area

By this we mean, the geographical area where most of the retailer's customers reside. They may reside within a short radius of the store or may live many kilometres away. The size and shape of a trade area is not clearly defined because some people will travel varying distances to patronize a store while others have to depend on public transport which is a major inhibiting factor in the case of suburban shopping centres.

The assessment of trading potential is an exercise which any retailer must undertake before making a decision to trade in a given location. The methods employed may lack sophistication in many cases, and the decision may be swayed by other traditional factors. However new types of trading patterns, the increased cost of land, and the growing sophistication of land use planners are leading to attempts to produce a systematic approach to this problem.

2.6.2 Traffic Flow Analysis

The number, kind and type of traffic that passes a specific location is important to retailers, because the higher the traffic count, the greater the potential sales volume. Traffic analysis must also be made as to the number of potential customers for

specific types of goods and services, e.g. a large number of men passing a women's store or a large number of children and women passing a men's store, are not potential customers. The age distribution of people who pass a certain location should also be carefully examined since adults are not usually interested in youth-oriented items unless they have teenage children, and teenagers are not interested in purchasing furniture and appliances. However both groups may be interested in fast-food items and other impulse goods.

Therefore it is essential for the success of a shopping centre that it should have a tenant mix that will provide for the needs of the different types of people that it seeks to attract.

2.6.3 Population and its Mobility

The movement of population has brought about several new developments in the manner by which retailers locate their stores.

Retailers starting new businesses realise the need to locate in the more heavily populated area, while many existing retailers are compelled to re-evaluate old retail sites and to consider the prospect of opening new stores closer to the shifting populations.

The location of the retail store or shopping centre must therefore be conveniently placed in order to serve the area, and must be easily accessible by car at a moderate speed so that change over from open road to parking is relatively smooth.

It is an axiomatic feature of human behaviour that shoppers will not go to "inconvenient places" unless these are the only places where they can expect to find the goods they want. Convenience means different things to different people and it also represents the degree to which shopping fulfils needs other than the purchase of goods and services needed by the shopper.

2.7

CONCLUSIONS

Retailing is the summation of all activities that result in the offering of goods and services for sale to individuals and organizations for ultimate consumption.

An understanding of the types of firms comprising the retail structure and an insight into how changes in structure occur over time, can provide valuable perspective for planning retail strategy. Retail structure is in a process of continuous change, thus making it imperative for retailers to be alert in order to recognize important developments and trends timeously and to plan appropriate

strategies to optimize profits, while serving the customer's growing needs and desires.

It can also be seen from the foregoing that each new retail institution has been the result of retailing adapting to different conditions in the market place.

CHAPTER 3

3.1 ENVIRONMENTAL FORCES INFLUENCING RETAILING

Retail enterprises of today function in an increasingly dynamic and complex environment, which demands an increasing awareness and expertise on the part of retail management to respond and adjust successfully to these changes.

The most important forces, namely the technological, economic, social, legal and competitive forces will be discussed. This five-category typology, being one among many possible ways to categorize environmental variables has been used because it provides a workable basis for discussing the complex environment of retailing.

3.1.1 Technological Forces

New forms of technology are continuously emerging in most areas of retail operation, but many firms are unwilling to adopt the new forms available due to a lack of initiative and capability of the entrepreneurs to take advantage of them.

Some of the newer forms of technology are computers, electronic funds transfer systems, universal product codes scanning systems and universal vendor marking systems.

i. Computers

In South Africa some larger retail outlets are spending millions of rands on point of sales terminals, which are revolutionizing shopping in the United Kingdom and Europe. (Sunday Times 81/5/3, p.9). The move towards point of sale terminals is strongest among operations which have a firm leaning towards credit business. Point of Sales terminals differ from the common "stand-alone" electronic cash registers in that they are computers or are directly linked to computers, providing and recording a wide range of merchandising and customer-related information and calculations, superior customer service through more efficient processing of transactions, and elimination of costly and time-consuming manual procedures.

Advances in electronic data processing in retailing have been slower than in other business areas primarily because the investment in the equipment is high, particularly for retail outlets carrying several thousand items; transactions are complicated in general merchandise retailing, and personnel problems abound in training

people to work with such equipment.

However recent advances have led to reductions in the prices making it possible for smaller outlets to acquire them as well. The recognition by retailers of increased savings from better inventory management, reduction of under-rings or mis-rings at the cash register, less shrinkage at the point of sale, and the need to increase labour productivity can lead to a rapid increase in the use of the computer.

ii. Electronic Funds Transfer System -

The electronic funds transfer system (EFTS) as defined by the American National Commission is "a payments system in which the processing and communications necessary to effect economic exchange and the processing and communications necessary for the production and distribution of services incidental or related to economic exchange are dependent wholly or in large part on the use of electronics" (Benton 1977 p.28). It involves the instantaneous transfer of money, without the processing of paper, through electronic entries.

Benton (1977 p.16) believes that the new technology has potential for widespread and varied benefits once it overcomes its slow and costly beginning. To usher in the Electronic Funds Transfer System, the requirements are; willing consumers, business relationships between merchants and depository institutions, an Electronic Funds Transfer System communications systems and access to the files of depository institutions so that a payor's records can be debited and payees can be credited for the amount of the transactions.

The telecommunications network is crucial because without it information can only be retrieved with much expense and inconvenience. However, an Electronic Funds Transfer System is expensive and the people required to back up the terminals and support a programme may cost more than one anticipates.

iii. Universal Product Codes Scanning System

Universal Product Code (UPC) Scanning systems involve the removal of individual pricing of merchandise, with the following

promises:-

- . accuracy of checkout, as a result of reduction of checker error
- . customer satisfaction through speed, accuracy and a detailed shopping tape
- . improved inventory and financial control.

However, Mason and Mayer (1981 p.197) believe that the delay in adopting the system can be attributed to the enormous investment in the equipment, the need for entirely new operating procedures and management systems, some consumer groups' opposition to non-price marking, slow rate of coding and doubts about the equipment.

An important factor in the realization of the Universal Product Code Scanner's growth potential is the reaction of consumers. The objective should therefore be to assess consumer attitudes towards the new technology and whether consumer attitudes vary by demographic or behavioural factors, for example by age, education or

shopping frequency. Retailers must be able to dispel the following fears and concerns of the consumers : namely

- . Price removal allows stores to raise prices without consumer notice;
- . price removal prohibits price verification and
- . price removal minimizes comparison shopping.

For widespread acceptance to occur, consumers must perceive that the Universal Product Codes system provides some desirable combination of the following benefits:-

- . decreased check-out time,
- . increased accuracy due to reduced under-rings,
- . a detailed receipt tape, and
- . lower prices as cost-savings are passed on by retailers.

For retailers to ensure that consumers

will understand and appreciate the benefits of Universal Product Codes systems, they must inform and educate the consumer through programmes.

iv. Universal Vendor Marking Systems

According to Mason and Mayer (1981 p.200) Universal Vendor Marking (UVM) involves a standard vendor-created identification system where the need to mark the items when they are received by each store would be eliminated. Premarked items identified by manufacturer, style, size and colour will speed the items through the retailers' receiving and marking functions.

The advantage of this system is that it reduces the time spent and the labour required to mark the items.

v. Teleshopping

Teleshopping refers to the purchase of goods by the consumer using a remote electronic device placed in his home (McNair and May 1978,p.87). The device could be built into a television set or

be a separate attachment used in conjunction with a television set. It enables the consumer to shop for many items by simply pressing the buttons on the Television set to punch out various product-category codes. Pictures of the product as well as the prices, ordering information and even a working demonstration of the product then appears on the television screen whereupon, actual ordering may be done by inserting a debit card into the device, which would be connected to an Electronic Funds Transfer System through telephone lines or cable in the case of a cable-equipped television set.

Although the technology for teleshopping exists, its use depends on retailer and consumer acceptance as well as cost efficiency factors.

Acceptance of teleshopping can have profound implications for retailing strategy for example the need for traditional retailers to store, display, sell and accept payment could be reduced, while new types of non-store retailers may appear to challenge

traditional shops.

The growth of teleshopping may be favoured especially in the light of inflation, the energy crisis, reduced time available for shopping on the part of working women and a general dislike for the shopping of convenience items.

Technological advance has not only resulted in new forms that may be used with greater efficiency in performing the various retailing activities, it has also resulted in the increase in the variety of products, which leads to new types of retailers or an increase in the size of retailing institutions.

Furthermore, a very significant result is the increase in competition and types of competitors.

3.1.2 Economic Forces

i. Economic Status of Consumers

The economic status of consumers, the movement of wages and prices, the distribution of incomes and the employment

situation have considerable effects on retail performance.

The most significant factor as far as retail enterprises are concerned is the economic status of consumers, because the personal disposable income of the consumer is the main factor in converting needs and wants into effective demand. Personal disposable income is that part of total income remaining after subtraction of direct taxes, which consumers may save, or purchase goods and services to satisfy their needs and wants. The ability of consumers to purchase goods and services, and their expenditure patterns are therefore dependent on personal disposable income.

Other economic forces that have to be contended with are inflation, low labour productivity, scarce and high-cost capital, the high cost of energy, environmental protection and uncertain resource availability.

ii. Inflation

The purchasing power of consumers is continuing to decline as inflation outstrips the increases in income.

With the increasing rate of inflation, consumers are responding by changing their shopping habits for example

- . they are switching brands more often to take advantage of price specials;
- . they are using private brands;
- . they are making fewer shopping trips; and
- . they are seeking products that are low in initial cost, resistant to obsolescence, durable and have a lower rate of energy consumption.

While the attempt to limit stocks represents a useful strategy for dealing with inflation, it does not provide the best alternative, as limited inventories may

result in handing over sales opportunities to competitors when demand is high.

Although dealing with inflation in theory is simple, it is difficult to achieve in reality, because consumer behaviour is not predictable.

During recessionary periods, retailers experience substantial reductions in sales volumes and profitability, sometimes resulting in bankruptcy of firms that are not well managed.

Since the economy is not precisely predictable, even with the best data and forecasting methods, retailers need strategies that can help them to make the most of economic recessions. Retailers should develop special or contingency marketing strategies for operating in recessionary periods that are effective for their particular firms.

Retailers, therefore, have to adapt their retailing strategies to cater to the changing economic climate and implement them timeously.

iii. Consumer Credit

The rapid growth in the use of consumer credit reflects a move away from the Protestant ethic of saving for a rainy day and enjoying only those things that can be presently afforded. Credit has become an acceptable method of purchasing for most consumers and a competitive necessity for many retailers. Three basic factors make credit sales important to retailers: namely,

- it is a method of increased total sales volume

- it is a tool to facilitate larger unit sales and

- it is a basis for meeting competition, because it provides a stream of regular customers to a store.

Credit has created both opportunities and increased responsibilities for retailers who have to exercise caution in extending credit and establishing credit limits.

In South Africa, there has been an "explosive growth in hire purchase", (Sunday Times Business 81/11/22 p.2) and the use of Bank Credit cards. Accompanying the increase in credit, is the promulgation of legislation to protect the consumer against unscrupulous retailers who may charge exorbitant interest rates.

v. The Credit Card

Credit cards as a form of money are becoming a popular medium of transaction. The credit card is issued by financial institutions and by retailers to credit-worthy customers. This facility allows a 30-day credit on goods purchased before a charge is levied.

The cash card, issued by building societies, added a further dimension to money transactions. The users are able to enjoy the facility of the credit card coupled with the many benefits of a building society account. This system is debit-based, meaning that interest is earned on the money in the account. Another advantage of the cash card is that there

is access to cash from money machines, and purchases in supermarkets and hypermarkets may be made without actually carrying money. Further, the users have the benefit of having access to money after hours at money machines which are strategically placed, and it also allows for a supermarket or hypermarket to pay up to a certain amount to the card holder.

3.1.3 Social Forces

Some of the important social forces that will be discussed are : life-styles of the present generation, working women, and consumerism.

i. Life-styles

Engel, Kollat and Blackwell (1973 p.121) refer to life-styles, as the way in which an individual chooses and uses possessions.

An analysis of lifestyles usually includes leisure, physical and mental well-being, and consumer sophistication.

A retailer who creates and maintains a retail mix that adapts to life-style changes, has a significant differential

advantage over others.

Leisure time has increased for many because of changing employment patterns. Consumers want more time for leisure activities and interests, and are sensitive to the time needed for the chores of daily living. Not only does the increase in interest in leisure create opportunities for leisure goods, but it also has implications for time-saving methods of shopping.

Time-saving shifts in meal and shopping habits are playing a pivotal role in the development of new distribution strategies. This can have unprecedented opportunities for the growth of telecommunication and catalogue retailing. Berry (1979 p.64) says, "There is perhaps no change in retailing today more dramatic than the explosive growth in catalogue retailing..., millions of American consumers are responding vigorously to catalogue based shopping opportunities."

He adds that although the time-related benefit is only one of the influences

behind the boom in catalogue sales, it is definitely one of the primary factors. McNair and May (1978 p.87) concur, "We see growing receptivity to a more efficient system through which staple merchandise can be acquired. Such purchases must be accomplished as routinely and expeditiously as possible. Confirmation that today's consumers are already thinking this way is afforded by the rapidly growing use of catalogues to shop at home for a wide variety of items".

The growing time-consciousness among consumers results in a significant number of people changing their shopping habits by electing to purchase through catalogue and through telecommunication, contributing to still another revolution in the wheel of retailing.

ii. Physical and Mental well-being

Another time-scarcity influence at work is the increasing amount of time reserved for physical and mental well-being resulting through the spread of affluence which has provided greater access to physical

and mental renewal opportunities.

Among the ways in which individuals seek to fulfil themselves are:-

- . emphasis on physical health, exercise and in mysticism and self-improvement;
- . de-emphasis of complexity and a striving towards simplicity; and
- . insistence upon social responsibility by business and industry as well as an improvement in the environment.

For the astute retailer, the quest for a better quality of life represents a tremendous opportunity even though some of the aspirations associated with a better quality of life appear to reflect a non-material and anti-business, anti-commercial tendency. To reap the rewards, retailers have to effectively communicate what they can do to fulfil such aspirations.

iii. Working Women

The profile of the working woman is changing. Whereas the majority of the working women were young and unmarried, today the working woman is likely to be married, older, and has one or more dependent children.

In South Africa, the rising costs of living and the higher price of bond payments has led to an increasing number of married women seeking employment, and the increase in the number of working wives reflects a growing demand for women in commerce and industry to alleviate what was a critical shortage of skilled workers in the past year. (Sunday Times 80/08/01 p.1).

The factor most directly related to female employment is the level of education. The higher the education achieved the greater the probability that a female would work.

The increase in the number of females combining the roles of working woman, wife, and mother has significant implications for

retailers:-

- . Large amounts of money are spent on time-saving major appliances and household equipment.
- . Mail-order, catalogue, and telecommunications, as well as "round-the-clock" retailers, are at an advantage because working wives are generally unable to shop during regular retail hours.
- . Convenience foods and fast-foods restaurants are growing in importance because working wives have less time to prepare meals.
- . Working wives increase family affluence, resulting in emphasis on travel, and leisure.
- . They are independent of their purchases as they seek individualism and personal identity.

Retailers must be cognizant of the increasing number of working women as well as the qualitative changes that have

occurred. These qualitative changes mean that they have different motivations and are committed to different life-styles.

iv. Consumerism

Day and Aaker (1970, p.12) define consumerism as "the widening range of activities of government, business and independent organizations that are designed to protect individuals from practices that infringe upon their rights as consumers."

Consumerism is also a social force within the environment which is designed to aid and protect the consumer by exerting legal, moral and economic pressures on business.

It can be viewed in many ways : for example,

- . as a marketing opportunity that may offer competitive advantages to retailers who respond with creative strategies;
- . as a potential threat that requires defensive actions to minimize

- detrimental effects; or
- . as a phenomenon that merits little executive concern.

As enunciated by President Kennedy in America in 1962, consumers have the right to safety, the right to be informed, the right to choose and the right to be heard.

In South Africa interest in consumerism developed slowly and the initiative for consumer protection was taken by women's organizations such as, Women's Agricultural Association, Women's Institute, and the Housewives League (Leibold 1981, p.106).

The growth of consumerism may be attributed to many factors, including the following:-

- . the consumer is becoming more knowledgeable and discerning, as well as ready to complain and demand protection;
- . increasing price consciousness and sensitivity to value;

- . some organizations are perceived by consumers as being indifferent or negligent with regard to the treatment of customers, unresponsive to complaints, apathetic to the fact that warranties and services are not being honoured or fairly applied, misleading in their advertising, contravening price control regulations, exploiting the disadvantaged and trading in inferior quality goods; and
- . the increase in the number of new merchandise making it difficult for consumers to choose judiciously.

Consumers in South Africa are now protected by many laws, the most comprehensive one being, the Maintenance and Promotion of Competition Act No. 96 of 1979, and the Foodstuffs, Cosmetics and Disinfectants Act No. 54 of 1972.

Consumers are not only concerned with products and the information about their content, but also with environmental

factors, such as pollution, protection of the ecological system, and preservation of natural resources.

It is expected that consumerism activities will increase in the future, and several retailers are planning to adapt to consumerism without waiting for forced compliance, for example Raymond Ackerman, (Sunday Tribune Finance 81/11/22, p.1) managing director of Pick 'n Pay said that retailers should get back to real old fashioned consumerism, because retailing would only be successful if it interpreted what the consumer wanted and distributed efficiently what consumers needed.

Retailers should view consumerism positively and be motivated towards developing retail programmes and strategies to cope with consumer discontent.

V. Consumer Sophistication

Consumer attitudes, values and activities are changing rapidly and consumers are reflecting increased levels of education. They are more knowledgeable, sophisticated, and cognizant of national and international

trends in tastes, styles and products.

Increased education creates self-assurance, and provides an appreciation of available choices, while at the same time it demands detailed information about products and services.

Retailers should recognise the fact that consumer education presents them with more opportunities than problems, and that their complacency about their status quo, would only find them in weak competitive positions.

Retailers who monitor, anticipate, and support the activities of the educated consumer, will find themselves in an enviable position vis-a-vis, their complacent counterparts.

3.1.4 Legal Forces

Retail managers have to consider the legal implications of their decisions, especially since legal constraints are becoming a pervasive and proliferating aspect of the retailing environment.

Varying interpretations and changing precedents are serving only to complicate the legal scene for retailers.

The government's view is that its increasing role in the retail sector is designed to regulate competition, furnish protection to consumers, and provide a spur for equitable and honest dealing. The government is taking a closer look at the relationships among retailers and between retailers and consumers as well as between retailers and their suppliers or manufacturers.

Apart from the general constraints on retailers in most western or free market countries, retailers in South Africa have a further governmental constraint regarding racial separation and its allied implications for business location and size in delineated areas. For example, White retail entrepreneurs may not freely operate in Black Homelands and Townships and vice-versa. However many entrepreneurs are attempting to overcome this obstacle by operating in a "forbidden area" under a 49%-51% shareholding to trade in such an area.

The policy of racial separation is however, an evolutionary one with many restrictions likely to

disappear over time. Therefore, retailers must continuously monitor the political and legal developments in order to exploit opportunities that may arise.

Other constraints imposed on South African retailers which may also be found in most other western societies in varying degrees, are legislation regarding restrictive trade practices, such as the resale price maintenance regulations and price cartels, shop hours, taxes, policies regarding prices, salaries and wages, and investments, as well as legislation to protect the consumer.

Whether or not the government's increased role will continue, depends in part on the willingness of retailers to regulate themselves and operate with integrity.

Retailers, therefore, need to adopt a strategy that would give specific guidance for the firm on the one hand and will provide room for flexibility on the other hand.

3.1.5 Competitive Forces

The nature and strength of competition in retailing are of fundamental importance to both consumers and

retail management, because each party has a vested interest in the effectiveness of our retailing system.

Since retailers function in an increasingly dynamic and sophisticated competitive environment, there is no place for businesses that operate unimaginatively, because aggressive competitors eventually drive out those who refuse to innovate. A firm must distinguish itself from its competitors through its merchandise, service, and/or method of operation in order to rise above mediocrity. This demands creativity, innovativeness, and a recognition of the changing and unfulfilled desires of consumers.

However some organisations resist change and do not always welcome major innovations, because such organizations have developed vested interests, and they fear that relationships, authority, and privileges will change for the worse if some innovation is adopted. Alternatively, they remain engrossed in routine matters rather than develop a wider perspective. Furthermore, some organizations lack aggressive and innovative executive talent.

In view of the competitive environment in which retail institutions have to exist, it is not

difficult to understand that retail institutions, like products, go through a life-cycle, consisting of the inception stage, rapid growth stage, maturity stage and decline stage. Each stage reflects certain market characteristics, and requires appropriate management activities during the respective stages (Davidson et al 1976, p.90).

During the inception or innovation stage, the institution invariably enjoys an advantage since it usually is a departure from existing approaches. Despite sharp rises in sales volume as a result of wide customer acceptance, profits lag because the new institution has to contend with unique operating problems associated with the new business, and the company lacks the size to produce significant economies of scale, for example Pick 'n Pay admits more than 700 mistakes were recorded with the planning of their first hypermarket (Leibold 1981, p.175).

During the rapid growth or accelerated development stage, sales volume and profits rise sharply. Geographic expansion is undertaken and new firms enter the field. For example, O.K. Bazaars and Checkers entered the field, once the hypermarket concept proved successful. However, some firms that

develop retaliatory measures during this stage, do not often prove successful, because they concentrate on only one dimension, for example conventional department stores attempted retaliatory measures against discount stores without much success, because they competed on price only, and did not recognise the non-price advantages of the discount stores, such as more convenient store hours, and self-service operations.

Towards the end of the rapid growth stage, institutions begin to experience organisational difficulties.

During the maturity stage there is a severe dissipation of vitality of retailers. There is a levelling-off of market share and a reduction in profitability, as a result of severe difficulties in controlling large and complex organisations; the problem of expansion beyond the levels justified by the size of the total market; and increased competition from new forms of retail institutions. During this stage there is no likelihood of the firms returning to the exciting levels associated with the early stages of the life cycle.

The decline stage, is usually postponed or avoided

by innovative strategies or modifications of institutional concepts. During this stage there are major losses in market share, and profits are marginal or non-existent. Moreover, there is a fatal inability to compete with others, which becomes obvious to investors, competitors, as well as consumers.

The institutional retail life-cycle is a natural evolutionary process that is virtually impossible to stop, and it is management's responsibility to anticipate changes in the stages and to adapt the organization as effectively as possible.

Davidson et al (1976, p.92) state that there is ample evidence to suggest that the length of the life cycle is contracting, that is the point between the introduction of a retail concept and the point at which it reaches maturity is growing progressively shorter.

Apart from being another way to conceptualize changes and profitability patterns, the retail life-cycle can also be useful in projecting retail developments and planning marketing strategy.

To be able to cope with continual change retailers

must consider different management styles, or even different management groups during the different stages of the cycle.

However, constant monitoring, experimentation, and innovation, requires a substantial and sophisticated commitment to research, which is costly and beyond the capabilities of some retailers.

The competitive area is further complicated by the four basic types of competition that retailers face, namely,

- i Horizontal competition which involves competition among retailers of the same type, and is the most obvious and visible, for example, department store versus department store.
- ii Intertype competition which exists among different types of retailers, for example department stores versus discount stores.
- iii Vertical competition which involves competition among channel members at different levels of the channel, such as retailer versus wholesaler, or wholesaler

versus manufacturer.

iv . Channel system competition which refers to complete marketing channels competing with the other complete channels. These channels must be well organized and cohesive organizations. They may be classified into three types:

- . Corporate channels where production and marketing facilities are owned by the same company.
- . Contractual channels where operators at different levels of the channel, that is producers, wholesalers and retailers, are bound together by a formal agreement.
- . Administered channels where strong control is exercised by one of the channel members over the other members. This high level of control is derived from the leverage that the dominant member has over the others as a result of a monopoly of supply, special expertise, strong consumer acceptance

of its products, or other factors.

Retailers must not be myopic, and believe that only one type of competition is significant, because even if the other types are non-existent at a particular moment, they could become formidable in the future.

This demands a management posture that constantly considers the four different types of competition, and an ability to deal favourably with them.

Previous strategic planning in retailing was a reasonably straightforward process, where it was possible to make meaningful assumptions regarding the future environment. But today there are, *inter alia*, increased environmental uncertainty, the growing complexity of the innovative process, uncertain resource relationships, changing consumption patterns, a deluge of complex technological innovations, and increasing competition, which create a need for complex contingency plans for a variety of possible situations.

In view of the constantly changing environment, only those retail concepts that involve lower levels of investments, are relatively easy to operate, and have a long life expectancy, are likely to enjoy success.

However, one cannot ignore the fact that there will be increased complexity in the retailing process, suggesting serious profit and survival problems for firms hopelessly addicted to the status quo.

Therefore retailers must be especially sensitive to changing environmental forces, because it is only then that they will be able to plan marketing strategies to deal with changing environmental developments, rather than react to changes when they are well underway.

3.2 FUTURE OF RETAILING

The process of retail evolution is far from stagnant, but shows signs of change in response to the competitive environment and a desire to satisfy the consumer while achieving optimum profit margins.

Many authors predict that shopping trends will continue to change dramatically in future years, resulting in a vastly different retailing scene which will combine the new trends, such as the shortening retail life-cycles, the influence of consumers and their life-styles on retailing, with new technologies such as in-home television computer systems. McNair and May (1978, p.81) expect that by early in the twenty-first century, almost all food

and other basic household needs will be acquired through the use of in-home television computer systems, and shopping choices will be made after viewing assortments, selections, prices and brands on the television screen, together with programming of the household's customary wants, needs, customs and habits.

Berkowitz et al (1979, p.15) are also of the opinion that in-home shopping will have increasing appeal to consumers. They believe that the concept of in-home distribution of food and other staple convenience goods will be resurrected, since they do not view it as a new concept, citing the pushcart vendor selling fruit and vegetables, the chicken farmer with a city egg route, and the local grocer who took telephone orders and hired teenagers to deliver them, as examples of in-home merchants. They began to disappear with the advent of large-scale, low-cost supermarkets since their operating costs were too high, and their assortments too limited to compete with the large retailers.

Now the in-home distributors are conceived of as large-scale organizations offering a wide assortment of goods, and taking advantage of modern technology to gain increased efficiency.

Bloom (1978, p.13) feels that the installation of automated equipment in a warehouse centre designed to prepare and

deliver merchandise directly to customers would be more feasible, rather than duplicating these expensive automated equipment in each store which does not help much in solving the problem of store operation, and rising energy costs, which would still remain inflationary factors. He adds that the cost advantage of this system will become apparent in the latter part of the 1980's as there will be continuing rises in property taxes, labour rates, and energy costs, which will result in an escalating cost of maintaining multiple retail outlets.

This type of service will be welcome especially to the time-buying consumer. Time-pressures are being felt by a greater number of people, since the discretionary time available to many people is perceived as insufficient to accommodate all the desired uses for it. There are many causes of time-scarcity, of which the ever-increasing number of women in the labour force, and the increasing amount of time spent on physical and mental well being, are the major causes.

Women in the Labour Force

Women very often spend more time "working" when both jobs and household responsibilities are taken into account. Of course, time-pressures are more severe if they have infant children. She would obviously consider it to be a major advantage if she can place an order by telephone, and have

it delivered at a scheduled time.

Physical and Mental Well-Being

Another time-scarcity influence at work is the increasing amount of time reserved for physical and mental well-being resulting through the spread of affluence, which has provided greater access to physical and mental renewal opportunities. (Berry 1979, p.58). This is also as a result of the changing values of the more affluent groups, who are intent on improving the quality of their lives. These changes are evidently causing an increase in the opportunity costs of time for many consumers. These consumers will obviously seek greater convenience in shopping, especially when purchasing staple convenience goods. Time-saving shifts in meal and shopping habits is playing a pivotal role in the development of new distribution strategies.

Some still have doubts as to whether telecommunication retailing of staples will be accepted by consumers. Although consumers do not have a strong record of reliability, some argue that despite the scepticism of many when self-service food supermarkets appeared, they have nevertheless served, and are continuing to serve customers well. McNair and May (1978, p.87) feel that the success can be attributed to the fact that the "economic, technological and social

configuration of the times created a basic need for this kind of retailing." They also feel that the configuration of our times creates a basic need "for another quantum jump". McNair and May (1978, p.87) reiterate that time itself and the increasing value that consumers place on it is the major factor, and consumers are sensitive to the time needed for the chores of daily living, because they want more time for other activities and interests.

Much of this discussion has focused on saving time in food shopping, but there are many who are also interested in saving time with shopping in general. This can have unprecedented opportunities for the growth in catalogue retailing. Berry (1979, p.64) goes so far as to say "There is perhaps no change in retailing today more dramatic than the explosive growth in catalogue retailing...., millions of American consumers are responding vigorously to catalogue based shopping opportunities". He adds that although the time-related benefit is only one of the influences behind the boom in catalogue sales, it is definitely one of the primary factors. McNair and May (1978, p.87) concur by stating "we see growing receptivity to a more efficient system through which staple merchandise can be acquired. Such purchases must be accomplished as routinely and expeditiously as possible. Confirmation that today's consumers are already thinking this way is afforded by the rapidly growing use of catalogs to shop

at home for a wide variety of items".

Durban's Terry Murray , chairman of the country's largest direct response agency, DMS Direct, says a new era of home buying for shoppers is on the horizon with the development of electronic technology.

Murray was the only South African at the recent World Direct Marketing Congress in Manila. He says the trend towards home buying is international.

Large groups at home and abroad have already moved strongly into direct marketing which reaches into homes and offices.

Bloomingdales, for instance, in the United States of America reports that its catalogue sales are growing five times faster than over-the-counter sales.

Direct marketing sales in the United States of America have grown from 75 billion dollars to 125 billion dollars in five years, and the trend in South Africa and elsewhere has been similar. (Sunday Tribune Finance 83/01/02, p.3).

The push-button era is being ushered in by the combination of computers, videotex and tele-tex which provide the necessary two-way communication backed by instant payment through electronic funds transmission.

Many credit problems could disappear and shoppers will be able to call up a range of goods, suppliers, and prices on screen, and then place the order by pressing the necessary buttons for delivery or collection.

The growing time-consciousness among consumers results in a significant number of people changing their shopping habits by electing to purchase by catalogue, and through telecommunication, contributing to still another revolution of the wheel of retailing.

The need alone for telecommunication and catalogue retailing is not sufficient to guarantee success; - consumer confidence is also important. Consumers must be confident that merchandise in a package seen only on the screen, and not physically examined will be sufficiently in accord with their expectations; and that they can consummate the transaction without personal contact.

In our present system there is already a high level of confidence in the consistent quality of packaged merchandise, stemming from experience with shopping, and from the recognition by manufacturers and suppliers that consistency in quality is imperative.

On the other hand, catalogue showrooms will serve an important function by permitting customers to view and examine merchandise physically before placing orders.

When consumers and the technology are ready the entrepreneurs will launch telecommunication and catalogue retailing on a large scale. The readiness of the consumer is of major importance, and whether they are desirous of accepting the novel technology that such systems involve. The following factors will be relevant in this new revolution, namely:-

- i a higher proportion of working women who have less time to shop;
- ii desire for increased leisure time to further self-development and creative expression, and the popularity among consumers of such recent non-store innovations as pay-by-phone, special-interest-mail-order catalogues, and televised direct marketing.

Retailing managers should ensure that the systems designed, should be as convenient for the consumer as possible. Ordering procedures should be quick and simple, deliveries should be made at a variety of specific times selected by the consumer to accommodate the working women. Further, in-home systems should be designed to reduce the risks involved in buying non-standardized items without personal

inspection.

Predictions about the growth of in-home distribution of food and related convenience goods, may materialise in the near future in view of the changing values of today's consumers, their increasing opportunity costs of time, the desire for convenience, the ever-worsening energy crises, and the rising costs and reduced incomes of traditional retailers.

In contrast, some authors predict that speciality stores will be strengthened by this turn of the wheel of retailing serving those consumer wants and needs that the telecommunication merchandiser of routinely ordered products cannot satisfy. McNair and May (1978, p.91) also feel that the future of speciality stores will be bright because it is in tune with the changing motivation of consumers with their widening range of interests and activities, with their increasing affluence, and their growing need for self-expression. They state "When the prophecy is fulfilled of an impersonal telecommunication systems for ordering routinely-bought staples, speciality stores may play a larger part in the total retailing systems than they do at present." They will offer the customer many services, knowledgeable, helpful salespeople, special orders, and credit. They will satisfy special demands for many types of attire, and activities. Many of these stores should ideally be chain

organizations with central buying offices, regional warehouses and distribution centres, and electronic information systems facilitating merchandising procurement and inventory control.

Beem (1971, p.5)¹ also foresees a bright future for speciality where shopping is fun, or where shopper uncertainty is too great to permit in-home ordering.

3.3

CONCLUSIONS

The retailer has to operate within the framework of various restraints which are an integral part of the retailing environment. The successful retailer, therefore, requires an awareness of these restraints, and an ability to operate within them, in order to be better able to cope with the controllable variables that are faced in day-to-day operations.

Despite the restraints faced by the retailer, and the difficulty of predicting the future of something as dynamic as retailing, the future nevertheless appears prosperous even when all the problems are considered.

1. Article in Gist 1971, pp.3-6.

CHAPTER 4

4.1 CONSUMER SPATIAL MODELS
AND CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

The consumer's mental image of the shopping environment determines the spatial behaviour, which is in turn affected by various cultural, social and other factors. Physiological and/or psychological motivations may result in a consumer's wanting to purchase a particular commodity and to undertake a shopping trip.

Furthermore, information levels and knowledge about choice are influenced by the experience of shoppers which is a function of the length of residence in an area, and life-styles of shoppers.

The perceptions of consumers thus creates a need to obtain more useful data on the behaviour and attitudes of individual shoppers.

The purchasing of consumption goods and services is one of the major components of human spatial behaviour. Thus, consumer behaviour patterns and processes represent a major problem for environmental design, both in terms of the location of shopping facilities, and the provision of access to these facilities. Since knowledge of the underlying determinants of consumer spatial behaviour is a

crucial element for the rational design of environments, a brief discussion of the more important and widely used spatial models follows.

Three different models may be distinguished, namely

- i. Central Place Theory Models
- ii. Spatial Interaction Models and
- iii. Multivariate Attitude Models

4.1.1 Central Place Theory Models

Central Place Theory according to Kivell and Shaw (1980, p.10) is basically concerned with centres, with why shops tend to cluster and hence with the concept of the interdependence of the centre and its hinterland. It provides a basis for the analysis of spatial hierarchical structures of shops and shopping centres.

Walter Christaller¹ whose name is synonymous with Central Place Theory implied in his model that a hierarchical arrangement of centres exists, and that each class of centre possesses all the functions of the classes below it together with a set of higher functions, the largest centre having the full range

1. quoted in Kivell and Shaw 1980, p.108.
The study of Retail Location pp.95-147. Article in Dawson J A ed. 1980.

of functions. Thus a system of nested hexagonal trade areas of differing sizes results.

Not only does Central Place Theory provide a framework within which to analyse and describe the size, number and distribution of towns as service centres, it also seeks to explain an apparent order among the pattern of settlements or central places dispensing goods and services to a surrounding area. Kivell and Shaw (1980, p.108) state that its main proposals are:-

- i There is a threshold of demand below which a good cannot be economically offered for sale. This implies that there is a minimum population required to support a good.
- ii The size of this population and hence the trade area depends on the type of good.
- iii Centres are classified into hierarchical groups according to the size of the trade area.
- iv Each high-ranked centre contains the goods offered by lower ranked centres.

- v Free entry of business produces a contraction of trade areas to their minimum size.
- vi The close packing of circular or hexagonal trade areas generates a set of nested hexagonal lattices.

The important assumptions of the Central Place theory are:

- i the homogeneity of customers;
- ii the uniformity of space;
- iii that buyers and sellers have complete information;
- iv that customers possess distance minimizing behaviour;
- v equal accessibility to all retail outlets and equally distributed purchasing power.

The general effectiveness of Central Place theory has received much criticism. The negative criticism focuses on its high degree of abstraction for

dealing with the real world, because it considers only the isotropic¹ conditions and the rational economic behaviour of man. Further, it ignores constraints presented by local authorities and other bodies associated with decision making.

Other weaknesses of this theory are that:

- i physical space is considered to be more important than space perception or cognitive space;
- ii the qualitative variety among shops or shopping centres receives little attention;
- iii an equilibrium between supply and demand is assumed;
- iv multi-purpose trips or customer's image of a shopping centre are not taken into consideration; and
- v the spatial shopping pattern is based on a static residential location pattern.

1. having the same physical properties in all directions.

Davies (1976, p.223) succinctly describes the weakness of the theory thus, "it is extremely rigid and deterministic and it describes mainly a static set of locational relationships".

Central Place theory consequently provides an analytical contribution to shopping models which gives some insight only into its regularity pattern, but does not consider the socio-psychological elements such as consumer perceptions and preferences.

The ideas with regard to Central Place Theory as presented by Christaller were formulated by Lösch in a rigorous way (Rowley 1972, p.360). Lösch provided a more explicit economic argument of the rationale underlying hexagonal trade areas and secondly he indicated that a more general Central Place system could be developed by rearranging their size and orientation.

Rowley (1972, p.361) states that Lösch's consideration of market areas is clearer than that of Christaller. Whereas the basic assumption of Christaller is that an agricultural population is evenly distributed over a broad isotropic plain with uniform transport facilities, a uniform set

of preferences and tastes with the exclusion of all extra-economic forces, Lösch develops his example through the use of a manufactured good, and the area over which it will be sold is considered theoretically.

He states that as transport costs increase with the distance towards the edge of the market area the price is higher, and the demand consequently lower.

The basic Löschian contention is that every economic good has its own maximum distance beyond which it cannot be sold.

However, the extreme sales radius of Lösch is therefore identical to Christaller's upper limit of the range of a good that is "The furthest distance the dispersed population is willing to go in order to buy a good offered at a central place." (Rowley 1972, p.361)

4.1.2 Spatial Interaction Theory

In this theory, the assumption that behaviour is explained by consumers using the nearest offering of a good or service is discarded and behaviour is assumed to be determined by a more complex trade-off of the advantage of centre size or attraction

of the centres against the disadvantage of distance or disinterest of the consumers to the centres. This was based on Reilly's law of retail gravitation which states that "two cities attract trade from an intermediate town in the vicinity of the breaking point approximately in direct proportion to the population of the two cities and the inverse proportion to the square of the distance from these two cities to the intermediate town." (Bucklin 1967, p.37).

Mathematically, the expression may be stated as follows:

$$\frac{T_a}{T_b} = \frac{P_a}{P_b} \left[\frac{d_b}{d_a} \right]^2$$

Where T_a and T_b = trade drawn to cities a and b from an intermediate place.

d_a and d_b = distances from a and b to that intermediate place

P_a and P_b = populations of a and b .

Although there are many refinements and modifications to this theory, the basic concept has been widely developed as a marketing and planning tool.

Davies (1976, p.223] states that the Spatial interaction theory "is the basis of an operational approach to planning and marketing research whereas central place theory refers much more to an underlying strategy."

The spatial interaction theory comes closest to rivalling central place theory, both in terms of its fruitful applications and of the volume of inputs and outputs which it generates. A major advantage of the spatial interaction approach is that it leads to quantitative models which can be easily tested. Further, these models can be easily extended or adjusted by introducing additional quality and attractiveness indicators.

The weaker points of the spatial interaction approach are that:-

- i space perception is left out of consideration;
- ii the models are aggregate and do not describe or explain individual behaviour;
- iii shopper's images of centres do not necessarily correspond to the attractiveness measures;

- iv multipurpose trips are not considered; and
- v the entrepreneurial aspect is not integrated and the models do not explain the dynamics on the retail sector.

Socio-psychological variables play an insignificant role in these models.

Although retail gravity theory cannot be dismissed entirely, because it has value in many situations, there are limitations just as in central place theory, which makes it unlikely that spatial interaction models will provide a comprehensive framework for the analysis and prediction of retail location.

The model is essentially an equilibrium one which cannot predict the dynamics of change, which is a vital element in retailing.

4.1.3 Multivariate attitude Models

This model assumes that shopping attitudes and shopping behaviour can only be explained on the basis of a multidimensional set of explanatory variables, in which the customer's image of a shopping centre plays a significant role. A multi-

variate analysis requires a disaggregated approach which involves subdividing the consumers into homogeneous sub-classes, subdividing the attractiveness aspects of a shop or shopping centre into a set of relevant attributes and by analysing the perceptions and preferences of consumers as well as entrepreneurs. Multivariate techniques, such as, factor analysis, personal construct theory, semantic differentials and multidimensional scaling techniques are often used in shopping attitude analysis. The advantage of this model is that it is possible to make use of ordinal data, which has often been disregarded in the other two models mentioned above. This model also provides a useful approach to the analysis of disaggregate spatial choice behaviour by dealing comprehensively with socio-psychological aspects. Furthermore, it does not exclude the use of other models.

Its limitations are that:

- i perceptions, preferences and images are normally based on a static view from the side of both consumers and entrepreneurs;
- ii multipurpose trips are often overlooked; and

- iii. the predictive structure of these models is not always clear.

The severe limitations in estimating "accessibility and attractiveness" and other assumptions of these models accentuates the need for a serious consideration of the human factors in shopping in order to understand the pattern of shopping behaviour and the implications for the location size and character of shopping centres and facilities.

4.2

CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

The need for a knowledge of consumer behaviour is important because the retailing structure is constantly evolving in response to changing patterns, both in the demand for its services, and the means of providing them.

Consumer behaviour is a subdivision of human behaviour which is the total process whereby the individual interacts with the environment, while consumer behaviour concerns specific types of human behaviour that are market related and includes both mental decisions and physical actions that result therefrom. (Engel, Kollat and Blackwell 1973, p. 5) define consumer behaviour as "the acts of individuals directly involved in obtaining and using economic

goods and services, including the decision processes that precede and determine these acts." However, it is not always possible to separate human behaviour and consumer behaviour.

Although many attempts have been made to understand, explain, and predict consumer behaviour, it still remains inexplicable and unpredictable because consumption patterns and motives differ among people from different social classes, from the same social class at different times, and in different circumstances where an individual is concerned.

The underlying determinants of consumer behaviour are wide and varied, but only those determinants which are pertinent to this study will be explained.

The following determinants or aspects will be discussed, namely:

- i Nature of consumer behaviour
- ii Consumer decision making
- iii Consumer perception
- iv Consumer search process
- v Consumers and social influences
- vi Culture
- vii The effects of income on consumer behaviour.

4.2.1 Nature of consumer behaviour

Consumer behaviour is a rich field of study relying also on the theoretical and empirical work of a number of other disciplines. Some of the disciplines that consumer behaviour draws upon are social psychology, anthropology, economics, statistics, and even philosophy.

Some of the reasons for studying consumer behaviour are:

- i Strategists may gain a better understanding of consumer needs, leading to a more effective implementation of the marketing concept.
- ii Consumers themselves are allowed to communicate their needs directly to marketing strategy decision makers.
- iii The profit position of a firm may be improved by turning real consumer needs into effective product appeals.
- iv Markets may be effectively segmented into subgroups with common behavioural characteristics.

- v The cost and resource waste associated with new product failures may be reduced.
- vi Public policy-makers may gain better insights into how to provide and protect free consumer choice.
- vii Techniques for encouraging all consumers to use available information to make better buying decisions might be developed.

Marketers have a high stake in identifying and satisfying consumer needs.

Walters (1978, p.195) states that the basic determinants of consumer behaviour reside in the self; and the first basic determinant is needs, which are important to the individual decision process. If there are no needs to be fulfilled, there is no reason for the individual to become concerned and therefore, no reason to enter the market. Needs lead to motivation, which is the force that moves an individual to seek need-satisfying goals.

4.2.1.1 Needs

A need¹ is defined as "any human requirement or ability upon which human performance and efficiency depends." (Walters 1978, p.195).

People exhibit a seemingly limitless number of needs which underlie all human action. Needs can be physical or psychological. Individuals have varying degrees of awareness of needs. The degree of awareness depends directly on the perceived importance of the requirement to the consumer.

The presence of needs in consumers, serves two important purposes. Firstly, the degree to which needs or wants are satisfied is a measure of the consumer's well-being, and consumer need satisfaction may range from low, where few needs are satisfied, to high, where many needs are satisfied.

1. needs, wants and desires are used interchangeably.

Secondly, a need deficiency puts cognitive processes into motion which leads to actions. Need deficiencies may result from many things, such as changed economic status, aspirations, employment, family size, age, marriage, etc.

Many attempts have been made to classify needs, but there is no consensus as to a uniform classification. However, two broad types of consumer needs are recognized:

- i physiological needs, which are associated with the consumer's basic body functions such as hunger, thirst, sleep, warmth, sex, body elimination, replenishment, and activity;
- ii psychological or emotional needs, which cover a broad category of requirements associated with positive or negative tensions that result from the consumer's cognitive associations. (Walters 1978, p.201).

Human needs are innate, in that individuals are born with them, but consumers perceive a definite hierarchy to their needs and therefore implies the consumer's preferences for the order in which needs are satisfied. There is no agreement, however, on the exact number of needs or the order of human preference. Maslow (1954, pp.80-98) was one of the earlier scholars to work with human needs-identification and provided a list which has been modified over the years. His list still stands as the classic illustration of need classification, and is as follows:-

- i Physiological needs which are essential to the biological functions of the body.
- ii Safety needs which relate to psychological freedom from fear, pain, and discomfort.
- iii Belonging and love needs which relate to the desire for acceptance, affection and sexual satisfaction.

- iv Esteem needs which are associated with prestige, fame, and recognition.
- v Self-actualization needs which are related to self expression, energy to act, and personal fulfilment.

Two generally recognized modifications to Maslow's list are:

- vi Need to know which relates to curiosity, desire to achieve, and personal fulfilment.
- vii Aesthetic needs which relate to appreciation of beauty, symmetry and order.

Physiological needs are first to be satisfied followed by safety, belonging, esteem and self-actualization. Business has a vital interest in consumer needs because all motives for buying are founded on needs. Therefore there can be no

purchase until the consumer has a need,

4.2.1.2 Motivation

Robertson (1970, p.32) views motivation as an active strong driving force that exists to reduce a state of tension to protect, satisfy, and enhance the individual and his self concept.

Motives may be broadly expressed as physiological and psychological in nature.

Physiological motives stem from the individual's biological need systems, and are subject to social and cultural influences.

Psychological motives on the other hand stem from the needs created by one's social environment.

In order to motivate a consumer, some conditions must exist:

firstly, there must be need recognition which is an internal mental state associated with motivation;

secondly, there must be some energy mobilization which causes the consumer to want to do something to satisfy the need. It is believed that energy mobilization is strictly internal and comes from the self; and

thirdly, there must be some perceived goal that the consumer's energies are directed toward. All three conditions must exist for motivation to occur.

Consumer needs, motives, and behaviour have a definite relationship. Motives lead to behaviour designed to satisfy the need.

Motivated behaviour may be learned or inborn. The consumer's environment has a profound influence on motives, because it can either bring out a motive, suppress a motive, or change the direction which a motive may take. Different consumers may

be affected differently by the same motive.

Motives may complement each other or may conflict with each other, but the nature of the interaction between motives may be different in consumers. They may also vary in intensity at different times and under different circumstances.

Motives control the daily decision of the average consumer.

4.2.2 Consumer Decision-making

Consumer decision making is a sequence of steps, which are problem perception, deliberation, problem solution, and post purchase review.

4.2.2.1 Problem Perception

Perception is the process by which we become aware of and interpret the world around us. Consumer problems arise from various sources, seven of which are listed below:

- i Depletion which leads to problem recognition, e.g. where products

are used up and replaced regularly.

- ii Actions taken in the past to solve a problem may become unsatisfactory, for example a product may wear out, or it may become too costly to operate or maintain.
- iii Changing family circumstances may give rise to problem perception, for example, birth of children results in a need, for baby food, clothing and furniture.
- iv Expectations for, or a realization of a change in financial status can affect consumer perceptions of desired states for example high-priced furniture, appliances, and homes.
- v The solution of one consumer problem may lead to the perception of other problems.
- vi Problem recognition may occur as a result of a change in reference group.

- vii Consumers may be led to recognize new problems through various marketing efforts, including advertising, point of purchase displays, and personal selling.

Once dissatisfaction is recognized, it leads to the deliberation phase of decision making.

4.2.2.2 Deliberation

The deliberation phase involves four important activities:

- i Choice Criteria : the human mind often uses simple decision rules to simplify the decision process. These decision rules called heuristics result from perceptual cues, which are signals that act as simplified representations of complex phenomena. The choice criteria, and cues coming from the consumer's environment must be organized, processed and acted upon.

- ii Information Search : information must be sought and processed in order to compare alternate products against a choice criterion.
- iii Acquisition of information: information acquired in the search process along with information derived from past experience and stored in the memory, is processed and applied to making a choice.
- iv Application of information: as the information is applied, alternative solutions are analyzed, and compared against the choice criterion.

Having recognized the problem, having searched for and having processed information, the consumer is ready to choose the alternative that has the best chance of solving the problem.

4.2.2.3 Problem Solution

The first step is the formation of the

intention to purchase satisfaction, in the form of a product or service. Consumers don't buy products per se, they buy benefits to be derived, which must be relevant to a consumer's situation.

Buyer confidence is important in determining whether intentions will be translated into purchase behaviour. Circumstances surrounding a purchase may influence the decision.

Another aspect of problem solution is the length of time it takes for the consumer to make the final choice. The choice can be made virtually instantaneously as in the case of impulse buying, or it can take many years. The length of decision time is determined by the same factors that determine the extent of information search and alternative evaluation.

4.2.2.4 Post-purchase Review

The consumer decision process continues even after the final choice is made. The consumer often compares the product

performance against the choice criterion resulting in some level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction, which is an important factor regarding future purchase decisions.

4.2.2.5 Cognitive Dissonance

Festinger's **dissonance theory** (1957, p.3) is often used to explain consumer post-purchase behaviour. Dissonance and the pressure to reduce it, exists after a product or service is bought. Dissonance is psychological discomfort which consumers try to reduce. Satisfaction with a product results in a reduction of cognitive dissonance, which may lead to increased preference for the brand purchased.

Cognitive dissonance occurs under three conditions:

- i after making an important or difficult decision;
- ii after being forced to say or do something contrary to personal attitudes, beliefs or opinions;
- and

iii after being exposed to discrepant information.

The way consumers handle dissonance may give marketing managers clues as to how to reduce it, and thereby raise consumer's preference for their products.

Many ways may be sought to reduce dissonance:

- i They may seek information supporting their decision.
- ii They may try to convince themselves that their decision was wise.
- iii They may distort, avoid, ignore, and discount incoming discrepant information.
- iv They may resolve to try another brand the next time.
- v They may simply ignore the feeling until it goes away.

Marketers try to dispel cognitive

dissonance by providing advertisements, instructions, warranties, and post purchase service.

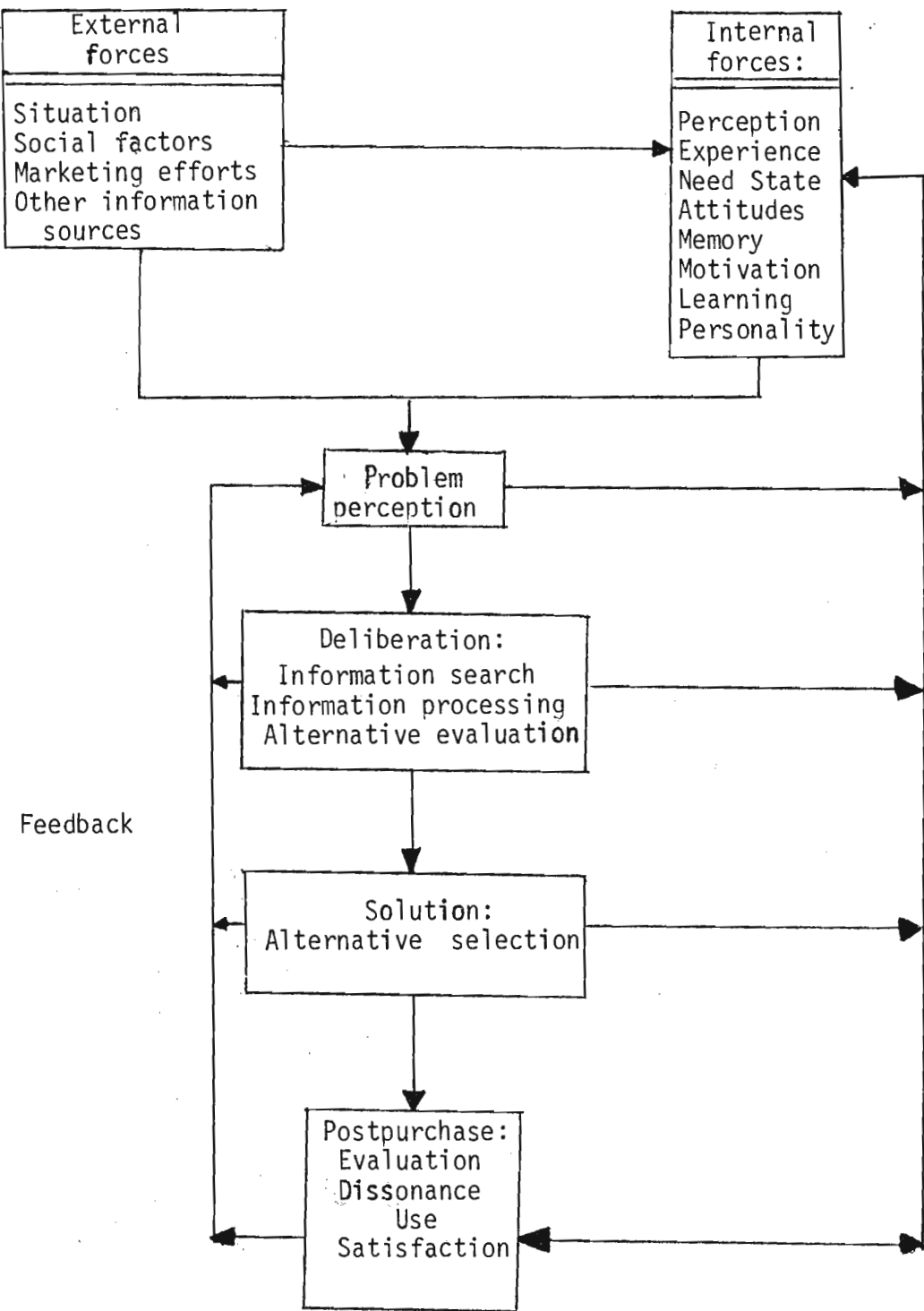
The purchase decision process is a complex activity, and may occur quickly or over many months. Buying decisions, however, are not made by individuals only, but by family units as well. The influence of the family will be discussed later. Fig. 4.1 illustrates the consumer decision model as discussed above.

4.2.3 Consumer Perception

Perception is the entire process by which an individual becomes aware of the environment, and interprets it so that it will fit into his or her own frame of reference (Walters 1978, p.237). Perceptions that come from such stimuli as advertising, store displays, and packages act as triggers and influence buying behaviour.

In order to relate to the environment, two factors are necessary, namely sensation and perception. Sensation is used to designate the effect associated with the stimulation of a

Fig. 4.1 A Consumer Decision Model



Source T G Williams : 1982, p.28.

sense organ while perception refers to the interpretation of sensation and it involves sensations aroused by external stimuli and past experience.

Consumer needs and motives depend on what we perceive, and the interaction of perceptions, needs and motives is vitally important to consumer behaviour. Needs and motives continually change in response to the environment, which causes perceptions to change, both during and between purchase situations. Consumer's perceptions affect marketing directly. Therefore, the more marketers know about perceptions, the better their chance of appealing effectively to the market.

Walters (1978, p.240) lists some of the perceptions as:

- i Store perception, which is the impression a consumer has of the business as a whole.
The same business may be viewed differently by different consumers.
- ii Product perception, which is the association of quality, price, service, and other attributes made by a consumer toward a product. An understanding of how product

perceptions are formed and changed is important to marketers.

iii Promotion perception, which is the impression of technical and psychological aspects of promotion. Promotional efforts affect both the store and the product.

iv Perception of honesty and ethics which is the association of the possible outcome of dealing with a business. This aspect precipitates much discussion and remains a difficult area in which to obtain data.

Despite the fact that perception differs among consumers, it nevertheless displays four characteristics:

i It is subjective, since it exists only in the mind of the individual. Consumers are generally predisposed toward accepting certain information and rejecting other information. Since an individual is the embodiment of certain beliefs, attitudes, and prejudices, his purchasing pattern is such that these factors remain intact and unchallenged.

- ii It is selective, because consumers do not comprehend and interpret every sensation at any given time. Selectiveness of perception is brought about by the physiological inability to absorb only a few stimuli at one time.
- iii It is temporal, because perception is of a short duration, making it difficult for products and services to hold the consumer's attention indefinitely, without advertising continually.
- iv It is summative, because consumers take the different sensations that reach their awareness almost simultaneously, and sum these sensations into a complete and unified whole. The summative aspect of perception is vital in determining whether a purchase will be made.

Every aspect of a consumer's mental activity is involved in the process of perception. Among the many physical and subjective factors that affect consumer perception, the following five are more important:

- i Technical factors refer to the things

perceived with particular attention being given to size, colour, intensity, movement, position, contrast, or isolation of the product. These attributes interact with one or more of the others, and the greatest impact on perception is when several attributes function together.

ii Mental readiness of consumers to perceive, which is influenced by:

- . perceptual fixation, which is the tendency of consumers to stabilise their perceptions of the environment;
- . perceptual habit, which is the repetitive action performed by consumers;
- . confidence and caution, which affects the time taken to make a purchase. Confident consumers will buy within a short time while cautious consumers take a long time before they buy;
- . attention, which must be secured if perception is to take place;

- . mental set, which is a person's tendency to react to a given stimulus;
 - . familiarity, which implies some prior pattern of experienced phenomena into which the present percept fits, and not merely a mere acquaintance with a situation or object perceived;
 - . expectations, which affect perception, because people tend to perceive what they expect to perceive.
- iii Past experience of the consumer, which implies that a consumer's present perception is influenced by experience. Individual expectations, too, are generally based on past experience.
- iv Mood refers to one's feelings, present attitude or state of mind, which has a great influence on consumer perception. Some consumers may buy more goods when they are in a favourable mood, while others may buy more when they are in an unfavourable mood.
- v Social and cultural factors affect consumer

perception in various ways. An individual's role in society, social class or status, and certain aspects of one's culture, influence the manner in which a person perceives products and the marketer's attempts to sell them. Some of the cultural factors that may influence perception towards products or firms are traditions, customs, norms of modesty and social behaviour, value systems, fatalism and attitudes toward innovation. Some societies are more receptive to changes while others are not.

4.2.4 Consumer Search Process

Search is the purposeful attention given to the gathering and assembling of information related to the satisfaction of some perceived need, want, or desire (Block and Roering 1976, p.271).

The search process is a prepurchase action, and may be internal or external. Internal search involves recalling information, attitudes, or needs, already inherent in the mind, while external search occurs when the consumer consults friends, relatives, associates, marketers, or any outside source, to obtain information.

Internal and external search for information is an ongoing process, because consumers are continuously involved in the recognition of problems and opportunities.

Internal information search is an activity that is not observable and is, therefore, difficult to measure. Despite this marketers can still influence internal search through advertising, and other promotional efforts.

External information search is resorted to when problems cannot be solved with an evaluation of stored information.

Various factors affect the nature of the search process itself:

- i The existence of acceptable substitutes : a product is unique, that is, if there are no substitutes, it will be bought more readily than if there were substitutes, in which case a choice has to be made among the various substitutes.
- ii The strength of the motivation that precipitated the search activity : firms can play

a part in stimulating a willingness to search. The greater the dissatisfaction with a product, the greater the probability of search and vice versa.

iii Previous experience in searching for similar products or services : the extent of the search that an individual engages in depends on the benefit of the first purchase experience.

iv General predisposition toward search : each person's willingness to engage in search is different from the other's. Some people are more willing than others to assume a given amount of risk.

4.2.4.1 Patterns of consumer search

There is a considerable variation among consumers as to the specific patterns of search. In some cases the entire family may be involved, while in others, it may be only one individual. Among others, the following are the more important:

- i Active or passive search : Active searchers enjoy the physical activity involved with external search, and may engage in it even when there is no immediate need. They are generally receptive to new and different products, and the data are stored for use when a specific problem arises.

Passive searchers, on the other hand, are not willing to expend effort in seeking product and market facts. Generally, they perceive themselves as too busy, or that they have sufficient facts, and seek information only when necessary.

- ii Continual or intermittent search : Continual search implies systematic and regular search until a definitive basis for action is established, while intermittent search refers to information seeking that is sporadic until a course of action is taken.

The types of action are the same in

both cases, and the three possibilities are abandonment of the search, storage of facts discovered, or purchase of a product.

- iii Casual or serious search : Casual search occurs when it is incidental to other activities. This is likely to be undertaken when the product is of small unit value, unimportant, routinely purchased or non-technical.

Serious search occurs when the primary purpose of the activity is to obtain information about the product, store or market. It involves more careful consideration and effort than casual search and is devoted to products that are highly technical, durable, expensive and require service.

- iv Geographic search patterns : Space consideration is an important aspect of consumer search. Shoppers have the choice of purchasing locally, or extending their search to more distant shopping centres, trade

areas, or towns. The type of product purchased determines the extent to which consumers will travel further. The size of the town also has an impact on customer willingness to travel. The perception of greater product and price selection in large towns attract people from smaller towns. Patterns of store visitation vary among consumers purchasing the same type of products as regards time of day for the visit, the day of the week to shop, and the number of stores to visit.

The pattern of geographic search is affected by the manner and type of transportation as well.

4.2.4.2 The Cost Versus the Benefit-search

External acquisition of information is not free, and consumers sometimes do not engage in search because the costs exceed the perceived benefits.

The benefits of external information can be

tangible where it may result in the purchase of a product at a lower price, or of a better quality, or it may be intangible where it results in reduced risk, greater confidence in the product, or greater satisfaction.

Perceptions of these benefits are likely to vary with consumer's experience in the market, media habits, and the extent of interaction with others belonging to different reference groups.

The costs of search can be both monetary and non-monetary. Non-monetary costs are less obvious, but may have greater impact than monetary costs.

However, frustration and conflict between the search task and other more desirable activities, as well as fatigue, are real psychological and physical costs that may shorten the search effort.

4.2.5 Consumer and Social Influence

The behaviour of most individuals is influenced to some extent by other individuals, that is, social

interaction is the reciprocal action of the person and his social environment.

"These interactions among individuals provide satisfaction for the participants, and individuals condition their actions in such ways as to continue these satisfying relationships." (Walters 1978, p.408). Social interaction places great emphasis on groups which are the foundations of social interaction. Therefore, in order to understand consumer social interaction it is important to perceive how the individual consumer interacts with social groups with respect to purchasing behaviour.

Groups that are most significant in influencing consumer behaviour are generally non-formal, implying that several forces operate within the groups to influence members in their behaviour.

Some of the more important forces are:

- i Status : Varying levels of prestige may be ascribed to different members of a group, resulting in the interaction of people of the same status to the exclusion of others.

If there is a desire for members to achieve higher status, then they are influenced by

those with a higher status. Status determines an individual's placement in various groups and thus in the society, further determining who people associate with, and the manner of association, as well as their life-styles. Consumer behaviour is thus directly affected by an individual's placement, interactions, and life-styles as these determine the types of products one buys in order to maintain the ascribed status.

- ii Roles : These are prescribed patterns of behaviour expected of a person in a given situation by virtue of the person's position in the situation. Various social roles demand different behaviour patterns as well as different patterns of product acquisition, use, and display. Although many roles are informal, there may be social sanctions to cause an individual to conform to role requirements. Despite the fact that an individual may have different roles, most people meet their role obligations successfully. However, sometimes there may be conflict among certain roles, which affects consumer behaviour.

- iii Norms : Groups have certain rules, generally informal, by which members are expected to abide.
- iv Conformity : That is the strong pressure for individuals in any group to behave like other group members. Abiding by role expectations is the result of conformity, while norms specify behaviour. Many promotional efforts are based on attempts to get people to conform.

Thus groups have a common function or purpose, group members play distinct roles, they vary in status, and influence one another.

Business has an interest in groups, because executives need to identify important groups in societies and communities, they need to understand the inner organization and operations of groups in general, they need to know who the opinion leaders are in various groups, and they need to know the effect of consumers belonging to several groups at the same time.

Apart from the foregoing influences, the family also exerts a profound impact on the

behaviour of individuals, and thus warrants a discussion.

4.2.5.1 The Influence of the Family on Consumer Behaviour.

A family is a social group related by birth, marriage or adoption, with individuals acting according to well defined social roles. The family is the basic consumption unit for consumer goods, and thus plays an important role in the shaping and functioning of consumer behaviour.

The family acts as a socializing agent to teach children necessary buying and consuming behaviour. In analysing the family and its relationship to consumer behaviour, four dimensions of family structure and activities are pertinent:

i. Family Role Structure

Family role structure refers to the

behaviour of nuclear family members at each stage in the decision making process. Since various family members have varying capabilities and interests, they generally fill different roles to achieve efficiency. Each member may fill a variety of roles, depending on the situation. In buying behaviour, roles will centre around use of product, or influence on its purchase.

A means of gaining an understanding of family role structure is by studying the different forms of role specialization that occur in families. Role specialization can affect both the decision making process and the decision made.

Specialization takes a number of forms:

- . Influencers, who are family members, who provide information and advice and thereby affect the selection of

a product or service.

- . Gatekeepers, who control the flow of information about a product or service into the family, and thereby influence the decisions of other family members.
- . Deciders, who have the power to determine unilaterally or jointly whether or not to purchase a specific product or service.
- . Preparers, who transform the product into a form in which it can be consumed by family members.
- . Buyers, who actually make the purchase of a product or service.
- . Users, who use or consume a particular product or service.

A family member may play a number of roles simultaneously depending on the product

and the situation. The degree of dominance by one member can vary among groups with differing cultural backgrounds. Traditionally, husbands were primarily concerned with functional and economic values, while wives were more oriented to things valued for their intrinsic nature, rather than for their function. Recently, however, the trend is toward greater influence from the wife, with children and adolescents playing a significant role as influencers in the purchase of certain types of products.

ii. Family life-cycle

Family life-cycle is a function of the age of the household head, the presence or absence of children, marital status, and the age of children. The stage at which a family finds itself in its life-cycle affects purchase behaviour. The basic assumption is that families, like individuals move through a series of relatively distinct and well-defined stages with the

passage of time. Purchasing patterns vary as individuals move through the different stages. Changes in family life-cycle affect product needs and wants and present marketers with opportunities to help solve consumer problems.

The number, age and income-producing capacity of the family members are demographic variables most frequently used to define family life-cycle.

The following are the more commonly listed stages, namely the single, newly-wed, full nest I, full nest II, empty nest, and retirement stages.

. The Single Stage

Individual's earnings are low in relation to what they will be later in one's career. This income is generally subject to few rigid demands, implying that there is greater discretionary income, which is typically spent on a car, household equipment, fashionable clothing, recreation

or entertainment, vacation, and stereo equipment.

. The Newly-wed Stage

Nowadays the joint family system is not popular and newly-weds prefer to start a new household. Generally both husband and wife are working, although the earnings may still not be as high as it will be later, because of a lack of experience or skill. They are nevertheless better off now than they would be when they have children during this stage. There is a demand for housing and household items, such as furniture and appliances, while cars, clothing, and travel continue to be major expenditures.

. Full nest I

During this stage, the addition of children to a family creates a number of changes relevant to consumer behaviour. Although earnings of the head may increase, discretionary income is lower because the

wife will stop working temporarily to take care of the children, and the needs of young children have to be met.

Although the basic products for the household would have been acquired, the expenditure for clothing, hospital, medical care, and recreation increases. The cost of education becomes an important factor, while marketing efforts influence family members to a greater extent now.

. Full nest II

This stage is characterised by older couples and older children at home. Although earnings begin to peak, and most of the expenditures are stabilized, the need for clothing, stereos, and a second car for the older children become significant. In addition to their more complex clothing and recreational requirements, there is a greater increase in educational expenditure.

However, older children may be employed either on a full-time basis or on a part-time basis. Family members at this stage have considerable buying experience, and are less susceptible to marketing efforts. This stage represents the "quality market" for products like new furniture, appliances, and motor cars. Weddings for children may also be an expense item during this stage.

. Empty nest

This stage is characterised by older couples, whose children have started their own households. Income is at its peak, and luxury items, travel, and recreation are of greater importance. Durables may be replaced, home repair and remodelling are undertaken as well as the purchase of gifts for children and grandchildren.

. Retirement stage

During this stage, income and needs decline, while health-related items increase. If financial security has been achieved,

income may be high, but generally financial difficulty is experienced during this stage. Very often one member may die, and the survivor will carry on with reduced financial needs and resources. The survivor may move to a smaller house, and adopt more stringent eating and recreational activities. Finally medical expenses represent a substantial amount.

This final life-cycle is a time of decline and retrenchment in the consumption of many kinds of products, and marketing efforts produce very little effect, except for health-care items.

Study of consumer expenditures show that the use of many products and services varies significantly by stage in the family life-cycle. This makes identification of specific groups of consumers within the broader consumer market easier, resulting in more efficient and effective marketing efforts to provide for these needs and desires.

iii. Family life-style

Life-style may be defined as the system of attitudes and behaviours that influence how the family members spend their time and money . It represents a person's distinctive or characteristic mode or manner of living. It differs among social classes and varies within classes. Life style is determined by one's activities, interests and opinions. It is family life-style that assists in explaining why families with approximately the same income, do not live and consume alike. Some families may live beyond their means, while others pay cash for all items except, for a house or car.

Some families may be oriented towards family activities such as camping or family parties, while in some families each member engages in whatever he or she fancies.

A family's life-style, thus influences what it buys, when it buys, how it buys, and what influences its buying behaviour.

Despite the importance of family life-style in consumer behaviour, it has been difficult to classify families according to different life-styles, because the range is too wide and really unpredictable.

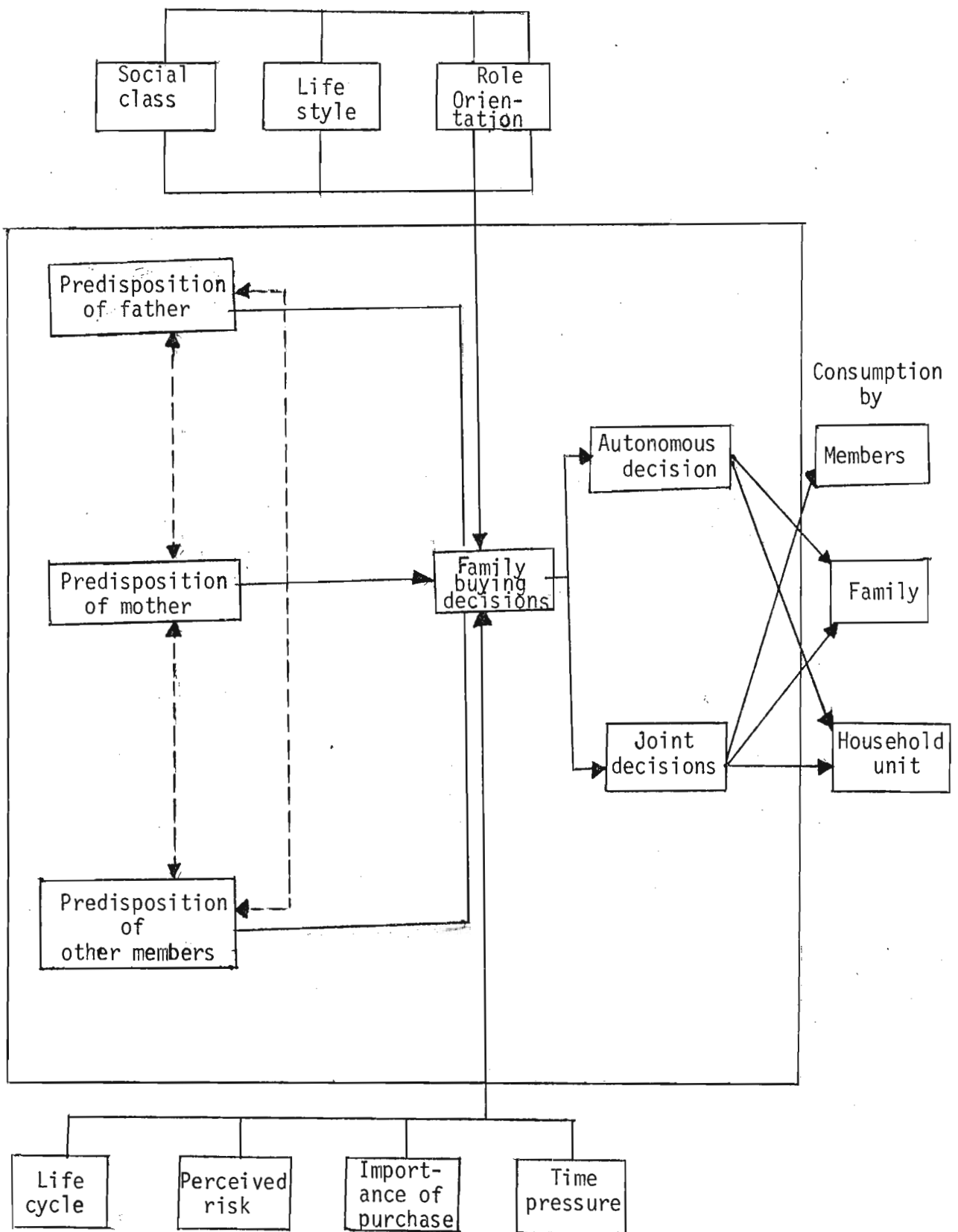
iv. Family Decision-Making

Decisions made by and/or for a group such as a family differs in important respects from individual decisions. The family decision is a more complex process than the individual purchase decision. The model of the family decision process reflects how multiple influences complicate the decision process. (See Figure 4.2).

The family needs to be viewed as a complex interacting unit, rather than as a set of individual consumers. The role structure in family decision-making manifests itself in the degree to which the decisions are made jointly or by a spouse acting alone. It is not adequate to say that a decision is made jointly, but the kinds of influence

Figure 4.2

Family Decision Process



Adapted from J.N. Sheth's Model "A Theory of Family Buying Decisions" Figure 2.1 (pp.22-23) in Models of Buyer Behaviour reprinted in Williams T.G. 1982, p.207.

each decision-participant exerts, and the conditions under which various kinds and amounts of influence will be brought to bear, must be considered.

The family decision may be made by one or the other spouse or both at different times and under varying circumstances.

Family decision-making not only allows different family members to become involved at different stages of the process, it also makes it possible for different members to make specific subdecisions of the overall decision.

Family decisions are highly interrelated. Where families face several problems simultaneously the least complex problems may be satisfied at the expense of the more far-reaching and significant ones.

In a family decision, different members often focus on specific attributes, for example a child may evaluate the taste of a cereal,

while a parent evaluates its cost and nutritional value.

Involvement by a family member in a purchase decision depends on involvement with the product. The purchase of an expensive item also increases the involvement of other family members.

A given decision may be of more significance to some family members than to others, if one party has a greater relative investment than the other. A cost-benefit assessment of various decision outcomes may influence whether and how each member participates in a purchase decision.

Conflicts between family members may arise at any stage of the decision process, with the most frequent area being 1. whether or not a problem is of sufficient magnitude to require a solution and 2. the evaluative criteria to be used in reaching a decision. When conflict arises, three ways may be employed to resolve it, namely, consensus,

compromise and/or authority.

v. Determinants of family decision-making

The determinants of family decision-making are conditions which influence whether a decision will be made jointly or by one spouse acting as a specialist. The following are some of the more important determinants:

- . Social class, which has a significant influence on family life style and purchasing patterns, also has an effect on family decision-making. Joint decision-making is more prevalent in middle-income levels and among better-educated couples, while it is believed that since higher social class families have a greater sense of control over their environment, they are more likely to engage in information search actively, prior to a decision (Martineau 1958, p.121).
- . Role definition : The variability in decision-making may be explained by the

different roles that family members play. Variations in role definition in families may be explained by cultural role expectations, comparative resources, and relative investments.

- . Life-cycles : Family decision-making is directly influenced by the length of time a couple has been married, and by the presence or absence of children in the family. Cox (1975, p.94) believes that the presence of children seems to exert a major force toward family goals.
- . The aspiration and expectation levels of the spouses may directly influence life-style and thus decision-making. Life-styles may be based upon such values as flexible versus rigid, non-evaluative versus evaluative, objective versus family role, and emancipated versus limited.
- . Nature of the purchase : Important characteristics of the purchase that influence the decision process are the end use of

the product, type of product, time constraints, importance of purchase, degree of risk, and second preference. Non-durable purchase decisions tend to be more autonomous, while durable purchases tend to be a joint decision. Another dimension of importance, is the choice of a brand. If there is disagreement on brand preference, negotiation or compromise may be necessary.

It is apparent that decisions made by an individual on his own behalf, differ significantly from those by and for a family. Although most studies on family decision-making have focused on husband-wife decision-making, there is evidence that children often exert a substantial influence on the consumption process.

4.2.6 Culture

It is difficult to deal with culture exhaustively in this study since it is such a broad subject. However, those aspects pertinent to this study

shall be discussed briefly.

Bennett and Kassarian (1972, p.123) define culture as "a set of learned beliefs, values, attitudes, habits, and forms of behaviour that are shared by a society and are transmitted from generation to generation".

Every individual is a product of culture, and his actions and decisions are affected by his cultural background.

Cultures vary a great deal from one another, but there are several characteristics that are common to all. The idea that culture is an important determinant of consumer behaviour has caused consumer analysts to examine the fundamental characteristics of culture in order to discover more about its dynamics.

The following are some of the more important characteristics:

- i. Culture is learned : The phenomena of culture are neither innate nor genetic; they are learned

by members of society. Cultural values learned early in life tend to resist change more strongly than those learned in life. Individuals are socialized into a culture at a very early age through formal or informal means. It is commonly recognized that although the family and other social groups contribute most to the socialization process, marketing can have a significant impact on this process also." (Block & Roering 1976, p.80).

A major problem occurs, however, when a marketing strategy is to be introduced into an unfamiliar culture. The process of enculturation occurs when behaviours and attitudes appropriate to one's own culture are learned through the socialization process, and since people are encultured without effort or awareness, they tend to become ethnocentric, that is, they consider their own cultural values to be natural, normal, and best. While the process of learning about cultural values other than one's own is called acculturation, which is often difficult to learn. Marketers must learn about other cultures before they attempt to market their products, so as to avoid costly errors.

ii Culture is shared : Since one person does not make a culture, the customs, norms, and other cultural aspects of a society must be generally shared by all members of that society, for it to be considered a culture. Culture is the distinctive lifestyle of an aggregate of people representing their design for living, and their adaptation to their environment.

iii. Culture is inculcated : Culture is transmitted from generation to generation by the immediate family. Ethnic, educational, and religious institutions contribute to it also. The values, norms, and behavioural patterns transmitted are generally in an ideal form , but there is considerable disparity between the ideal norms and the norm perceived through observation. Such deviation from the ideal may be important to the analyst from a consumer behaviour context.

iv. Culture is adaptive : Although culture is passed from generation to generation, it is neither static nor endowed with eternal life. It adapts to the environment in which it operates. Cultural

adaptation has been rapid in response to the vastly accelerated technological changes and the amazing capabilities of communication, particularly among the developed nations. Culture may also change as a result of environmental changes. This means that culture is dynamic, because it is constantly changing.

v. Culture defines and constrains behaviour : Culture subtly defines the limits of acceptable behaviour. Certain behaviours are not prohibited by law, but are constrained by cultural norms.

vi. Culture is gratifying : The basic function of culture is to satisfy the needs of the people adhering to its dictates. Those values, habits, and behavioural patterns that satisfy human needs will be continued while those elements which cease to satisfy needs usually become extinguished in the long run.

Marketing decision-making is based on the idea that culture reinforces some responses. Therefore, the advertising used, and the products offered for sale must focus on satisfying needs that society approves of. "Some cultures may be more advanced than others in coping with their environments and in understanding and controlling them, but it is important

to understand culture in its own terms and not to impose our own culturally developed and sanctioned values." (Robertson 1970, p.99).

Within a complex of heterogeneous cultures, such as that found in South Africa, many cultures exist, an understanding of which is more relevant for business in terms of marketing efforts directed to the different cultural groups. Cultures are based, inter alia, on religion, ethnic background, language, and social class.

The comparison of similarities and differences among cultures, is vital to the effective development of successful marketing efforts. Marketers must be cognizant of the following conditions:-

- 1 sensitivity to cultural differences
- 2 ability to understand the inner logic and coherence of other ways of life, and not to judge them as bad, simply because they are different from one's own ways.

- 3 ability to withstand the initial cultural shock or the sum of sudden jolts that awaits the unwary marketer; and
- 4 ability to cope with and to adapt to different subcultural environments.

The visible manifestations of cultures include the foods consumed, customs, manner of dress, and even appearance. For example, the Blacks, Indians and Whites in South Africa display distinct differences in the manner of dress, customs, types of foods consumed, and language.

However, the process of acculturation has reached the point where most of the Indian youth in South Africa today, communicate best through the medium of English, and are more conversant with Western customs and modes than their Indian customs and languages. Even though many young Blacks and Indians have adopted the Western form of dress, they nevertheless resort to their traditional

forms of dress during certain occasions, for example, the sari which is used exclusively among Indians, is worn at weddings and religious functions. The more orthodox elders, however, adhere to their religion and customs more rigidly, wherever possible. Although there has been an increasing trend towards Western eating habits, the Indian youth, despite his emulation of most of the Western norms, still prefers his traditional food. For example the consumption of such products as oriental spices, dhal and rice, is the highest among the Indians, irrespective of age group.

Most religions prescribe or prohibit certain behaviour patterns, including consumption behaviour, for example, alcoholic beverages and even the consumption of meat are prohibited by some religions while others, such as the Jews, are required to consume kosher foods, and the Muslims, halaal foods. Further, some religions also prescribe the manner in which its adherents should dress.

From the foregoing, it is evident that members of a particular culture share distinguishing patterns of behaviour. However, we can observe that members of different cultures generally have more behaviour patterns that coincide with those of other cultures than differ from them, and the commonalities of the broader culture are so great that one is sometimes unaware of distinct cultural influences.

Marketing managers should be interested in cultures, if they influence the consumption process for their products. Obviously, the marketing manager would be interested only in cultures containing substantial numbers of people, to comprise a potentially profitable market segment. If the behaviour of a substantial group differs with respect to any of the stages in the consumption process, the marketing manager must consider the possibility of altering the marketing-mix variables in relation to this group if he wishes to achieve success in his marketing efforts.

4.2.7 Effects of Income on consumer behaviour

Income is the lifeblood of a household, which is the basic spending unit of society. Income is a significant factor in influencing consumer behaviour since the consumer's standard of living and life-style reflect the manner in which income is spent.

Since there are several measures of income, a brief description of what is meant by income is appropriate:

- . Personal income includes all money received by individuals, but consumers cannot spend all of it because it includes taxes.
- . Disposable personal income is the amount retained by the individual after taxes and represents the amount that a consumer has available to spend.
- . Discretionary income is disposable personal income after all outlays for necessities such as basic food, clothing and shelter have been made. This remaining income may be spent at

the discretion of the consumer:

The amount of income earned is determined by many factors, since it is not evenly distributed among the population. The differences in the levels of income may result from some of the following factors:

4.2.7.1 Income by age of family head

Income by age of head of family gives an indication of the ability of the family to consume. For example, after marriage, when the family is being formed, many types of products are needed but must be accumulated gradually on a priority basis as the income is generally lower at this stage than the succeeding stages.

As the age of the head increases, family potential to consume is greater, and the standard of living is better, with many luxuries, and possibly an increase in savings, as a result of a possible increase in income. However, during the retirement years, income declines and expenditures are greatly reduced.

4.2.7.2 Income and family size

The demands on family income generally increase with the number of children in the family. Typically, the high-income families meet the basic needs of their families with a smaller portion of disposable income, leaving more discretionary income for the purchase of luxuries, while large, low-income families tend to spend a greater portion of their income for the basic commodities, leaving little or no discretionary income.

A substantial part of their income is spent on children's products.

4.2.7.3 Income according to sex

Although women are entering the labour force in increasing numbers, discrimination against women remains a controversial point. Women tend to earn less than males for the same jobs in some industries. Some of the reasons given in order to

justify this are:

- i. women have historically had a higher employment turnover rate than men, making them higher employment risks,
- ii. more women have part-time jobs than men, which pay less. Women engage in part-time or temporary jobs in order to help the family over periods of financial difficulties, or to provide personal or family extras,
- iii. in some cases women are paid less because their employers believe that they are less productive. However, there is little concrete support for this view, and
- iv. women are paid less because some firms are able to continue this practice without interference from interested groups.

4.2.7.4 Income and Education

Formal education is an important determinant in income. Income and purchasing power increases with additional education. Education also affects a person's tastes and consumption patterns.

4.2.7.5 Income by occupation

Generally persons in prestige occupations have higher incomes and higher purchasing power. However, persons in other occupations are also important purchasers of durables and luxuries.

The above factors indicate that income creates both an opportunity to purchase and a restraint on what and how much to purchase. The choices that a consumer makes depend on various factors and may differ among consumers with the same level of income, education and family size.

Since high-income consumers have fewer restrictions on their shopping scope and purchasing power, more attention will be devoted to the lower-income consumer, who constitutes the majority in our South African society.

4.2.7.6 The Low-Income consumer

The lower income consumers generally have limited education and menial or unskilled or semi-skilled jobs. Members of this group feel that they lack control and generally view that environment as the controlling force, and themselves as pawns acted on by external forces. A result of this feeling of powerlessness is a short term perspective, where they feel that if they cannot influence or control the future, they should live for today. This results in a lack of interest to invest in personal development, such as education, which further strengthens the poverty cycle. Furthermore they do not take advantages of opportunities that may present themselves. The concern of the

poor for the present produces consumption behaviours that differ from those of high income consumers. The consumption process is frequently oriented toward immediate gratification with a lack of comparative shopping because of restricted mobility. The availability of facilities to travel to various retail centres determines to what extent their scope is restricted. Pierre Martineau (1958 p.122) in his "restricted scope" approach maintains that the shopping horizons of lower income consumers are limited and that they tend to shop near home and to know less about the market.

On the other hand the "wider scope" approach as cited by Goldman (1976 p.46) leads one to expect lower-income consumers to have a wider scope of shopping; this view maintains that the lower the marginal opportunity cost of time for a group of consumers and the higher the importance of the potential savings to be realised from additional search, the

more shopping these consumers will conduct. Isakson and Maurizi (1973, pp.277-285) concur that the higher income consumers are more likely to have a higher marginal opportunity cost for time, thus their shopping time is more valuable than that of lower-income consumers. They add that the savings to be realised from additional search are likely to be of more importance in the case of lower income consumers.

The empirical evidence supporting either one of the above approaches is inconclusive because some studies have found that lower-income consumers have a limited geographic scope and tend to shop near home while others report conflicting results (Goldman 1976 pp.46-47).

In addition, these studies have been almost exclusively concerned with consumer's geographic scope while very scant attention was given to information scope and how much lower income consumers know about market alternatives and opportunities.

Goldman (1976 p.52) found that consumer shopping behaviour of higher - and lower-income groups varies across products.

Lloyd and Jennings (1978 p.157) on the other hand state that spatial shopping is a function of both the characteristics of the decision-maker where persons living in the same environment may behave differently within the environment for a number of reasons. They may have different cognitive information concerning the opportunities in the environment or they may use different decision-making criteria to evaluate the environmental opportunities. They add that their behaviour may not reflect either their cognitive information or their decision-making criteria if there are constraints such as insufficient income, mobility or social norms, on their preferred behaviour.

Lloyd and Jennings (1978 p.157) found that although some differences in shopping behaviour occurs between any two

individuals, persons with similar income levels and cultural values are more likely to be similar in their shopping behaviour than persons with different income levels and cultural values.

Shepherd and Thomas (1980 p.47)¹ observed that the disadvantaged consumers are restricted to whatever local facilities exist due to low income, restrictions on personal mobility or a combination of both factors. They also observed that poorly located or poor-quality shops, restricted trading hours, infrequent or irregular bus services as well as lack of private mobility are further constraints on behaviour. It is believed that these constraints affect the frequency of shopping trips and reduces the flexibility with which various retail outlets can be used. Shepherd and Thomas further observed that new forms of retailing, in peripheral urban locations, such as hypermarkets have done little to improve retail access for the lower-income groups, as is also the

1. Shepherd and Thomas in Retail Geography. Dawson J.A. ed. 1980, pp.18-85.

case in many parts of South Africa.

These retail facilities tend to cater for the car mobile shopper, many of whom are non-existent among the lower income groups.

Serving the poor has been viewed as a problem for the marketing system as a whole. It is evident that markets have not dealt with this problem successfully, since they are increasingly ignoring the lower income consumers. To ignore this segment completely is to forego a large and potentially profitable market segment; therefore, marketers should examine the possibility of developing marketing strategies for this segment.

4.3

CONCLUSIONS

The discussion on consumer spatial models reveals that the shopping trip is a crucial determinant in structuring the pattern of spatial activity, hence a knowledge of the underlying determinants of consumer spatial behaviour is vital for the rational design of environments.

With regard to consumer behaviour, one cannot appreciate the retailing process by observing only the retail and the retailing institutions; knowledge and understanding of the consumer is essential because it provides a sound basis for decision-making. Although brief, the discussion serves to demonstrate the breadth and complexity of the problems associated with understanding consumer behaviour. Evidently, the central issue of consumer behaviour is the making of effective consumer purchase decisions which are vital to consumer satisfaction.

METHODOLOGY

5.1 SELECTION OF RESEARCH DESIGN

There are basically three categories of research design, namely, exploratory, descriptive and experimental. Exploratory research is primarily used to define problems and develop hypotheses to be tested later. Descriptive research gives an account of the frequency or the characteristics of some of the variables, while experimental research involves a controlled situation in which all variables are held constant, except one. These research designs are not mutually exclusive and a combination of all three may be used in the successful completion of a research project.

In this study the descriptive research design was employed and its distinguishing characteristics are its rigidity and formality. This formality is necessary in order to obtain an accurate description of the characteristics of the universe it purports to describe.

Descriptive research design consists of two basic types, namely:

- i the survey design which is the most widely used

formal research design, and which may be conducted in the field, or in a library, where a survey of secondary literature is undertaken;

- ii the panel design which involves the use of panels for measuring changes over time, known as longitudinal analysis. A panel is defined as a fixed sample of respondents from which information is collected on a continuous basis.

More specifically, the survey research design was employed in this study.

Survey data usually involves the accomplishment of a number of different steps. These steps are described hereunder, in the following order:

- i. Selection of an appropriate survey method.
- ii. Designation of a universe from which a sample is selected.
- iii. Determination of an adequate sample size.
- iv. Selection of respondents for inclusion in the sample.

- v. Construction of an interview guide.
- vi. Selection and training of interviewers.
- vii. The pilot study.
- viii. Administration of the interviewing phase of the research.
- ix. Coding, recording, and analysis of data.

5.2 SELECTION OF SURVEY METHOD

Survey research is the systematic gathering of data from respondents through questionnaires. A questionnaire is a formal list of questions to be answered in the survey. It may be administered by the mail, telephone, or personal interview method. In the selection of an appropriate survey method, the three methods mentioned above were considered. Unfortunately, no clear-cut answer exists as to which method is the best.

It is logical that when collecting information from respondents, researchers strive to utilize methods that secure accurate information in the shortest period of

time, with the least cost, while allowing flexibility, accuracy, control, speed, a high response rate, and minimum supervision. However, none of these methods possesses all these characteristics, thus necessitating an assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of each before the appropriate method is adopted.

The mail survey which involves the mailing of a questionnaire to each potential respondent, usually with instructions and a self addressed stamped envelope, was eliminated due to some inherent weaknesses. Although a mailing list from which a sample might be selected was available for the universe to be sampled, there would have been the difficulty of obtaining a substantial response rate. Previous studies have shown that respondents who readily reply to mailed questionnaires without compensation, tend not to be representative (Lansing & Morgan 1971 p. 164). Moreover, the desired respondents were usually not capable of answering the questions correctly and concisely as was discovered during the pre-pilot and pilot studies. Furthermore, no personal interaction occurs between respondent and interviewer and respondents fill questionnaires and return them at their convenience. However the advantages of mail surveys are its comparatively low cost per questionnaire, and its wide distribution.

Although telephone interviewing has many advantages, it also could not be adopted since the length of the questionnaire precluded the use of this method, and most respondents did not have access to a telephone. The advantages of telephone interviewing are speed, because travel time between interviews are not necessary as in personal interviewing, nor is time lost waiting for returned questionnaires as in mail surveys. Furthermore, they provide uniformity in the questioning process, control over the interviewers, and facilitates supervision if conducted from a central facility.

Personal interview was selected as the most appropriate method, because the desired respondent's answers could be validated by continual probing and or observation, and the information recorded possessed a higher degree of accuracy because it was recorded by trained interviewers, while misinterpretation of questions was also eliminated for the same reason. Despite the higher cost incurred in this method it was nevertheless the most appropriate method, yielding the highest response rate, (because interviewers gain the interviewee's confidence), permitting flexibility and the highest degree of control over the interviewing process.

5.3

DESIGNATION OF THE UNIVERSE

The universe or population is the entire collection of items the researcher wishes to study, and from which he intends to draw conclusions.

The universe to be sampled was defined as the total number of main dwelling units in the eleven neighbourhood units of Chatsworth. "Main dwelling units" are specified because there are many outbuildings attached to the main dwelling unit occupied by other families. In fact 1 671 units have outbuildings¹. The universe consisted of 21 428 dwelling units in the eleven units of Chatsworth.

The respondent to be interviewed within each household was the eldest housewife or male household head. These qualifications were made because many households consisted of many housewives and husbands due to the joint family system which still exists among the Indians, as evidenced by the interviewers, as well as by the large household size.

1. Figure obtained from Research Department. City Engineer's, Durban 15 February 1982.

5.4 DETERMINATION OF SAMPLE SIZE

A sample is a collection of observations from a parent population or universe. There may be two kinds of populations, namely, finite and infinite. Whereas finite populations have definable limits, and are thus measurable, infinite populations are immeasurable.

Since a sample is only part of a whole, it may not always be a reliable indication of the characteristics of the population from which it is drawn. However, the basic idea in sampling methodology is that a sample can be more speedily, easily, and cheaply secured than a census of every item in the universe.

Samples may be divided into two categories, namely probability samples and non-probability samples. A probability sample is chosen in such a way that each member of the universe has a known chance of being selected, that is, the sample is objectively selected while in a non-probability sample, the chance of any particular unit in the population being selected is unknown, that is, the sample is subjectively selected.

In this study the simple random sampling method was

chosen where each member of the population has a known and equal chance of being selected. 350 members were chosen from a table of random numbers. A frame of the specified population was developed, which consisted of the list of addresses of the dwelling units in Chatsworth. Each address was given a number from 1 to 21 428. Then the random numbers corresponding to the number in the frame of addresses of the dwelling units were chosen. The first 300 addresses of the 350 was the desired sample while the last 50 were to be used to complement the sample of 300 should there be no response from the originally selected sample. This ensured the retention of the original sample size of 300. Interviewers were asked to resort to the list of complementary samples when the desired respondent refused to respond, or when he/she was not available after three visits were made.

Finally 38 households had to be substituted because of the reasons mentioned above. Although Chatsworth is divided into 11 units, there is little difference among them apart from the proportion of sub-economic flats and/or houses there. Furthermore there is no distinct division between the units, thus making it difficult to assign dwellings to a particular unit. Therefore, the data presented, describes Chatsworth as a whole. Wherever possible, information is presented according to the different units.

5.5 SELECTION OF RESPONDENTS FOR INCLUSION IN THE SAMPLE

During the pilot and pre-pilot studies, it was discovered that the most suitable respondent was the eldest housewife, or the male household head of the household. This qualification was made because there was more than one housewife in the household due to the prevalence of the joint family system.

The eldest housewife, who was generally the mother-in-law, of the other housewives, appeared to be most knowledgeable about the household purchasing patterns. In instances where the eldest housewife or the male household head was unable to communicate in English, he or she was assisted by another member of the household.

5.6 CONSTRUCTION OF INTERVIEW GUIDE

An interview guide or questionnaire was developed in order to facilitate the personal interviewing process. A questionnaire is a formal list of questions designed to elicit responses from consumers on a given topic, and is generally the major instrument used in obtaining primary data from respondents through the survey method.

A structured non-disguised questionnaire was used in this survey. A copy of this instrument is included as Appendix A. This questionnaire is so named because, not only are the questions and the allowed responses predetermined, but the purpose of the study is obvious to the respondent from the beginning. The advantages of the structured non-disguised questionnaire are ease of administration by interviewers, and ease of tabulation and interpretation of responses by the researcher.

Further, two types of questions are found in the structured non-disguised questionnaire, namely dichotomous and multiple choice. A dichotomous question allows for only two possible answers, for example, yes or no; while the multiple choice questions permit the respondent to select from several answers the one that is most suitable. In selecting the alternative answers in this particular questionnaire, the responses from the pre-pilot studies, among others, were included as they were mentioned frequently.

An "other" category was included to permit other choices. Although multiple choice and dichotomous questions are less useful in securing information on motivation studies, it was considered useful in this survey, because it con-

cerned mainly the acquisition of factual information.

The questionnaire was comprehensive, and the average-time taken to complete each questionnaire was 50 minutes. Respondents were asked to furnish some basic demographic information which could affect shopping behaviour, namely, household size, vehicle, and refrigerator ownership dwelling tenure, and household income.

They were also asked to furnish information on 8 types of commodities in regard to where they were "most often" purchased, who purchased them, mode of travel used, frequency of purchase, approximate monthly expenditure on each of the 8 types of commodities, and the most important reasons for their purchase of items.

It will be noticed, upon a perusal of the questionnaire, that items of a specialized nature, such as jewellery, were not included in this study.

5.7 SELECTION AND TRAINING OF INTERVIEWERS

Eleven final year undergraduate university students were selected and trained to administer the questionnaire. They were required to personally ask the respondents the questions in the order as reflected in the questionnaire. This facilitated the consistent recording of the respondents' answers, because the succeeding question usually followed on from the preceding idea.

The structured non-disguised questionnaire facilitated the training process. Interviewers conducted pre-pilot and pilot studies and received feedback on their administration of the questionnaire. This eliminated inconsistencies and problems that manifested themselves during the pre-tests, thus enabling them to conduct the final survey with the minimum difficulty.

5.8 THE PILOT STUDY

30 households were chosen randomly from a sample frame containing the addresses of each dwelling unit in Chatsworth, for the pilot study. Prior to this the author personally interviewed housewives and male household heads specifically to elicit responses for some

questions that were open-ended. On the basis of these responses, all questions were prestructured, in order to facilitate recording of responses by the interviewers.

The pilot study was conducted during two weekends in March, namely, 6 and 7, and 13 and 14 March 1982. Those respondents who refused to participate in the study, and those who were not available after two calls, were substituted by those immediately next door. Although the desired respondent was either the main housewife or the male household head, very often, a member of his or her family assisted, because the desired respondent was unable to communicate effectively (intelligibly) in English, primarily because they usually converse in their vernacular.

The questionnaire was found to be suitable upon an analysis of the data. Apart from the inclusion of new categories of responses that arose frequently from the pilot study, the questionnaire remained virtually unaltered.

5.9 ADMINISTRATION OF THE INTERVIEWING PHASE OF THE RESEARCH

Field work was conducted during the period 3 April 1982 to 3 May 1982. Of the 300 completed questionnaires 12 were initially unintelligible. The interviewers were asked to call back and redo those parts of the questionnaire that were unintelligible.

The interviewers were asked to explain briefly the purpose of the survey to the respondents, indicating also that the information would be treated confidentially. They were also asked to note any remarks made by the respondents, that would have some significance to their responses. For example, the expenditure for hardware, and home improvement was given as being more than R80,00 per month in some instances (2%). This extraordinarily high amount was explained by the fact that these respondents were in the process of extending or improving their homes.

Upon completion of the questionnaire, interviewers were requested to thank the respondents for their co-operation.

5.10

CODING, RECORDING AND
ANALYSIS OF DATA

The completed questionnaires were checked and 12 had to be redone in order to have been acceptable. They were then coded, and punched onto computer cards. A computer program was prepared to develop tables of the data.

CHAPTER 6

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

6.1

INTRODUCTION

In order to enable one to draw comparisons between the data obtained and the existence of the number of shops¹ in Chatsworth² in comparison with the population in each unit, the following information was considered necessary:

Unit	Popu- lation ³	Shops	Service Station	Popula- tion per Shop
1. Havenside	12 572	22	1	571.5
2. Bayview	18 193	27	1	673.8
3. Westcliff	22 545	32*	1	704.5
4. Mobeni Heights	6 486	13	1	498.9
5. Croftdene	14 923	27	1	552.7
6. Arena Park	9 183	16	0	573.9
7. Montford	24 551	22	1	1960.1
8. Risecliff	18 572			
9. Moorton	10 033	22	1	456
10. Woodhurst	9 715	0	0	
11. Crossmoor	13 559	1	0	1335.9
Total	160.332	181	7	885.8

1. Services are included in shops
2. From an observation in April 1982 and Information from City Engineers Department, Durban. R16/03/22A.

*A market with 41 stalls is included in the figure 32.

On an average, one shop serves 885.8 (886) people. The figure for Unit 10, is infinity because there are no shops in unit 10. However, the residents do have access to shops in Unit 3 as well as in Umhlatusana Township which are on the border of Unit 10. Similarly, residents in Unit 11 have access to shops in the neighbouring unit, namely Unit 9. When these facts are considered, it becomes evident that the figures for population per shop per unit does not reflect the true situation. But the average for the 11 units, approaches a more realistic figure, as it applies in Chatsworth.

With regard to the tenant mix in the different units, except units 10 and 11, the shops that are common to most units are, convenience shops, butcheries, general dealers, grocers, surgeries, pharmacies, dry cleaners, hairdressers, banks or building societies, hardware stores, bottle stores and video shops. In units 2, 6 and 11 the shops were privately developed, whereas the Department of Community Development was responsible for the establishment of shops in units 1, 3, 4, 5, 7 and 8 and 9.¹ At the time of the interview, the shopping centre in unit 7 had not been opened. The above information is presented in order to assist in a comparison with the

1. Survey of Traders in Chatsworth Unit Centres R16/22/12/A City Engineer's Department, Durban, 1976.

respondents' awareness of existing facilities.

With regard to the questionnaire, (see Appendix A) the first part was designed to elicit demographic and personal information, while the latter part was intended to elicit information on the residents' knowledge and existence of the availability and type of retail and service outlets, as well as on their consumption patterns. It will be noticed, however, that the question on household income (which is personal information) appeared at the end of the questionnaire. This was done in order to gain the confidence of the respondents in the first part, and thus elicit a favourable response to this vital question.

In some of the Tables in Appendix B, the sum of totals exceeded 100% because multiple responses were given by some, and all conversions to percentages are based on the total sample size of 300.

6.2

THE RESPONDENTS

As mentioned earlier in chapter 5, the desired respondent was either the main housewife or the male household head. This qualification has been made because more than

one housewife or husband may form part of a particular household due to the prevalence of the joint family system. The main housewife or male household head was also preferred because he/she is generally well acquainted with the details required, being either a parent or parent-in-law.

Table 6.1 indicates that the majority of the respondents, namely, 67.33% were housewives, of which 13.33% were assisted by a member of the household other than the husband, because they were unable to communicate in English with the interviewer, while another 4% of the housewives were assisted by their husbands.

Of the 36.66% of the male household heads who were interviewed, 1.33% were assisted by a member of the household other than the housewife, due to communication problems.

In order to retain the sample size of 300 respondents, 12.67% of respondents were substituted (Table 6.2). The reasons for substitution appear in Table 6.3. According to Table 6.3, 33% respondents refused to complete the questionnaire because some were not in favour of participating in surveys, while others were

afraid to speak to the interviewers who were strangers to them; while 8.67% were not at home even after three visits were made by the interviewers. They were believed to be on holiday, as the interview period coincided with the Easter vacation; 0.67% indicated other reasons for not being able to complete the questionnaire, for example they were unable to communicate intelligibly and/or had no-one to assist them.

With regard to the number of respondents from each of the eleven neighbourhood units, Table 6.4 reflects the sample size from each unit. The figures for units 1 and 4, and units 7 and 8 respectively, are combined because they are generally regarded as one neighbourhood unit.

Since only 4.67% of respondents have been living in Chatsworth for three years or less, (Table 6.5), the majority of respondents could be considered to be aware of the availability of shopping facilities in their areas, and therefore constituted a fairly representative sample. Figure 6.1 (Appendix C) reflects the distribution of the Length of Residence in Chatsworth.

Respondents indicated in Table 6.6 that the majority 65.67%, of households consist of 5 - 8 individuals while

only 20.33% consist of 1-4 individuals, and 14% consist of 9-14 individuals. It is interesting to note that despite the small size of the dwelling units which are essentially economic and sub-economic buildings, 14% of the households consist of more than 8 members per household, which is a further indication of the prevalence of the joint family system. The average household comprises 6.14 persons.

Table 6.7 reflects the total monthly household income of respondents. Total monthly household income includes income from all sources, and not only that derived through employment. Table 6.7 indicates that more than half of the respondents that is 54% have a total household income of less than R500 per month. A large percentage (24%) earn less than R300 per month, while only 13.67% have a total household income of R800 - more than R1 000. Those who indicated that they did not know, (8.33%), were unsure, because they receive varying amounts from their children and relatives in different months, while only 7% were unwilling to furnish this information because they considered it to be too personal.

Total monthly household income and size of household is reflected in Table 6.8. This table reveals that 6.33%

of respondents whose total household income per month is less than R300, have between 8 and 11 people per household, resulting in a per capita income of less than R37 per month. Since respondents were relied upon for honesty with regard to this question, and since income is difficult to verify in a survey of this nature, it is not possible to state categorically that the per capita income is as low as is indicated above. Further, 0.67% whose household income is between R400-R499 per month have 12 members per household, 0.33% of respondents whose household income is R500-R599 per month have 14 members per household, resulting also, in a per capita income of less than R37 per month. Only 6.33% indicated that their household income exceeds R1 000 per month. In this group, the size of the household ranges from 4 to 12 and the income is provided either by one member (the head) who is a businessman, or generally by more than one working member. Of those who do not know what the household income is, their household size ranges from 2-12, while the household size, of those who were unwilling to furnish information on income, ranges from 3-10.

6.3

EMPLOYMENT

Table 6.9 indicates that 58.67% of respondents and 33.33% of spouses were either unemployed or retired. Where both respondents and spouses in the same household were unemployed, they depend on their children for financial support or upon grants and pension schemes. The number of spouses that were employed, namely 50%, is greater than the number of respondents employed, namely, 41.33%. This is so, because the majority of the respondents were housewives. It can also be seen that 16% of spouses were deceased while 0.67% of the respondents were either divorced or single, and therefore did not indicate the employment status of their spouses.

It is evident from Table 6.10 that more of the employed respondents (16%), as well as employed spouses (20.67%), are employed in Durban Central than in the other places mentioned. This fact has significant implications for the purchase of items in Durban Central since they are exposed to strong advertising appeals and imaginative window displays on their way to and from work. While many do not purchase items on "work days" because of insufficient time during intervals, as well

as the fact that the shop's trading hours coincides with their "work day"; they nevertheless return on Saturdays to make their purchases.

According to Table 6.11, the majority of the respondents and spouses, travel to work by bus, despite the many grievances they have about the bus service. This is evidently so, because they have no alternative, since the majority do not own cars, or they have to walk further to board a train, than to board a bus.

Figure 6.2 reflects the mode of travel to work of respondents and/or spouses.

6.4

CAR OWNERSHIP

It can be seen from Table 6.12 that less than half (only 42.67%) of the respondents indicated that a member of their household owns a car. The ownership and maintenance of a motor car appears to be beyond the means of the majority due to their low level of income.

However, it is interesting to note in Table 6.13 that of the 42.67% who own a car, the household income of 3.33% of

respondents is less than R300, while of the 6.33% whose household income exceeds R1 000 per month 1.67% do not own a car; of the 2.33% whose income is between R900 - 1 000, only 0.33% do not own a car, while all those who earn between R700 - R799 own a car. The ownership of cars by those in the lower income groups may be due to several probable reasons:

- i to serve as a status symbol
- ii the value of the car, may be low, because it may have changed hands many times, and was thus within the purchasing power of the respondents or
- iii the car may have been bought on credit.

The figures in Table 6.14 indicate that of the 42.67% of respondents who have a car in their household, 5.67% do not use the car for shopping purposes while 39% do so. Of the 39% who do most of their shopping by car, 2% do not own a car but travel with others or use company cars. This accounts for the discrepancy in the totals in Tables 6.12 and 6.14.

6.5 OWNERSHIP OF REFRIGERATOR AND DEEFPREEZER

From the high percentage (96.67%) of ownership of a refrigerator (Table 6.15), it appears that respondents consider it a necessity, while the ownership of a deep-freezer (by 21.33%) is considered a luxury. Presumably low income earners cannot afford to buy in bulk and store because their income, generally, has to be divided among many necessary purchases and or other financial commitments.

Table 6.16 indicates that of the 96.7% who own a refrigerator, 89% buy milk daily while 0.33% buy milk once a fortnight and another respondent buys milk once a month. These 2 respondents indicated that they buy powdered milk because it is cheaper, and obviously less perishable. Of those who do not own a refrigerator, only 0.33% buy milk once a week while 2.67% buy milk daily.

With regard to the purchase of fruit and vegetables Table 6.17 indicates that the majority (79% of those who own a refrigerator purchase their fresh produce once a week, 7% ,as required during the week;

6%, once a fortnight, 1.67% monthly and 2% daily. The respondent who indicated that she buys fruit and vegetables once a fortnight, even without a refrigerator, has no alternative because she cannot afford to go to town regularly and that she buys those items only, that do not perish easily.

While Table 6.18 indicates that of the 68.67% who purchase meat once a week, 66.33% have a refrigerator, 16.33% who have a refrigerator purchase meat once a month, while only 0.67% purchase meat daily despite having a refrigerator because they prefer fresh meat, and the butchery is close by.

In comparison with the ownership of a deepfreezer, Table 6.19 indicates that of the 21.33% of respondents who own a deepfreezer 12.67% purchase meat weekly, 1.33%, fortnightly and only 6.33%, monthly. While a larger percentage 10% who do not have a deepfreezer purchase meat monthly. In this case, although respondents, indicated that they do not have a deepfreezer, they nevertheless store their meat in the little freezer within their refrigerator.

6.6 PURCHASE PATTERNS WITH REGARD TO THE VARIOUS ITEMS

It is interesting to note (in Table 6.20) that only 2% of the respondents do not purchase bread. As is customary in some Indian homes, unleavened bread is made on a daily basis, thus obviating the need to purchase bread. However the majority have found it more convenient and economical to purchase bread rather than make it themselves.

Although 97% of respondents purchase milk and dairy products, 3% consider it too expensive and do without it. With regard to the other 6 types of items, those who indicated that they do not purchase them, receive these items from relatives, or children, because their income is too low to enable them to purchase these items. Meat is not purchased by 3.67% of respondents, because at least 1% were vegetarians and the others receive it from children or relatives as in the case of groceries and toiletries.

Since the items are purchased by more than one member of the household, it will be noticed in Table 6.21 that the totals in each column vary and may exceed 100%. With

regard to bread and milk, the main purchasers are wives (bread 49.67%; milk 51.67%) and children (bread 40.67%; milk 38.67%), while husbands and wives are the main purchasers of the other six types of items. Children also constitute significant purchasers of clothing and footwear comprising 30.67%.

The totals in each column in Table 6.22 also vary and exceed 300 because the various items are purchased in more than one place on different occasions, even though respondents were asked where they did most of their shopping. The hawker or vendor is the most important source for the purchase of bread (61%) and milk (69.67%), while the corner shop and the shopping centres account for 21% and 15.67% of bread purchases and 14% and 12.67% of milk purchases respectively. Durban Central and shopping centres in Chatsworth are the most important sources for groceries and toiletries 32.33% and 31% respectively and meat 36% and 39.33% respectively. Due to the low car ownership of respondents, the hypermarket does not feature as a major source for groceries and toiletries and meat, accounting for only 18% and 3.33% of purchases respectively. Durban Central is the most important source for the purchase of fresh produce (59%), clothing and footwear (90.67%), furniture and electrical appliance (91.33%) and hardware and home improvement 82.33%. The main reasons for this are that there are no shops in some units or very few in

others with a limited range of items. Since these are mainly comparison items and are bought infrequently, the respondents obviously preferred shopping in Durban Central where there is a wide variety to choose from among many stores. Furthermore for clothing and furniture, it is improbable that residents would patronize stores in Chatsworth to any appreciable extent, especially as these stores are small, and do not have a wide range to choose from. Clark (1968, p.387) found that the "aim of the shopper is to maximize the result of his total travel effort, rather than to minimize travel effort for the individual goods, as the concept of range would argue.", while Johnston (1971)¹, stated that high social class shoppers tend to undertake longer than average shopping journeys. However, in the case of Chatsworth residents, who are not of a high social class, they nevertheless travel longer than average shopping journeys due to a lack of adequate and appropriate facilities nearby.

The main reason given for the purchase of bread (91.33%) and milk (93.33%) from the hawker, cornershops, and shopping centres in Chatsworth is that it is more convenient for the respondents, (Table 6.23); lower prices is the more important reason for the purchase of meat (30.33%)

1. quoted in Erwee 1977, p.229

groceries and toiletries, (45.33%), fresh produce (39%), and hardware and home improvements (47.33%), while the main reason for the purchase of clothing and footwear (55%) and furniture and electrical appliances (44%) is the availability of a wider range of items in Durban Central. The reasons given by respondents were spontaneous and in some cases multiple responses were given for the purchase of items in the different places mentioned. Boone (1971)¹ identified convenience, friendship, and ties with local shopkeepers, as determinants of attitudes amongst low-income groups, especially in regard to the purchase of convenience items. However there are also underlying reasons, namely, relatively low mobility and the availability of credit from neighbourhood stores. This latter factor often results in low income groups paying more for convenience type purchases since the prices in small grocery stores are usually higher than those in chain supermarkets. Kelly (1958, p.32) stated that "convenience costs are assuming more importance as patronage determinants." While Anderson and Scott (1970, p.16) observed that due to an increase in supermarkets and the increasing use of cars for shopping purposes, more stores are equally convenient and accessible for shoppers."

Table 6.24 indicates that the majority of respondents (99.33% and 91.67% respectively) purchase bread and milk

1. quoted in Erwee 1971, p.271

daily, due to the high degree of perishability of these products. Groceries and toiletries are bought monthly by 61.67% of respondents while meat and fresh produce are bought weekly by 68.67% and 81% of respondents respectively. The more durable items are bought as the need arises for them, for example, clothing and footwear 92.67%, furniture and electrical appliances 96% and hardware and home improvement (95.33%).

According to Table 6.25, 94.67% and 96.33% of the respondents walk for bread and milk respectively, 59% travel by car or bus for groceries and toiletries, while a large percentage (32%) walk to procure groceries and toiletries. For meat and fresh produce, 61.33% and 72.33% respectively, travel by bus or car. The majority of the respondents travel by bus for clothing and footwear (66.66%), furniture and electrical appliances (62.33%) and hardware and home-improvement (57%), since they have to purchase these requirements in Durban Central.

Most purchases of all items mentioned are made directly from home (Table 6.26). Reliance on public transport by the majority of respondents to get to work, and the closing of stores at the same time as they cease work, precludes more people from purchasing items on their way home from work.

6.7 AMOUNT (PER MONTH) SPENT
 ON THE VARIOUS ITEMS

The majority spend up to R20 per month on bread (82%) and milk (77.67%); 85.67% spend between R41 and more than R100 per month on groceries and toiletries; 57.33% spend between R21 and R60 per month on meat; 76% spend up to R40 per month on fresh produce while the majority (79%, 61.67%, and 83.33%) of respondents indicated that they do not know how much they spend on clothing and footwear, furniture and electrical appliances and hardware and home improvements respectively. The 21% and 37.67% of respondents who indicated that they spend specified amounts on clothing and footwear and furniture and appliances respectively, were able to do so because they pay for these items on a monthly instalment basis. It will be noticed that 2% of respondents spend between R81 and more than R100 per month on hardware and home improvements. This surprisingly high amount was accounted for by the fact that extensions to their present dwellings were being effected. Although respondents indicated that they do not budget for the various items, the majority nevertheless were able to compute the approximate value spent per month on the convenience items.

6.8 EXISTENCE OF CORNERSHOP

Table 6.28 reveals that a fairly large percentage (39.67%) of respondents do not have a cornershop nearby.

However, although 39.67% of respondents indicated that they do not have a cornershop nearby, (Table 6.29) 24% of these nevertheless have access to a convenience store in a shopping centre nearby, as can be deduced from Table 6.45. Table 6.29 also indicates that of the 9.33% of respondents from units 1 and 4, only 0.33% do not have a cornershop nearby, and all respondents from unit 6 have easy access to at least one cornershop.

From Table 6.31, it can be seen that of those who have access to cornershops, 5.67% of the 9% of respondents from units 1 and 4 have access to 2 cornershops, while 2.67% from unit 3 only, have access to 3 cornershops or convenience stores in a shopping centre. The respondents from units 5, 7, 9, 10 and 11 do not have access to more than one cornershop thus restricting their choice. The number of shops that respondents have access to is reflected in Table 6.30.

Of the 60.33% of respondents who indicated that they have access to at least one convenience/cornershop (Table 6.32),

23.33% stated that the cornershop/convenience store is part of a shopping centre; of the 10% who have access, 9% stated that they form a part of one shopping centre while 2.67% indicated that the third convenience store also forms part of a shopping centre. In comparison with the length of residence in Chatsworth, Table 6.33 indicates that 28.67% of the 68.33% of respondents who have lived in Chatsworth for as long as twelve years and more do not have access to a cornershop within a reasonable walking distance from home, (that is 15 minutes per single trip). However 6.33% of these respondents do have access to a convenience store which forms part of a shopping centre, as can be seen from Table 6.44. Considering the length of residence, the absence of such a basic facility as a convenience store alone, justifies the residents' grievance with respect to shopping facilities. Table 6.34 indicates that 6% of those who have access to at least one cornershop/convenience store, do not patronize it, while only 0.33% do not patronize the second, while all who have access to the third, patronize it.

In Table 6.35 respondents spontaneously gave one or more reasons for the patronization, or non-patronization, of the cornershops accessible to them. Therefore the totals

in each column exceed 300. The main reasons given by 59.33% of the respondents for the use of a cornershop were that, it is (1) convenient and (2) used when goods are required urgently. Of the 6.33% who indicated that they do not patronize a cornershop, 3.33% stated that the prices are higher than at other places, from which they could buy. With regard to how far the cornershop is, (Table 6.36), perceived distance, rather than actual distance, from home was chosen as an indicator of the distance respondents had to travel, because most of the respondents do not actually measure the distance, but have an idea only, of the time spent in getting to a cornershop, or an estimate of the distance travelled, either by car or on foot. Time, rather than distance, was introduced as a measure since the effort to reach a centre is not necessarily correlated with distance involved. Only 45.67% of respondents reside within 10 minutes from a cornershop either by car or on foot.

Despite the fact that less than half (45.67%) of respondents could get access to a shop within 10 minutes on foot, (Table 6.36) 53% indicated that the cornershop was near enough. Some respondents were evidently prepared to spend more than 10 minutes to get to a shop (Table 6.37). Of those who have access to a cornershop, 49.33%

of respondents support the cornershop daily, or whenever goods are required, while 8% of respondents who have access to two cornershops support them daily, or whenever goods are required; and all of those who have access to a third cornershop support it daily as well (Table 6.38).

6.9 INTENDED PATRONAGE OF NEW CORNERSHOP

The majority of those who do not have access to a cornershop 38% (Table 6.39), indicated that they would patronize one, if established nearby, while only 1.67% indicated they would not. The reasons for their intended patronage or non-patronage are indicated in Table 6.40.

Some respondents spontaneously stated more than one reason for their intended behaviour, thus resulting in a total greater than 39.67%. The main reasons appear to be that it would be convenient, especially if it is established nearer home, and respondents would have a source of supply when goods are required urgently. Those who indicated that they do not intend patronizing the new cornershop, stated that they would buy from the hawker or from other places. Table 6.41 indicates the distance respondents are prepared to travel to support a new cornershop.

The majority (that is 22.33% of 38%) indicated that they are prepared to walk for up to 5 minutes in order to get to a cornershop, whereas 12.67% are prepared to walk for up to 10 minutes, while only 1% are prepared to walk for up to 15 minutes. Of those who would travel by car, only 1% indicated that they are prepared to drive for up to 5 minutes and a further 1% are prepared to drive for up to 10 minutes. None are prepared to spend more than 15 minutes either by car or on foot to get to a cornershop. Yeats and Garner (1971)¹ contend that each consumer can be thought of as having his own highly personalized behaviour space, the extent of which depends primarily on his level of mobility and attitude to space. This appears to be just as applicable in the case of the Chatsworth respondents.

6.10 EXISTENCE AND PATRONAGE OF SHOPPING CENTRE

Table 6.42 indicates that a large percentage (36%) of respondents do not have access to a shopping centre, while of those who have access, only 7.33% do not patronize it. The majority of those who do not patronize it, consider the distance to the shopping centre to be further than the distance to the nearest bus stop to

1. Yeats and Garner (1971) quoted in Erwee 1977, p.227

Durban Central, which is an attractive shopping area, offering a wider range of goods at competitive prices.

All respondents from units 1 and 4 indicated that they have access to a shopping centre (Table 6.43). The majority of respondents from units 7 and 8 (that is 54 out of 56) had no shopping centre nearby (although most of them indicated that a shopping centre was being established); while the majority from unit 11 do not have easy access to a shopping centre nearby. Evidently, the majority of respondents from some neighbourhood units are inconvenienced to a greater extent than those of other units, since they do not have an opportunity to purchase items in shopping centres within a reasonable driving distance from home (that is 15 minutes per single trip).

With regard to the length of residence in Chatsworth and the existence of a shopping centre, Table 6.44 reflects the statistics. Of the 68.33% of respondents who have been residing in Chatsworth for at least 12 years, 22.33% indicated that they do not have reasonable access to a shopping centre in Chatsworth (that is within 15 minutes per trip by car). The absence of a shopping centre within a reasonable driving time of 15 minutes, leaves these residents with no choice,

but to commute several kilometres further, in order to procure their requirements.

Table 6.45 indicates that 15.67% of respondents do not have access to either a shopping centre or a cornershop; while 30.33% have access to a cornershop only but not to a shopping centre. Of the 39.67% of respondents who indicated that they do not have a cornershop nearby, 24%, have access to at least one which forms part of the shopping centre. All the shopping centres in Chatsworth have a convenience store, (or a cafe as it is commonly known) which serves the same purpose as a cornershop. It is not difficult to appreciate the inconvenience experienced by the 15.67% of respondents who have neither a cornershop nor a shopping centre within a reasonable walking or driving distance from their homes. Thus the reliance on the hawker is understandable. However, the hawker's services are available for only a limited period per day.

The reason for the use or non-use of shopping centres appear in Table 6.46. Respondents spontaneously stated one or more reasons for the patronization or non-patronization of the shopping centres. The two most commonly stated reasons for their patronization were that they are convenient (30.33%) and nearer home, (28.33%) while

16.33% of respondents use the shopping centre when goods are required urgently. Of those who do not patronize the shopping centre, 3% stated that the service is poor, and 2.67% are deterred because of the high incidence of hooliganism, while 2% stated that it is too far away from home to walk with parcels.

Table 6.47 indicates that of the 56.67% of respondents who patronize a shopping centre, only 21.33% use it daily; 11.33% once a week, and 21.67% use it whenever the need arises, while 1.33% use it once a fortnight and 1% use it at a frequency other than that indicated on the questionnaire. The daily patronization of the shopping centre occurs because of the daily patronization of the corner shops which form a part of the shopping centre.

Table 6.48 indicates respondents' knowledge of the existence of the various stores and services in the shopping centre, their patronage, as well as their desire for stores not available in the existing shopping centres. According to Table 6.48, the most patronized store appears to be the tearoom (49.33%), followed by the grocery store (41.67%), the butchery (37.33%); while the least patronized stores appear to be the furniture store, and the clothing store, because of a lack of variety. A departmental store does not form a part of any of the shopping centres in Chatsworth. Those respondents who indicated that there is a

departmental store and that they patronize it, seem to have confused this with an ordinary drapery store.

Where certain stores were not included in some shopping centres, the most desired were, the departmental store, the furniture store, the building society, and bank, while the least desired appeared to be the tearoom and the grocery store.

When comparing the figures according to the rank order for the patronization and desire, the results appear to be conflicting. This can be reconciled when it is remembered that the least desired stores actually are in existence in most of the shopping centres, while the most desired do not exist in most shopping centres.

Figure 6.3 reflects the respondents' knowledge of the existence of shops and their patronage of shops in the Shopping Centre. From Table 6.49, it can be seen that only 29.67% of respondents have access to a shopping centre within 10 minutes on foot while only 5.67% have access within 10 minutes by car, whereas 28.67% of respondents have to spend more than 15 minutes by car (0.33%) or on foot (28.33%) to get to a shopping centre.

In the case of the shopping centre as well as in the case of the corner shop, respondents appear to be prepared to travel for more than 10 minutes by car or on foot to use a shopping centre since 44% consider it close enough, (Table 6.50) even though only 29.67% have access within 10 minutes on foot and 5.67% have access within 10 minutes by car.

6.11 INFORMATION ON NEW SHOPPING CENTRE

The majority of those who do not have reasonable access to a shopping centre within Chatsworth (33.67%) would use one if it is established, while only 1.33% stated that they would not use it, and 1% stated they were unsure whether they would use it or not (Table 6.51). The reasons for their intended use or non-use appear in Table 6.52.

The total number of reasons given, exceeds 36%, because some respondents furnished more than one reason for their intended behaviour. The most commonly stated reasons were that it would be nearer home (27.33%), and convenient (21.67%), while those who intend not to use it stated that they do not like carrying parcels home (0.67%) and that they believe prices would be higher, since retailers do not have to compete on the basis of price because their competitors are not close by.

The total number of respondents who answered the question pertaining to Table 6.53 is higher than 36%(i.e. the number of respondents who do not have a shopping centre nearby) because 11.67% of the 19.67% of respondents (in Table 50) who indicated that the shopping centre was not near enough also answered this question, preferring to give the maximum distance they were prepared to travel. Brunner and Mason (1968 p. 59) concluded that the most significant driving time dimension for trade area analysis is 15 minutes for shopping centres. They have also stated that studies have suggested that consumers are reluctant to drive more than 20 minutes to patronize a shopping centre. In this study none of the respondents were willing to support a shopping centre if they have to travel for more than 15 minutes.

According to the Rank Order in Table (6.54) the most desired store or service appears to be that of the Dentist 36%, followed by the supermarket 35.67%, Doctor/ Surgery 35.33%, Pharmacy 34.67%, butchery 34.33%, and grocery store 34.33%; while the least desired store appears to be the bottlestore, followed by the furniture store. Although the rank order is 20 for "other stores" the "other stores" includes more than one store. This does not necessarily imply that they are the least

desired stores, because not all respondents could spontaneously mention another store in the limited time given.

6.12

TRAVEL BY BUS

The majority of the respondents (80.33%) were not willing to travel by bus to support a shopping centre, (Table 6.55) while only 18.33% are willing to travel by bus. The reasons for their willingness or unwillingness appear in Table 6.56.

The total number of reasons exceeds 100% because (multiple responses were given) for their willingness or unwillingness to travel by bus. Of the 18.33% who were willing to travel by bus, 12% have no alternative, while 3% consider it to be cheaper than travelling by car.

Although 3% indicated that it is cheaper, 17% of respondents indicated that bus fares are too high, and they walk to the shopping centre, even though it is inconvenient to carry parcels home. The concept of cheapness obviously differs among different people, and is relative. Those who indicated that bus fares are too high, stated that it is high in comparison with the short distance to be

covered in order to reach the Shopping Centre, which they could reach on foot with slightly more physical effort.

6.13 ADEQUACY OF SHOPPING FACILITIES

Table 6.57 indicates that a majority (92.67%) of respondents stated that the shopping facilities are inadequate and should be improved, only 6% are satisfied with the facilities while 1.33% are unsure. The manner in which they should be improved appears in Table 6.58.

The most commonly stated ways of improving the facilities, were the provision of :

- i. all types of shops (55.33%) and
- ii. bigger shops and supermarkets like those owned by Pick 'n Pay, and O.K. Bazaars (51.33%). Respondents mentioned this, indicating their preference for White-owned supermarkets, although this question was not specifically asked;
- iii. 32.67% of respondents want facilities closer to home, while

iv. the same percentage prefer goods at lower prices.

Those who want lower priced goods indicated that the prices should be at least equal to what they pay for those items in Durban Central or other supermarkets or stores. 29% feel that the shops should be well built while 28.33% were not satisfied with the siting of the Shopping Centres.

Bearden¹, who conducted a study among a sample of female employees at a large regional state university in America, found that the seven most important store attributes were:

- i. price level
- ii. quality of merchandise
- iii. selection
- iv. atmosphere
- v. location
- vi. parking facilities and
- vii. friendliness of salespeople.

It can be seen that price level and location (or siting) are important to the sample population in both cases. However, parking facilities appears to be more important in Bearden's study than in this study. Understandably, improved parking ranks ninth, since the rate of car ownership in Chatsworth is low and further, these responses were spontaneous.

The respondents' desire for white owned stores in Chatsworth is a controversial issue, necessitating an amendment to the relevant provisions of the Group Areas Act No. 41 of 1950, so that White entrepreneurs may locate in Chatsworth. However, the majority of the Indian Traders are not in favour of this, since they feel that their position would be jeopardized because the residents would patronize white stores rather than Indian stores. White owned stores would be able to attract the consumers, because of lower prices they are able to achieve through economies of scale. Furthermore, they contend that they are not permitted to operate in other areas and this constitutes a great injustice. The result of a study conducted by Schlemmer and Haycock (1983, p.40) also revealed that the majority of respondents desired large white owned stores in Chatsworth together with smaller Indian stores. Figure 6.4 reflects the manner in which respondents indicated that facilities should be improved.

When considering the existence of shopping centres and the improvement of facilities, Table 6.59 indicates that of the 192 respondents (64%) who have easy access to Shopping Centres in Chatsworth, 175 (58.33%) feel that the existing shopping facilities should be improved;

15(5%) are satisfied. It is evident that the existing shopping centres in Chatsworth do not cater for all the needs of the respondents, since the majority of those who have access to a Shopping Centre prefer improvements to Shopping Facilities.

Of the 108 (36%) respondents who do not have access to a shopping centre in Chatsworth, the majority 103 (34.33%) want improved shopping facilities, 3 (1%) were unconcerned because they intend shopping elsewhere even if facilities were provided.

6.14

PATRONAGE OF HAWKER

According to Table 6.60, 79% of respondents patronize the hawker for one or more items, 19.67% do not and only 1.33% are not called on by hawkers.

A large percentage (44%) of those who have at least one cornershop patronize the hawker because of the convenience while (35%) who do not have a cornershop patronize the hawker, and only (4.33%) have neither a cornershop, nor patronize a hawker (Table 6.61).

The majority (49%) of those who have Shopping Centres nearby patronize the hawker, while (14%) do not. Of those who do not have a shopping centre nearby (30%) patronize the hawker, (5.67%) do not, while only 0.33% are unaware of this facility/service (Table 6.62).

Reasons for patronage or non-patronage of the hawker appear in Table 6.63. The most commonly cited reasons were that the hawker comes to their door (60.67%) and that it is convenient to purchase from him (54.33%). Of those who do not purchase from a hawker, 6.67% stated that the prices of items are higher than at other places, and that despite the convenience of buying at their door, the higher prices do not warrant any purchases. According to Table 6.64 only 10% of respondents purchase items other than milk, bread, fruit and vegetables from the hawker. The other items purchased are clothing, poultry, eggs and sweets. The frequency of purchase of clothing, poultry, eggs and sweets are indicated in Table 6.65.

The majority of those who support the hawker (73.33%) indicated that it would be inconvenient if the hawker's services were to cease, compelling them to seek other

sources for their necessities. Only 5.67% indicated that they would not suffer any inconvenience (Table 6.66). Despite the fact, that 39.33% of respondents have access to a corner shop, they nevertheless indicated that it would be inconvenient if the hawker's services were to cease, and 34% of the 39.67% who do not have access to a corner shop indicated, that it would be inconvenient. Only 4.67% of those who do not have access to a corner shop, do not patronize a hawker (Table 6.67). The hawker evidently provides a vital service to both those who have a corner shop and those who do not, because housewives can make their purchases at their doorstep, and do not have to send their children, who are exposed to risk on the busy roads, as well as provocation by hooligans. Housewives themselves are also exposed to this provocation and therefore prefer to purchase from the hawker. Table 6.68 reveals that of the 64% of respondents who have access to a shopping centre, 15% do not patronize a hawker, while 45% indicated that it would be inconvenient if the hawker's services were to cease. Of the 36% who do not have access to a shopping centre in Chatsworth, only 6% do not patronize a hawker; while 28.33% indicated that it would be inconvenient if the hawker's services were to cease.

The cessation of the hawker's services would evidently place both those who have a shopping centre nearby and those who do not, at a great disadvantage, since many would have to walk home with their purchases because they do not have private transport.

Table 6.69 indicates the reason for the respondents' inconvenience. Some respondents cited more than one reason thus resulting in a total of more than 79%; 42.67% stated that they would have to travel or walk further to procure necessities, 23.33% stated that there are no shops within reasonable distance while 15.67% consider it safer for their children if they buy the goods from the hawker, rather than from stores far away which meant that their young children were not subjected to a higher degree of risk on busy roads, and provocation and attack from hooligans.

6.15 PATRONAGE OF PRIVATE HOME

According to Table 6.70, 15.67% of respondents do not know of private homes from which goods are sold. A

fairly large percentage, namely 16%, actually buy from these unlicensed premises, although all are not aware of the illegality of selling from private homes. However, the majority who are aware of private home sales (68.33%) do not buy from them.

With regard to the existence of cornershops and the patronage of a private home, only 9%, of the 16% who patronize a private home have a cornershop nearby (Table 6.71). The majority (43.33%) of those who have a cornershop nearby, do not purchase from a private home, while 25% have neither a cornershop nearby nor do they patronize a private home. The private home is patronized to a greater extent by those who have no convenience store/cornershop nearby, and in cases where the private home is closer than a retail outlet.

In the case of the existence of a shopping centre and the patronage of a private home, (Table 6.72). A small percentage, (10%) of respondents who have access to a shopping centre patronize a private home, while a smaller percentage (6%) who do not have access to a shopping centre actually purchase from a private home; 6.67% of respondents have neither access to a Shopping Centre, nor an awareness of a private home from which goods are sold. Those

who patronize a shopping centre as well as a private home do so, because the private home is closer and they consider it safer for their little children who normally purchase the items.

Table 6.73 indicates that only 0.33% of respondents do not have access to either a private home or a hawker. Of the 19.67% respondents who do not patronize the hawker, 2.33% do not have access to a private home and 3.67% do not patronize one. Even though the majority of those who patronize a hawker, are aware of private home sales, they nevertheless, do not patronize private homes.

The reasons for purchase or non-purchase from private homes appear in Table 6.74. Of those who do not buy from private homes, 53.67% do not consider it necessary, because they have access to other facilities, while 13.33% said that it is illegal, and that they are not willing to be involved in anything that is illegal. Of those who buy from private homes, 4.33% do so because it is nearer than other sources, 3.33% consider it safe for their children, 3.33% do so because they do not have access to cornershops while, 6% consider them to be easily accessible. The type of items purchased from a private home are indicated in Table 6.75.

The items sold, do not require special storage facilities and are prepacked. Most of the items bought are luxury goods, rather than convenience goods. However, some convenience goods such as bread and eggs are bought and this percentage is included in the "other items". It is surprising to see, that some respondents (1.67%) admitted purchasing liquor, from private homes, in view of the fact, that Indians are normally secretive about liquor purchases and consumption. Furthermore, it appears that private sellers of liquor are quite undeterred by the higher degree of risk involved in its sale.

Of those who buy certain goods from private homes, 13.33% purchase these items from other sources as well, while only 2.67% do not purchase them from other sources (Table 6.76).

The majority (9%) of those who purchase from private homes, do so as the need arises for the item, 4.67% purchase items daily, while only 2.33% do so weekly. (Table 6.77).

6.16

THE TOWN CENTRE¹

Despite the fact that 92.67% of respondents consider the

1. The Chatsworth Town Centre which would be encircled by units 3, 5 and 6 has been planned as the Business Core of Chatsworth with an estimated 43 500m² of shopping space. It is planned to consist of 15 blocks comprising shops; offices; service facilities and residences.²
Report 9/3/2/4 on 28/3/78

2. See map Appendix E.

existing shopping facilities to be inadequate, and desire an improvement of such facilities, (as can be seen from Table 6.78) only 41.67% of respondents were aware of plans to develop a Town Centre, while 58.33% were completely unaware of the Department of Community Development's plans to establish a Town Centre near the R.K. Khan Hospital in Unit 5. The intention of the Department of Community Development is to sell some plots to private developers, who could establish the kind of business they desire.

According to Table 6.79, 73.67% of respondents intend to support the Town Centre, 25.33% do not, while only 1% were unsure. Some of those who were initially unaware of plans to develop the Town Centre also indicated that they would support it when established. Table 6.80 indicates that of the 64% of respondents who have a shopping centre nearby, 47% stated that they would support the Town Centre, while of those who do not have a shopping centre nearby, 26.67% would support the Town Centre. Those who have a shopping centre and who indicated that they would support the Town Centre, consider their existing facilities to be inadequate and are hopeful that the Town Centre would cater for their basic needs, apart from their desires.

The reasons for their Intention to Support or Not to Support the Town Centre appear in Table 6.81. Of those who intend supporting the Town Centre, the majority (54.33%) would do so if prices of goods at the Centre were reasonable, 31.67% would patronize the centre if there were a variety of stores, 20.67 would patronize it, if the products sold were of good quality, while 21.67% indicated that it would be nearer home than existing sources. Of those who do not intend shopping at the Town Centre, 16.67 can not get easy access to the Centre while 4.67% prefer shopping elsewhere. Some respondents provided more than one reason for their intended behaviour, therefore the totals exceed the number intending to patronize the Town Centre. Included in "other reasons" are both reasons for Intention to Support and Not to Support. The majority (38%) of those who intend to support the Town Centre, would travel by bus, 26% would travel by car, while only 8% consider it near enough to walk to the Town Centre (Table 6.82).

According to the rank order, (in Table 6.83) the store that would receive the greatest patronage would be the supermarket, followed by the department store, the green-grocer or market and the grocer, while most of the other stores would also attract a clientele of 50% and more,

except the tearoom the bottlestore, and "other" stores. The most frequently mentioned facility under "other" stores was the bookmaker/tatterstals, and a hypermarket.

The percentage that indicated that they would support the bottlestore, may be understated because of respondents' reluctance to reveal their purchase and consumption behaviour regarding liquor. The reason for this is that most Islamic and Hindu religious philosophies condemn the consumption of liquor.

Considering that furniture and electrical appliances are comparison items and of high unit value, a high percentage of respondents (51.33% and 57.33% respectively) have indicated that they would shop here. They are evidently expecting more than one store stocking each category of items, thus enabling them to effect a choice.

The Town Centre must satisfy the needs and desires of the residents in order for it to be a success, otherwise, the increasing rate of car ownership will open up shopping opportunities elsewhere. Figure 6.6 reflects the distribution of respondents' intention to visit the various stores in the Town Centre.

CHAPTER 7

7.1 CONCLUSIONS

The study of retail activity in Chatsworth presents one with an insight into the constraints operating within the free enterprise system. These constraints are, *inter alia*, economic, political, social and cultural.

It is widely accepted that there is a relationship between population distribution and shopping facilities. In providing for the relevant population, factors such as, the access of people to the particular centre, the effective competition from other centres, and the character of the particular centre, must be considered.

The alternative choices, or the store mix, confronting the consumer in a neighbourhood becomes an important vehicle for assessing his/her ability to satisfy his/her shopping needs in the given area.

Davies (1972, p.68) contends that "different socio-economic groups make different kinds of demands on the retail supply structure, which then become reflected in the kinds of stores made available in different parts of the city." Erwee (1977, p.37) concurs that "social and economic

variations in an urban population can create differences in the number and kinds of business provisions to be found at any level."

Many suburban shopping centres have sprung up to cater for the needs of suburbanites in private residential areas, but in the case of Chatsworth which is essentially a Government sponsored housing development, private business initiative was stifled. Financial constraints experienced by the Indian merchants, and the implementation of the policy of segregation has had the effect of imposing certain limitations upon the development of retailing in the townships, and thus the structure of retailing within them. In terms of the provisions of the Group Areas Act, No. 41 of 1950, only Indian traders are permitted to operate within Chatsworth, precluding traders from other race groups, who may have easier access to financial resources, or who may possess greater retailing expertise or entrepreneurial ability, to trade in Chatsworth. Thus the consumers are precluded from deriving possible advantages in the form of lower prices due to economies of scale, wider variety, spacious stores and specialized management.

These provisions of the Group Areas Act are not in the interests of the consumers, although it provides an opportunity for the Indian traders to establish facilities without having to compete with their White counterparts.

It can be seen, however, that the Government's policy statement, "that all business areas should be within a residential area or contiguous to such an area in order to create a viable community where trading could take place"¹, is neither effective nor rational. Fortunately, consumers are not legally restricted to shop in certain designated areas, as traders are restricted to certain locations.

Further, planning policies and zoning regulations have inhibited the growth and development of substantial shopping centres in Chatsworth. Major supermarkets that generally serve as magnet stores in other centres are non-existent. Therefore the respondents by-pass smaller centres and travel to the Durban CBD, where they have access to a wider choice of goods and are able to effect savings.

1. Senator H.B. Klopper. Senate Debates (Hansard) No. 5, Thursday 24 April 1980, p. 1204.

Although it is difficult for planners, developers and retailers to constantly adapt to the dynamic changes affecting the retail system, it is nevertheless vital for retailers to be cognizant of factors such as the type of shop, its location with respect to suppliers and potential customers, the characteristics of potential customers, and an awareness of strategies adopted by competing retailers vis-a-vis profits and turnover.

Retailers, however, have to contend with zoning regulations, which are intended to promote development in terms of land use as well as intensity of land use. The present locations reflect planning goals as well as the operation of location economies. But as Vance (1958)¹ argues, such goals have reinforced the economic trends towards the integration of shopping facilities, and have sought to do away with the isolated shop.

However, in the case of Chatsworth, the Department of Community Development, which was responsible for the provision of most of the shopping centres, has evidently not carefully analysed the needs of the residents and provided for them. Rather, shopping centres were built without due consideration for location, design, aesthetic

1. quoted in Erwee (1977, p.8).

appeal, spacious layout, adequate parking, desirable size of premises and economic viability. Further, they lack cultural, educational and recreational facilities. In addition, the number of the various types of retailers (stores) are not planned to complement each other, for example, there are more than one general dealer in the shopping centre in Unit 5 and as many as 5 butcheries in the Unit 3 shopping centre.

In view of the far reaching implications of planner's actions, there is a need for competent planners who are not only preoccupied with those models and techniques which will assist them in arriving at recommendations on where proposed shopping areas should be located, what size they should be and what characteristics they should have, but should also concern themselves with, which type of consumer and how many consumers will choose a particular shopping area for the purchase of commodities.

Well designed centres with a carefully planned tenant mix, comprising at least one large supermarket or superstore, at least one department store, together with a variety of smaller shops providing one stop shopping, can substantially increase the patronage of

residents within Chatsworth, especially if the centre is easily accessible and, preferably, in an interceptory position relative to the CBD.

The Town Centre which has a potential floor area of 52 000m² (Kahn 1981, p.308) must also be well designed with a carefully-planned tenant mix offering comparison shopping. Its competitive strength, or pulling power, will be greater if the perceived travel time of residents is equal to or less than any other centre outside Chatsworth.

However, Marble and Bowlby (1968)¹, who related the importance of physical distance to the relative concentration of opportunity sets, proposed that if the latter are highly localized, minimization of physical distance should carry less weight in patronage motives than, for example, price, quality, and variety differentials.

Presently a considerable degree of additional travel effort is involved in convenience type shopping trips, and this can be borne out by the fact that the majority (67%) of the respondents by-pass nearer opportunity sets for convenience goods, such as groceries and toiletries,

1. quoted in Erwee (1977, p.228)

thus casting some doubt upon a major premise of Central Place Theory, which suggests that consumers will always patronize the nearest centre. Rather the shopping centres in Chatsworth are used mainly for "topping-up" purchases. The by-passing of opportunity sets in Chatsworth occurs mainly because there is a lack of higher order outlets and because the bus stop to the CBD is closer than the nearest opportunity set. Residents therefore travel further to the CBD, which offers comparison shopping at competitive prices. This suggests a "trade-off" between the additional travel effort and the perceived utility of the CBD.

Despite the fact that only a minority have the use of a private vehicle for shopping purposes, car ownership is nevertheless increasing, thus adequate parking will become vitally important as an attractive feature in the Centre. However, an increase in car ownership generally renders other shopping centres more accessible, because higher mobility increases the exposure to shopping alternatives. But Chatsworth shopping centres could prove to be an important interceptor of city traffic flow, since people do not prefer to travel further than they have to for convenience goods and some clothing if the prices, variety, and choice are suitable nearby.

With regard to consumer durables, such as furniture and home improvement, electrical appliances, as well as some types of clothing and footwear, people are often prepared to travel beyond the nearest centre in order to compare on the basis of price, quality, and style. This is so because durable goods are not bought frequently, and are often of high unit cost. The survey also reveals a very low propensity to shop within Chatsworth due especially to the absence of comparative shopping.

Thus the evaluation of shopping facilities in Chatsworth reveals, *inter alia*, the following:

- i a lack of planned integrated centres with a desirable and appropriate assortment of retail activities and services;
- ii it also reveals a high degree of dissatisfaction, with 92.67% indicating that the facilities are inadequate and that they desire an improvement in facilities;
- iii because of this inadequacy the termination of the hawker's services constitutes a major inconvenience to the consumers;

iv. In order to improve the facilities, respondents indicated the following five most important factors in order of importance:

- . variety of stores
- . larger stores and supermarkets
- . competitive prices
- . facilities closer to home and
- . well designed (built) shops;

Among the five most desired stores in the Town Centre are:

- . The Supermarket
- . The Department Store
- . The Greengrocer
- . The Grocer and
- . The Pharmacy

While the most desired stores in existing shopping centres are:

- . Department stores

- . Furniture Stores
- . Building Societies
- . Banks
- . Restaurants or Take -aways.

The majority of respondents (73.67 percent) are willing to patronize the Town Centre, although (58.33%) were unaware of plans to develop the Town Centre until the time of the interview.

It is submitted that shopping centre development should proceed in accordance with good planning principles, but in ensuring orderly growth and development, the provision of an adequate and appropriate level of service for the the consumers should be of primary concern.

The development of shopping centres should ideally be a joint effort of all interested parties in the retailing system, such as developers, retailers, and planning officials.

Both quantitative aspects, such as levels of expenditure on goods and services, household size, income levels, and patronage patterns as well as ^{qualitative} ~~quantitative~~ aspects, such

as aesthetic appeal, comfort, convenience, and safety must be considered as they vary among communities over time.

Despite the emerging trends in modern technology and non-store retailing, such as tele-shopping catalogue retailing, automated warehouses, and electronic funds transfer, the future of in-store retailing, nevertheless, has a prosperous future, especially among the lower socio-economic groups. For, apart from the financial constraints, which precludes them from acquiring the necessary technological facilities, they are generally reluctant to deviate from conventional purchasing habits, which include personally inspecting items before they are purchased.

Thus it would appear that the lower the socio-economic level of the population, the lower the rate of acceptance of newer forms of retailing with the aid of modern technology.

It is worth reiterating that patterns of future development should be chosen which allow a degree of flexibility in response to changing trends in shopping behaviour and related activities, as well as an awareness of socio-economic levels.

7.2

RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of this research project, and certain responses made in the course of conducting the interviews, have highlighted further areas of inquiry with respect to the provision of retail facilities and other aspects of shopping pertinent to the Indians. The shortcomings which were highlighted as a result of this survey, could be obviated if planners and developers take cognizance of them when planning shopping facilities for other housing estates, such as Phoenix, which is intended to eventually be larger than Chatsworth, and whose population has a socio-economic level, similar to that of Chatsworth.

If Chatsworth retailers intend to capture a significant proportion of the convenience good expenditure from the CBD, they should upgrade their store's offerings, offering competitive prices and delivery, especially since the majority are dependent on public transport for shopping purposes, and also because some of the Shopping Centres are not on the bus route. Recommendations are made for possible additional research on:

- i Attitudes held towards speciality stores, and intended patronage of these stores together with

the desirability of the different types of merchandise in Chatsworth, especially since Indians have a distinctly different consumption pattern with regard to some types of food and clothing, despite the process of acculturation, and the adoption of the Western way of life.

- ii Considering the great reliance on public transport, it would be interesting to gauge the residents' preference for, and intended patronage of, "inner-circle" buses with the Town Centre as terminus, for shopping within Chatsworth.
- iii Chatsworth retailers' offerings, their policies, and methods of operation in response to the changing consumer lifestyles.
- iv Retailers' attitudes to the design, tenant mix, size of premises, and the location of the existing shopping centres in Chatsworth; their preferences and prejudices with respect to the establishment of new shopping centres and the Town Centre.

Finally, for the consumer's benefit, and especially since we live in a predominantly capitalistic economy, the decisions as to where traders may operate should not be politically determined, but rather, determined by market forces.

SUMMARY

This analysis does not propose yet another shopping model but presents an empirically-based analysis of retail facilities in Chatsworth and the shopping patterns of its residents.

Since consumption patterns are constantly changing in response to changing circumstances and lifestyles, this is not a detailed study because of the inherent constraints in a study of this nature.

However, it exhibits the major consumption and behaviour patterns of a fairly homogeneous segment with a relatively low socio-economic level.

Apart from presenting an analysis of the retail facilities in Chatsworth, the specific objectives of this study were:

1. to ascertain whether or not the residents' mobility, or lack of it, affects their shopping patterns,
2. to determine whether or not residents would patronize the Town Centre which is to be

developed; and

3. to identify attribute variables of the shopping environment which the residents prefer in their shopping centres.

A perusal of the pertinent literature revealed that retail enterprises of today function in an increasingly dynamic and complex environment, which demands an increasing awareness and expertise on the part of retail management to respond and adjust timeously in order to be successful. The literature survey also revealed that the purchase of consumption goods and services is one of the major components of human spatial behaviour. Since consumer behaviour patterns and processes represent a major problem for environmental design both in terms of the location of shopping facilities and the provision of access to these facilities, knowledge of the underlying determinants of consumer spatial behaviour is a crucial element for the rational design of environments.

In attempting to pursue the objectives as set out above, a random sample of 300 housewives (or husbands) from Chatsworth were interviewed by trained interviewers with

the aid of a prestructured questionnaire.

The questionnaire was designed to elicit demographic data as well as information on shopping patterns and existing and desired shopping facilities.

The completed questionnaires were checked, coded and the data were analysed with the aid of a computer.

The results revealed that shopping facilities in Chatsworth were established without due consideration for, inter alia, design, aesthetic appeal, adequate parking, economic viability, and a carefully planned tenant mix.

Further, a considerable degree of additional travel effort is involved in convenience type shopping trips, with the majority of residents (67%) by-passing nearer opportunity sets for convenience goods. Rather, the shopping centres in Chatsworth are used mainly for "topping-up" purchases.

The study also revealed a high degree of dissatisfaction with 92.67% of the respondents in the survey indicating that the shopping facilities are inadequate, and that they desire an improvement in facilities.

Chatsworth retailers, should, despite the shortcomings inherent in the provision of facilities, upgrade the stores offering, offer competitive prices and delivery, especially since the majority of customers are dependent on public transport for shopping purposes.

The development of shopping centres should ideally be a joint effort of all interested parties in the retailing system, and the decisions as to where traders may operate should not be politically determined but rather, determined by market forces.

APPENDIX A

CONFIDENTIAL

UNIVERSITY OF DURBAN-WESTVILLE

DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS ECONOMICS

SURVEY ON SHOPPING FACILITIES IN CHATSWORTH

INTERVIEWER

RESPONDENT

RESPONDENT'S ADDRESS

SUBSTITUTE

TELEPHONE

TELEPHONE

UNIT

UNIT

REASON FOR SUBSTITUTING

REMARKS

QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is part of a study designed to find out whether the shopping facilities in Chatsworth are adequate for your shopping needs.

It is a social survey and all information you provide will be treated confidentially.

The knowledge gained as a result of the completion of this questionnaire may assist planners in assessing the situation. Your kind co-operation would be highly appreciated.

1. Total number of people in Household _____
2. How long have you lived in Chatsworth? _____ years.
3. Where do you work?

	unem- ploy- ed	Durban Central	Mobeni	Clairwood	Pinetown	Jacobs	Other Specify
self							
spouse							

4. How do you travel to work?

	N/A	private car	bus	train	lift	Other Specify
self						
spouse						

- 5.1 Does a member of your household own a car?
- 5.2 Is the car available for the household's shopping purposes?
6. Do you own a refrigerator?
7. Do you own a deepfreezer?

	Yes	No	Don't Know
N/A			

i) N/A _____
 ii) Husband _____
 iii) Wife _____
 iv) Children _____
 v) Other specify _____

i) N/A _____

ii) Corner shop/cafe/tearoom _____

iii) Shopping centre in Chatsworth:
Specify unit _____

iv) Town/Durban Central _____

v) Hypermarket _____

vi) Hawker/Delivery van _____

vii) Other specify _____

- i) N/A _____
- ii) Lower prices _____
- iii) Loyalty _____
- iv) Goods not available in shopping centre _____
- v) Shopping centre too far away from home _____
- vi) More convenient _____
- vii) Credit is available _____
- viii) Work nearby or pass through _____
- ix) Wider range to choose from _____
- x) Better quality _____
- xi) Other specify _____

[illegible]

15.1 Is there a cornershop/tearoom somewhere nearby?

Yes	No	Don't Know

Name: A _____
B _____
C _____

15.2 Is it part of a shopping centre?

	N/A	Yes	No	Don't Know
A				
B				
C				

15.3 Do you use cornershop/tearoom?

Reasons	A	B	C
not applicable			
convenient			
when goods required urgently			
don't have to travel further			
higher prices			
buy from other places/hawker			
no variety			
dirty shop			
other specify			

15.4 How far from home is cornershop/tearoom?

	N/A	car	walk	min	km	Don't know
A						
B						
C						

15.5 Do you think conersshop/tearoom is near enough to your home?

	N/A	Yes	No	Don't Know
A				
B				
C				

15.6 How often do you support conersshop/tearoom?

	N/A	Daily	Once a week	Once a fortnight	As required	Other specify
A						
B						
C						

15.7 Would you use a conersshop/tearoom if it is established somewhere nearby?

	N/A	Yes	No	Don't Know

Reasons	
not applicable	
near home	
convenient	
when goods required urgently	
don't have to travel further	
higher prices	
buy from other places/hawker	
other specify	

15.8 How far from home are you prepared to go to support a conersshop/ tearoom?

	N/A	car	walk	min	km

16.1 Is there a shopping centre somewhere nearby?

Yes	No	Don't Know

Name: A _____
B _____
C _____

16.2 Do you use the shopping centre?

A
B
C

N/A	Yes	No	Don't Know

Reasons	A	B	C
not applicable			
one stop shopping			
near home			
convenient			
variety of goods			
use market			
when goods needed urgently			
dirty shops			
poor service			
poor quality			
no parking			
hooliganism			
too far to walk with parcels			
other specify			

16.3 How far from home is shopping centre?

A
B
C

N/A	car	walk	min	km	Don't know

16.4 Do you think shopping centre is near enough to your home?

A
B
C

N/A	Yes	No	Don't Know

16.5 How often do you use shopping centre?

	N/A	Daily	Once a week	Once a fortnight	As required	Other specify
A						
B						
C						

16.6 Would you use a shopping centre if it is established somewhere nearby?

N/A	Yes	No	Don't Know

Reasons	
not applicable	
nearer home	
one stop shopping	
wide variety of shops	
convenient	
don't like carrying parcels home	
hooliganism	
higher prices	
other specify	

16.7 How far from home are you prepared to go to use a shopping centre?

N/A	car	walk	min	km	don't know

16.8 Are you prepared to travel by bus to use a shopping centre?

N/A	Yes	No	Don't Know

Reasons	
own car available	
inconvenient	
no need to	
bus service poor	
bus fares too high	
will walk	
cheaper	
no alternative	
other specify	

16.9 Do you think that the shopping facilities in Chatsworth should be improved?

Yes	No	Don't Know

There should be:

Reasons	
not applicable	
well built shops	
all types of shops	
well situated	
bigger shops and supermarkets	
improve parking	
security	
cleaner shops	
on bus route	
lower prices	
closer to home	
other specify	

17. Please write A, B and C next to x where applicable.

[illegible]

18.1 Do you buy from a Hawker/Delivery Van?

No Hawker N/A	Yes	No	Don't Know

Reasons

comes to door	
convenient	
lower prices	
higher prices	
when goods needed urgently	
other specify	

18.2 What do you buy from the Hawker/Delivery Van?

N/A	A Fruit and Vegetables	B Bread	C Milk	Other specify

279

18.3 How often do you buy from a Hawker/Delivery Van?

N/A	Daily	Once a week	Once a fortnight	As required	Other specify

18.4 Would it be inconvenient if this service stops?

N/A	Yes	No	Don't Know

Reasons

not applicable	
no shops nearby	
will have to travel out	
unsafe for children to go to cornershop	
stranded if goods needed urgently	
other specify	

19.1 Do you buy from a private home?

No private home sells	N/A	Yes	No	Don't know

Reasons

no need to _____
 illegal _____
 nearby _____
 safe for children _____
 easier to get there _____
 no tearoom nearby _____
 other specify _____

19.2 What do you buy from a private home?

N/A	A Sweets	B Cold drinks	C Cigarettes	D Alcohol	E Other specify

19.3 Do you also buy these goods from other places?

N/A	Yes	No	Don't know

19.4 How often do you buy from a private home?

N/A	Daily	Once a week	Once a fortnight	As required	Other specify

Yes	No	Don't Know

20.1 Are you aware of plans to develop a Town Centre in Chatsworth? (near the R K Khan Hospital, grant office, clinic and tatterstalls)

Yes	No	Don't Know

20.2 Do you think you would support stores in the Town Centre when they are established?

Reasons

not applicable	
nearer home	
if prices are reasonable	
variety of stores	
if good quality	
if Indian owned	
prefer Town/Hypermarket	
cannot get there easily	
other specify	

N/A	bus	car	walk	lift	other specify	don't know

20.3 How would you travel to the Town centre?

20.4 Which stores would you support in Town centre?

N/A

	Yes	No	Don't Know
tearoom			
grocery store			
greengrocer/market			
general dealer			
butchery			
clothing store			
furniture store			
electrical appliance			
bottlestore			
pharmacy			
building society			
bank			
laundry			
restaurant			
dentist			
doctor			
hairdressing salon			
departmental store			
supermarket			
other specify			

21. Into which group does your total monthly income fall?
(i.e. the total income of all members of your household)

less than 300	
300 - 399	
400 - 499	
500 - 599	
600 - 699	
700 - 799	
800 - 899	
900 - 1 000	
more than 1 000	
don't know	
unwilling to give information	

APPENDIX B

Table 6.1

Distribution of Respondents

Respondents	Distribution	
	N	%
Husband	94	31.33
Wife	150	50.00
Husband and Wife	12	4.00
Wife and Another	40	13.33
Husband and Another	4	1.33
Total	300	100.00

Table 6.2

Number of Desired Respondents Substituted

Respondents	Distribution	
	N	%
Original	262	87.33
Substituted	38	12.67
Total	300	100.00

N = Number

Y = Yes

Table 6.3

Reasons for Substitution

Reasons	Distribution	
	N	%
Refusal	10	3.33
Not at Home	26	8.67
Other	2	0.67
Total	38	12.67

Table 6.4

Number of Dwelling Units and Number of
Respondents from different Units

Units	Number of Dwellings	% of Dwellings	Respondents	
			N	%
1 & 4	2196	10.25	28	9.33
2	2740	12.79	43	14.33
3	3066	14.32	40	13.33
5	2098	9.79	139	13
6	1144	5.34	14	4.67
7 & 8	5677	26.49	56	18.67
9	1332	6.21	33	11
10	1355	6.32	21	7
11	1820	8.49	26	8.67
Total	21428	100	300	100

Table 6.5
Length of Residence in Chatsworth

Length of Residence Years	Respondents	
	N	%
0 - 3	14	4.67
4 - 7	15	5
8 - 11	66	22
12 - 15	96	32
16 - 19	91	30.33
x \geq 20	18	6
Total	300	100.00

Table 6.7
Total Monthly Household Income

Income	N	%	Cummu- lative %
1. Less than 300 per month	72	24	24
2. 300 - 399	54	18	42
3. 400 - 499	36	12	54
4. 500 - 599	22	7.33	61.33
5. 600 - 699	19	6.33	67.67
6. 700 - 799	10	3.33	71
7. 800 - 899	15	5	76
8. 900 - 1 000	7	2.33	78.33
9. More than 1 000	19	6.33	84.67
10. Don't Know	25	8.33	93
11. Unwilling to give information	21	7	100
Total	300	100	

Table 6.6

Size of Household

Size	Respondents	
	N	%
1	1	0.33
2	4	1.33
3	18	6
4	38	12.67
5	66	22
6	66	22
7	42	14
8	23	7.67
9	19	6.33
10	9	3
11	7	2.33
12	5	1.67
13	1	0.33
14	1	0.33
Total	300	100

Table 6.8

Size of Household and Total Monthly Household Income

Household Income		Size of Household														
Per month	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	N	%
Less than 300	1	3	8	13	10	10	8	6	10	2	1	0	0	0	72	24
300 - 399	0	0	4	4	15	11	11	5	3	1	0	0	0	0	54	18
400 - 499	0	0	1	3	5	14	6	0	2	1	2	2	0	0	36	12
500 - 599	0	0	0	3	7	2	2	4	1	2	0	0	0	1	22	7.33
600 - 699	0	0	1	2	4	7	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	19	6.33
700 - 799	0	0	0	1	1	5	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	10	3.33
800 - 899	0	0	1	2	2	5	2	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	15	5
900 - 1 000	0	0	1	2	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	7	2.33
More than 1 000	0	0	0	3	5	2	5	2	0	0	1	1	0	0	19	6.33
Don't Know	0	1	1	2	10	4	3	0	0	1	2	1	0	0	25	8.33
Unwilling to give Information	0	0	1	3	6	6	1	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	21	7
Total N	1	4	18	38	66	66	42	23	19	9	7	5	1	1	300	100
%	0.33	1.33	6	12.67	33	33	14	7.67	6.33	3	2.33	1.67	0.33	0.33	100	

Table 6.9

Employment Status of Respondents and/or Spouses

Status	Respondents		Spouses	
	N	%	N	%
1. Unemployed / Retired	176	58.67	100	33.33
2. Employed	124	41.33	150	50.00
3. Deceased	0	0	48	16
4. No Spouse / Divorced	0	0	2	0.67
Total	300	100	300	100

Table 6.10

Place of Work of Respondents and/or Spouses

Place	Respondents		Spouses	
	N	%	N	%
1. Durban Central	48	16	62	20.67
2. Mobeni	17	5.67	9	3
3. Clairwood	9	3	9	3
4. Pinetown	13	4.33	14	4.67
5. Jacobs	8	2.67	16	5.33
6. Other	29	9.67	40	13.33
Total	124	41.33	150	50

Table 6.11

Mode of Travel to Work of Respondents and/or Spouses

Mode of Travel	Respondents		Spouses	
	N	%	N	%
1. Private Car	22	7.33	38	12.67
2. Bus	59	19.67	65	21.67
3. Train	22	7.33	28	9.33
4. Lift	17	5.67	12	4
5. Other	4	1.33	7	2.33
Total	124	41.33	150	50

Table 6.12

Ownership of Car by a Member of the Household

Ownership	N	%
Yes	128	42.67
No	172	57.33
Total	300	100

Table 6.13

Ownership of Car and Total Monthly Household Income

Household Income per Month (Rand)	Ownership of Car					
	V	%	N	%	T	%
1. Less than 300	10	3.33	62	20.67	72	24
2. 300 - 399	17	5.67	37	12.33	54	18
3. 400 - 499	16	5.33	20	6.67	36	12
4. 500 - 599	12	4	10	3.33	22	7.33
5. 600 - 699	14	4.67	5	1.67	19	6.33
6. 700 - 799	10	3.33	0	0	10	3.33
7. 800 - 899	7	2.33	8	2.67	15	5
8. 900 - 1 000	6	2	1	0.33	7	2.33
9. More than 1 000	14	4.67	5	1.67	19	6.33
10. Don't Know	14	4.67	11	3.67	25	8.33
11. Unwilling to give information	8	2.67	13	4.33	21	7
Total	128	42.67	172	57.33	300	100

Table 6.14

Availability of Car for Shopping Purposes

Availability	Respondents	
	N	%
Yes	117	39
No	17	5.67
Total	134	44.67

Table 6.15

Ownership of Refrigerator and Deepfreezer

Ownership	Refrigerator		Deepfreezer	
	N	%	N	%
Yes	290	96.67	64	21.33
No	10	3.33	236	78.67
Total	300	100	300	100

Table 6.16

Ownership of Refrigerator and Frequency of Purchase of Milk

Frequency of Purchase of Milk	Ownership of Refrigerator					
	Y	%	N	%	T	%
Do not buy Milk	0	0	1	0.33	1	0.33
1. Everyday	267	89	8	2.67	275	91.67
2. Once a Week	7	2.33	1	0.33	8	2.67
3. As required during week	12	4	0	0	12	4
4. Once a fortnight	1	0.33	0	0	1	0.33
5. Once in 3 weeks	0	0	0	0	0	0
6. Once a month	1	0.33	0	0	1	0.33
7. Other	2	0.67	0	0	2	0.67
Total	290	96.67	10	3.33	300	100

Table 6.17

Ownership of Refrigerator and Frequency of Purchase of
Fruit and Vegetables

Frequency of Purchase of Fresh Produce	Ownership of Refrigerator					
	Y	%	N	%	T	%
1. Everyday	6	2	0	0	6	2
2. Once a week	237	79	6	2	243	81
3. As required during week	21	7	1	0.33	22	7.33
4. Once a fortnight	18	6	1	0.33	19	6.33
5. Once in 3 weeks	1	0.33	0	0	1	0.33
6. Once a month	5	1.67	0	0	5	1.67
7. Other	2	0.67	2	0.67	4	1.33
Total	290	96.67	10	3.33	300	100

Table 6.18

Ownership of Refrigerator and Frequency of Purchase of Meat

Frequency of Purchase of Meat	Ownership of Refrigerator					
	Y	%	N	%	T	%
1. Do not buy meat	1	0.33	1	0.33	2	0.67
1. Daily	2	0.67	0	0	2	0.67
2. Once a week	199	66.33	7	2.33	206	68.67
3. As required during week	14	4.67	0	0	14	4.67
4. Once a fortnight	22	7.33	1	0.33	23	7.67
5. Once in 3 weeks	2	0.67	0	0	2	0.67
6. Once a month	49	16.33	0	0	49	16.33
7. Other	1	0.33	1	0.33	2	0.67
Total	290	96.67	10	3.33	300	100

Table 6.19

Ownership of Deepfreezer and Frequency of Purchase of Meat

Frequency of Purchase of Meat	Ownership of Deenfreezer					
	Y	%	N	%	T	%
Do not buy meat	0	0	2	0.67	2	0.67
1. Daily	0	0	2	0.67	2	0.67
2. Once a week	38	12.67	168	56	206	68.67
3. As required during week	2	0.67	12	4	14	4.67
4. Once a fortnight	4	1.33	19	6.33	23	7.67
5. Once in 3 weeks	0	0	2	0.67	2	0.67
6. Once a month	19	6.33	30	10	49	16.33
7. Other	1	0.33	1	0.33	2	0.67
Total	64	21.33	236	78.67	300	100

Table 6.20

Respondents' Purchase of the Various Items

Respondents Purchasing the Various Items	Bread		Milk		Groceries & Toiletries		Meat		Fresh Produce		Clothing & Footwear		Furniture and Elec- trical Appliances		Hardware & Home Improve- ment	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	294	98	291	97	290	96.67	289	96.33	289	96.33	291	97	290	96.67	284	94.67
No	6	2	9	3	10	3.33	11	3.67	11	3.67	9	3	10	3.33	16	5.33

Table 6.21

Purchase of the Various Items by Different Members of the Household

Purchase of the Various Items and different Members of Household	Bread		Milk		Groceries & Toiletries		Meat		Fresh Produce		Clothing & Footwear		Furniture & Electrical Appliances		Hardware & Home Improvement	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. Husband	36	12	31	0.33	104	34.67	104	34.67	77	25.67	171	57	196	65.33	188	62.67
2. Wife	149	49.67	155	51.67	206	68.67	196	65.33	226	75.33	227	75.67	151	50.33	116	38.67
3. Children	122	40.67	116	38.67	30	10	29	9.67	23	7.67	92	30.67	37	12.33	40	13.33
4. Other	11	3.67	18	6	18	6	17	5.67	17	5.67	14	4.67	13	4.33	11	3.67
Total																

Table 6.22

Place of Purchase of the Various Items

Place	Bread		Milk		Groceries		Meat		Fresh Produce		Clothing & Footwear		Furniture & Electrical Appliances		Hardware & Home Improvement	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. Cornershop/Tearoom	63	21	42	14	13	4.33	4	1.33	2	0.67	0	0	0	0	0	0
2. Shopping Centre in Chatsworth	47	15.67	38	12.67	93	31	118	39.33	70	23.33	11	3.67	9	3	27	9
3. Durban Central	3	1	3	1	97	32.33	108	36	177	59	272	90.67	274	91.33	247	82.33
4. Hypermarket	0	0	2	0.67	54	18	10	3.33	4	1.33	3	1	4	1.33	3	1
5. Hawker	183	61	209	69.67	11	3.67	6	2	29	9.67	1	0.33	0	0	0	0
6. Other	18	6	11	3.67	50	16.67	59	19.67	31	10.33	18	6	16	5.33	18	6

Table 6.23
Reasons for Purchase of Various Items in the Places Mentioned

	Bread		Milk		Groceries		Meat		Fresh Produce		Clothing & Footwear		Furniture & Electrical Appliances		Hardware & Home Improvement	
	Y	%	Y	%	Y	%	Y	%	Y	%	Y	%	Y	%	Y	%
1. Lower Prices	4	1.33	9	3	136	45.33	91	30.33	117	39	139	46.33	113	37.67	142	47.33
2. Loyalty	2	0.67	0	0	9	3	23	7.67	2	0.67	3	1	51	17	2	0.67
3. Goods not available in Shopping Centre	2	0.67	2	0.67	1	0.33	1	0.33	2	0.67	14	4.67	19	6.33	14	4.67
4. Shopping Centre too far away from home	20	6.67	21	7	7	2.33	4	1.33	6	2	2	0.67	3	1	2	0.67
5. More Convenient	274	91.33	280	93.33	120	40	109	36.33	103	34.33	46	15.33	44	14.67	51	17
6. Credit is available	3	1	3	1	5	1.67	5	1.67	1	0.33	8	2.67	17	5.67	8	2.67
7. Work Nearby Pass through	10	3.33	2	0.67	13	4.33	18	6	17	5.67	8	2.67	6	2	6	2
8. Wider Range to choose from	0	0	0	0	69	23	10	3.33	93	31	165	55	132	44	105	35
9. Better Quality	3	1	1	0.33	20	6.67	89	29.67	49	16.33	37	12.33	23	7.67	5	1.67
10. Other Reasons	16	5.33	7	2.33	26	8.67	13	4.33	11	3.67	8	2.67	9	3	6	2

Table 6.25

Mode of Travel for the Purchase of Various Items

	Bread		Milk		Groceries		Meat		Fresh Produce		Clothing & Footwear		Furniture & Electrical Appliances		Hardware & Home Improvement	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. Walk	284	94.67	289	96.33	96	32	88	29.33	55	18.33	7	2.33	4	1.33	12	4
2. Private Car	11	3.67	7	2.33	89	29.67	81	27	70	23.33	79	26.33	92	30.67	92	30.67
3. Bus	1	0.33	2	0.67	88	29.33	103	34.33	147	49	199	66.33	187	62.33	171	57
4. Lift	2	0.67	0	0	17	5.67	12	4	10	3.33	4	1.33	4	1.33	6	2
5. Train	2	0.67	2	0.67	12	4	12	4	16	5.33	19	6.33	20	6.67	17	5.67
6. Other	3	1	1	0.33	10	3.33	10	3.33	9	3	4	1.33	5	1.67	7	2.33

Table 6.26

Manner of Shopping for Various Items

	Bread		Milk		Groceries		Meat		Fresh Produce		Clothing & Footwear		Furniture & Electrical Appliances		Hardware & Home Improvement	
	Yes		Yes		Yes		Yes		Yes		Yes		Yes		Yes	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
0. Not Applicable	0	0	1	0.33	0	0	2	0.67	0	0	0	0	2	0.67	9	3
1. Directly from Home	285	95	295	98.33	264	88	249	83	259	86.33	270	90	266	88.67	262	87.33
2. To or from Work	15	5	4	1.33	35	11.67	45	15	40	13.33	30	10	32	10.67	29	9.67
3. Other	0	0	0	0	1	0.33	4	1.33	1	0.33	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table 6.27

Amount (Per Month) Spent on the Various Items

Amount Spent	Bread		Milk		Groceries		Meat		Fresh Produce		Clothing		Furniture		Hardware & Home Improvement	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Not Applicable	0	0	1	0.33	1	0.33	1	0.33	1	0.33	0	0	2	0.67	13	4.33
1. R20 or less	246	82	233	77.67	1	0.33	39	13	104	34.67	25	8.33	20	6.67	30	10
2. R21 - R40	47	15.67	55	18.33	27	9	87	29	124	41.33	20	6.67	31	10.33	1	0.33
3. R41 - R60	1	0.33	3	1	68	22.67	85	28.33	41	13.67	11	3.67	27	9	0	0
4. R61 - R80	0	0	2	0.67	61	20.33	36	12	7	2.33	1	0.33	13	4.33	0	0
5. R81 - R100	0	0	0	0	62	20.67	16	5.33	0	0	4	1.33	12	4	1	0.33
6. More than 100	0	0	0	0	66	22	19	6.33	0	0	2	0.67	10	3.33	5	1.67
7. Don't Know	0	0	6	2	14	4.67	17	5.67	22	7.33	237	79	185	61.67	250	83.33
8. Other	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.33	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table 6.28
Existence of Cornershop Nearby

Existence of Cornershop	Number of Respondents	
	N	%
Yes	181	60.33
No	119	39.67
Total	300	100

Table 6.29
Existence of Cornershon/Convenience Stores
in the Various Units

The Various Units	Existence of Cornershon			
	Y	%	No.	%
1 & 4	27	9	1	0.33
2	27	9	16	5.33
3	9	3	31	10.33
5	35	11.67	4	1.33
6	14	4.67	0	0
7 & 8	27	9	29	9.67
9	9	3	24	8
10	15	5	6	2
11	18	6	8	2.67
Total	181	60.33	119	39.67

Table 6.30

Number of Cornershops Nearby

	Number of Cornershops							
	0		1		2		3	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Number of Respondents	119	39.67	151	50.33	22	7.33	8	2.67

Table 6.31

Number of Cornershops in the Various Units

The Various Units	Number of Cornershops							
	0		1		2		3	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1 & 4	1	0.33	10	3.33	17	5.67	0	0
2	16	5.33	25	8.33	2	0.67	0	0
3	31	10.33	0	0	1	0.33	8	2.67
5	4	1.33	35	11.67	0	0	0	0
6	0	0	12	4	2	0.67	0	0
7 & 8	29	9.67	27	9	0	0	0	0
9	24	8	9	3	0	0	0	0
10	6	2	15	5	0	0	0	0
11	8	2.67	18	6	0	0	0	0
Total	119	39.67	151	50.33	22	7.33	8	2.67

Table 6.32

Cornershops as part of a Shopping Centre

Cornershop as Part of Shopping Centre	Number of Respondents					
	Y E S		N O		T O T A L	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Cornershop 1	70	23.33	111	37	181	60.33
Cornershop 2	27	9	3	1	30	10
Cornershop 3	8	2.67	0	0	8	2.67

Table 6.33

Length of Residence and Existence of Cornershop

Length of Residence	Existence of Cornershop					
Years	Y	%	N	%	T	%
$x \leq 3$	7	2.33	7	2.33	14	4.67
$4 \leq x \leq 7$	8	2.67	7	2.33	15	5
$8 \leq x \leq 11$	47	15.67	19	6.33	66	22
$12 \leq x \leq 15$	56	18.67	40	13.33	96	32
$16 \leq x \leq 19$	50	16.67	41	13.67	91	30.33
$x \geq 20$	13	4.33	5	1.67	18	6
Total	181	60.33	119	39.67	300	100

Table 6.34

Patronage of Cornershops

Patronage	Respondents			
	Y	%	N	%
Cornershop 1	163	54.33	18	6
Cornershop 2	29	9.67	1	0.33
Cornershop 3	8	2.67	0	0
Total	200	66.67	19	6.33

Table 6.35

Reasons for Use or Non Use of Cornershop

Reasons	Corner-shop 1		Corner-shop 2		Corner-shop 3	
	Y	%	Y	%	Y	%
Convenient	104	34.67	17	5.67	7	2.33
When goods required urgently	74	24.67	11	3.67	1	0.33
Don't have to travel further	20	6.67	2	0.67	2	0.67
Higher prices	10	3.33	0	0	0	0
Buy from other places/Hawker	8	2.67	1	0.33	0	0
No variety	5	1.67	0	0	0	0
Dirty shop	3	1	0	0	0	0
Other	10	3.33	3	1	0	0

Table 6.36

Perceived Distance from Home to Cornershop

Time Minutes	Cornershop 1				Cornershop 2				Cornershop 3			
	Car		Walk		Car		Walk		Car		Walk	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. 0 - 5	9	3	81	27	3	1	12	4	0	0	8	2.67
2. 6 - 10	2	0.67	56	18.67	1	0.33	10	3.33	0	0	3	1
3. 11 - 15	1	0.33	25	8.33	0	0	4	1.33	0	0	0	0
4. > 15	0	0	7	2.33	0	0	1	0.33	0	0	0	0
5. don't know	0	0	1	0.33	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table 6.37

Opinions of Respondents as to whether the Cornershop is near enough

Is the Corner- shop near Enough?	Number of Respondents					
	Yes		No		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Cornershop 1	159	5.3	19	6.33	178	59.33
Cornershop 2	27	9	3	1	30	10
Cornershop 3	10	3.33	2	0.67	12	4

Table 6.38

Frequency of Support of Cornershop by Respondents

Frequency	Cornershop 1		Cornershop 2		Cornershop 3	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. Daily	81	27	15	5	8	2.67
2. Once a week	10	3.33	2	0.67	2	0.67
3. Once a fortnight	0	0	0	0	0	0
4. As required	67	22.33	9	3	0	0
5. Other	6	2	3	1	0	0

Table 6.39

Intended Patronage of Cornershop if established nearby
(by Respondents who do not have a cornershop nearby)

Patronage	Respondents	
	N	%
1. Would use it	114	38
2. Would not use it	5	1.67
Total	119	39.67

Table 6.40

Reasons for Intended Patronage or
Non Patronage of Cornershop if established

Reasons	Respondents	
	N	%
1. Nearer home	91	30.33
2. Convenient	86	28.67
3. When goods required urgently	35	11.67
4. Don't have to travel further	21	7
5. High prices	1	0.33
6. Buy from other places	5	1.67
7. Other	3	1

Table 6.41

Distance Respondents are Prepared to Travel
to support a new cornershop

Time to Travel	Car		Walk	
	N	%	N	%
1. 0 - 5 min	3	1	67	22.33
2. 6 - 10 min	3	1	38	12.67
3. 11 - 15 min	0	0	3	1
4. > 15 min	0	0	0	0
5. don't know	0	0	0	0
Total	6	2	108	36.00

Table 6.42

Existence and Patronage of Shopping Centre

Existence and Patronage	Respondents					
	Y	%	N	%	T	%
Existence	192	64	108	36	300	100
Use	170	56.67	22	7.33	192	64

Table 6.43

Existence of Shopping Centres in the Various Units

The Various Units	Existence of Shopping Centres					
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1 & 4	28	9.33	0	0	28	9.33
2	42	14	1	0.33	43	14.33
3	39	13	1	0.33	40	13.33
5	28	9.33	11	3.67	39	13
6	3	1	11	3.67	14	4.67
7 & 8	2	0.67	54	18	56	18.67
9	28	9.33	5	1.67	33	11
10	11	3.67	10	3.33	21	7
11	11	3.67	15	5	26	8.67
Total	192	64	108	36	300	100

Table 6.44

Length of Residence in Chatsworth and
Existence of Shopping Centre

Length of Residence	Existence of Shopping Centre					
	Y	%	N	%	Total	%
$x \leq 3$ years	10	3.33	4	1.33	14	4.67
$4 \leq x \leq 7$ years	7	2.33	8	2.67	15	5
$8 \leq x \leq 11$ years	37	12.33	29	9.67	66	22
$12 \leq x \leq 15$ years	47	15.67	49	16.33	96	32
$16 \leq x \leq 19$ years	75	25	16	5.33	91	30.33
$x \geq 20$ years	16	5.33	2	0.67	18	6
Total	192	64	108	36	300	100

Table 6.45

Existence of Shopping Centre and Cornershop

Existence of Shopping Centre	Existence of Cornershop					
	Y	%	N	%	T	%
Yes	120	40	72	24	192	64
No	61	20.33	47	15.67	108	36
Total	181	60.33	119	39.67	300	100

Table 6.46
Reasons for Use or Non Use of Shopping Centre

Reasons	Respondents	
	YES	
	N	%
One stop shopping	21	7
Near home	85	28.33
Convenient	91	30.33
Variety of goods	25	8.33
Use market	6	2.00
When goods needed urgently	49	16.33
Dirty shops	3	1.00
Poor service	9	3
Poor quality of goods	4	1.33
No parking	2	0.67
Hooliganism	8	2.67
Too far to walk with parcels	6	2.00
Other	16	5.33

Table 6.47

Frequency of Patronage of Shopping Centre

Frequency	Respondents	
	N	%
1. Daily	64	21.33
2. Once a week	34	11.33
3. Once a fortnight	4	1.33
4. As required	65	21.67
5. Other	3	1.00
Total	170	56.67

Table 6.49

Perceived Distance from Home (of Shopping Centre)

Time	Car		Walk	
	N	%	N	%
1. 0 - 5 min	16	5.33	43	14.33
2. 6 - 10 min	1	0.33	46	15.33
3. 11 - 15 min	0	0	39	13
4. > 15 min	1	0.33	45	15
5. don't know	0	0	1	0.33
	18	6	174	58

Table 6.48

Respondent's Knowledge of Existence of the Various Stores and Services in Shopping Centres in Chatsworth, their patronage of these stores as well as their desire for stores not available in the existing Shopping Centres.

Shops	Existence						
	Y	%	N	%	D.K. *	%	R.O.
1. Tearoom	189	63	2	0.67	0	0	1
2. Grocery Store	185	61.67	4	1.33	0	0	2
3. Greengrocer/Market	173	57.67	14	4.67	2	0.67	7
4. General Dealer	182	60.67	6	2	1	0.33	8
5. Butchery	187	62.33	2	0.67	0	0	3
6. Clothing Store/Drapery	118	39.33	69	23	2	0.67	19
7. Furniture Store	48	16.00	138	46	4	1.33	20
8. Electrical Appliance Store	120	40	62	20.67	8	2.67	13
9. Bottlestore	84	28	105	35	1	0.33	16
10. Pharmacy	150	50	39	13	1	0.33	4
11. Building Society	103	34.33	85	28.33	2	0.67	15
12. Bank	103	34.33	86	28.67	1	0.33	17
13. Laundry	176	58.67	14	4.67	0	0	11
14. Restaurant/Take Away	106	35.33	82	27.33	2	0.67	12
15. Dentist	167	55.67	22	7.33	1	0.33	6
16. Surgery	174	58	16	5.33	0	0	5
17. Hairdressing Salon	186	62	4	1.33	0	0	10
18. Departmental Store	45	15	138	46	7	2.33	13
19. Supermarket	143	47.67	47	15.67	0	0	9
20. Other	30	10	2	0.67	0	0	18

D.K.* is Don't Know

Table 6.48

Respondent's Knowledge of Existence of the Various Stores

Continued

Shops	Patronage				
	Y	%	N	%	R.O.
1. Tearoom	148	49.33	41	13.67	1
2. Grocery Store	125	41.67	61	20.33	2
3. Greengrocer/Market	97	32.33	76	25.33	7
4. General Dealer	96	32	87	29	8
5. Butchery	112	37.33	75	25	3
6. Clothing Store/Drapery	12	4	107	35.67	19
7. Furniture Store	7	2.33	43	14.33	20
8. Electrical Appliance Store	27	9	92	30.67	13
9. Bottlestore	24	8	60	20	16
10. Pharmacy	107	35.67	43	14.33	4
11. Building Society	26	8.67	77	25.67	15
12. Bank	21	7	81	27	17
13. Laundry	80	26.67	96	32	11
14. Restaurant/Take Away	28	9.33	80	26.67	12
15. Dentist	99	33	68	22.67	6
16. Surgery	103	34.33	70	23.33	5
17. Hairdressing Salon	89	29.67	95	31.67	10
18. Departmental Store	27	9	23	7.67	13
19. Supermarket	94	31.33	46	15.33	9
20. Other	17	5.67	16	5.33	18

Table 6.48

Respondent's Knowledge of Existence of the Various Stores and Services...

Continued

Shops	Desire						
	Y	%	N	%	D.K.	%	R.O.
1. Tearoom	2	0.67	0	0	0	0	20
2. Grocery Store	3	1	0	0	0	0	19
3. Greengrocer/Market	13	4.33	0	0	0	0	13
4. General Dealer	4	1.33	1	0.33	0	0	16
5. Butchery	4	1.33	0	0	0	0	16
6. Clothing Store/Drapery	59	19.67	9	3.00	3	1	7
7. Furniture Store	102	34	25	8.33	8	2.67	2
8. Electrical Appliance Store	60	20	7	2.33	2	0.67	6
9. Bottlestore	39	13	60	20	3	1	9
10. Pharmacy	39	13	7	2.33	0	0	9
11. Building Society	77	25.67	7	2.33	6	2	3
12. Bank	73	24.33	7	2.33	5	1.67	4
13. Laundry	11	3.67	5	1.67	1	0.33	14
14. Restaurant/Take Away	62	20.67	18	6	2	0.67	5
15. Dentist	21	7	3	1	2	0.67	11
16. Surgery	14	4.67	3	1	0	0	12
17. Hairdressing Salon	9	3	3	1	0	0	15
18. Departmental Store	114	38	12	4	8	2.67	1
19. Supermarket	43	14.33	4	1.33	0	0	8
20. Other	4	1.33	3	1	0	0	18

Table 6.50
Opinion as to whether Shopping Centre is
Near Enough for Respondents

Is the Shopping Centre Near Enough?	Respondents	
	N	%
Yes	132	44
No	59	19.67
Don't Know	1	0.33
Total	192	64

Table 6.51

Intended Patronage of Shopping Centre
if Established

Patronage	Respondents	
	N	%
1. Would use it	101	33.67
2. Would not use it	4	1.33
3. Don't Know	3	1
Total	108	36

Table 6.52

Reasons for Intended Use or Non-Use
of Shopping Centre if Established

Reasons	Respondents	
	N	%
1. Nearer home	82	27.33
2. One stop shopping	39	13
3. Wide variety of shops	38	12.67
4. Convenient	65	21.67
5. Don't like carrying parcels home	2	0.67
6. Fear of hooliganism	0	0
7. Possible higher prices	1	0.33
8. Other	3	1

Table 6.53

Distance Respondents are prepared to Travel
to support a Shopping Centre if established

Time to Travel	Car		Walk	
	N	%	N	%
1. 0 - 5 min	7	2.33	29	9.67
2. 6 -10 min	9	3	74	24.67
3. 11 -15 min	1	0.33	16	5.33
4. > 15 min	0	0	0	0
5. Don't know	4	1.33	3	1
Total	21	7	122	40.67

Table 6.54

Respondent's Preference for Shops in new
Shopping Centres if Established

Shops	Preference						
	Y	%	N	%	D.K.	%	R.O.
1. Tearoom	100	33.33	6	2	3	1	10
2. Grocery Store	103	34.33	5	1.67	1	0.33	5
3. Greengrocer/Market	101	33.67	6	2	2	0.67	8
4. General Dealer	102	34	5	1.67	2	0.67	7
5. Butchery	103	34.33	5	1.67	1	0.33	5
6. Clothing Store	91	30.33	16	5.33	2	0.67	14
7. Furniture Shop	78	26	29	9.67	2	0.67	18
8. Electrical Appliance Store	95	31.67	12	4	2	0.67	13
9. Bottlestore	58	19.33	50	16.67	1	0.33	19
10. Pharmacy	104	34.67	3	1	2	0.67	4
11. Building Society	80	26.67	20	6.67	9	3	17
12. Bank	83	27.67	19	6.33	7	2.33	16
13. Laundry	96	32	12	4	1	0.33	11
14. Restaurant	84	28	21	7	4	1.33	15
15. Dentist	108	36	0	0	1	0.33	1
16. Surgery	106	35.33	2	0.67	1	0.33	3
17. Hairdressing Salon	96	32	12	4	1	0.33	11
18. Departmental Store	101	33.67	7	2.33	1	0.33	8
19. Supermarket	107	35.67	1	0.33	1	0.33	2
20. Other	27	9	0	0	0	0	20

D.K. - Don't Know

R.O. - Rank Order

Table 6.55

Willingness to Travel by Bus to Support
a Shopping Centre

Willingness	Respondents	
	N	%
1. Yes	55	18.33
2. No	241	80.33
3. Don't Know	4	1.33
Total	300	100

Table 6.56

Reasons for Willingness/Unwillingness to
Travel by Bus

Reasons	Respondents	
	N	%
1. Own car available	39	13
2. Inconvenient	91	30.33
3. No need to	56	18.67
4. Bus service poor	33	11
5. Bus fares are too high	51	17
6. Will walk	56	18.67
7. Cheaper	9	3
8. No alternative	36	12
9. Other	14	4.67

Table 6.57

Opinions as to whether Shopping Facilities
in Chatsworth should be improved

Opinion	Respondents	
	N	%
1. They should be improved	278	92.67
2. Satisfied with present facilities	18	6
3. Don't Know	4	1.33
Total	300	100

Table 6.58

Manner in which Facilities should be Improved

Manner	Respondents		
	N	%	R.O.
1. Well built shops	87	29	5
2. All types of shops	166	55.33	1
3. Well situated	85	28.33	6
4. Bigger shops and supermarkets	154	51.33	2
5. Improved parking	32	10.67	9
6. Security	64	21.33	7
7. Cleaner shops	48	16	8
8. Facilities on bus route	27	9	10
9. Lower prices of goods	98	32.67	3
10. Facilities closer to home	98	32.67	3
11. Other	19	6.33	11

Table 6.59
Existence of Shopping Centres and
Improvement of Shopping Facilities

Existence of Shopping Centre	Improvement of Shopping Facilities							
	Y	%	N	%	Don't Know	%	T	%
Yes	175	58	15	5	2	0.67	192	64
No	103	34	3	1	2	0.67	108	
Total	278	92.67	18	6	4	1.33	300	

Table 6.60
Patronage of Hawker by Respondents

Patronage	Respondents	
	N	%
1. No Hawker	4	1.33
2. Purchase from Hawker : Yes	237	79
No	59	19.67
Total	300	100

Table 6.61

Existence of Cornershop and Patronage of Hawker

Patronage of Hawker	Existence of Cornershop					
	Y	%	N	%	T	%
No Hawker	3	1	1	0.33	4	1.33
Yes	132	44	105	35	237	79
No	46	15.33	13	4.33	59	19.67
Total	181	60.33	119	39.67	300	100

Table 6.62

Existence of Shopping Centres and Patronage of Hawker

Patronage of Hawker	Existence of Shopping Centre					
	Y	%	N	%	T	%
No Hawker	3	1	1	0.33	4	1.33
Yes	147	49	90	30	237	79
No	42	14	17	5.67	59	19.67
Total	192	64	108	36	300	100

Table 6.63

Reasons for Patronage/Non-Patronage of Hawker

Reasons	Respondents			
	Yes		No	
	Y	%	N	%
Comes to door	182	60.67	118	39.33
Convenient	163	54.33	137	45.67
Lower prices	11	3.67	289	96.33
Higher prices	20	6.67	280	93.33
When goods needed urgently	14	4.67	286	95.33
Other	35	11.67	265	88.33

Table 6.64

Purchase of Goods other than Milk, Bread, Fruit
Vegetables from Hawker

Other Goods Purchased	Respondents	
	N	%
Yes	30	10
No	270	90
Total	300	100

Table 6.65

Frequency of Purchase of these Goods from Hawker

Frequency	Respondents	
	N	%
1. Daily	3	1
2. Once a week	8	2.67
3. Once a fortnight	1	0.33
4. As required	13	4.33
5. Other	5	1.67

Table 6.66

Respondent's Inconvenience if Hawker's Service Ceases

Cessation of Service	Respondents	
	N	%
1. It would be inconvenient	220	73.33
2. It would not be inconvenient	17	5.67
Total	237	79

Table 6.67

Existence of Cornershop and Inconvenience of
Cessation of Hawker's Service

Inconvenience upon Cessation	Existence of Cornershop					
	Y	%	N	%	T	%
Do not patronize hawker	49	16.33	14	4.67	63	21
Yes Inconvenient	118	39	102	34	220	73.33
Not Inconvenient	14	4.67	3	1	17	5.67
Total	181	60.33	119	39.67	300	100

Table 6.68

Existence of Shopping Centre and Inconvenience
upon Cessation of Hawker's Service

Inconvenience upon Cessation	Existence of Shopping Centre					
	Y	%	N	%	T	%
Do not patronize hawker	45	15	18	6	63	21
Yes : Inconvenient	135	45	85	28.33	220	73.33
Not : Inconvenient	12	4	5	1.67	17	5.67
Total	192	64	103	36	300	100

Table 6.69

Reasons for Inconvenience if Hawker's Service Ceases

Reasons	Respondents	
	N	%
1. No shops nearby	70	23.33
2. Will have to travel out	128	42.67
3. Unsafe for children	47	15.67
4. Stranded if goods needed urgently	62	20.67
5. Other reason	34	11.33

Table 6.70

Patronage of Private Homes by Respondents

Patronage	Respondents	
	N	%
1. Non Private Home Sells Goods	47	15.67
2. Purchase from Private Homes : Yes	48	16
No	105	68.33
Total	300	100

Table 6.71

Existence of Cornershop and Patronage of Private Home

Patronage of Private Home	Existence of Cornershop					
	Y	%	N	%	T	%
No Private Home	24	8	23	7.67	47	15.67
Yes	27	9	21	7	48	16
No	130	43.33	75	25	205	68.33
Total	181	60.33	119	39.67	300	100

Table 6.72

Existence of Shopping Centre and Patronage of Private Home

Patronage of Private Home	Existence of Shopping Centre					
	Y	%	N	%	T	%
No Private Home	27	9	20	6.67	47	15.67
Yes	30	10	18	6	48	16
No	135	45	70	23.33	205	68.33
Total	192	64	108	36	300	100

Table 6.73

Patronage of Hawker and Patronage of Private Home

Patronage of Private Home	Patronage of Hawker							
	N.H.	%	Y	%	N	%	T	%
No Private Home	1	0.33	39	13	7	2.33	47	15.67
Yes	1	0.33	36	12	11	3.67	48	16
No	2	0.67	162	54	41	13.67	205	68.33
Total	4	1.33	237	79	59	19.67	300	100

N.H. = No Hawker

Table 6.74

Reasons for Purchase or Non-Purchase from Private Homes

Reasons	Respondents	
	N	%
1. No need to	161	53.67
2. Illegal	40	13.33
3. Nearby	13	4.33
4. Safe for children	10	3.33
5. Easier to get there	18	6
6. No tearoom nearby	10	3.33
7. Other reasons	28	9.33
Total	280	93.33

Table 6.75

Items Purchased from Private Home

Items	Respondents	
	N	%
1. Sweets	27	9
2. Cold Drinks	21	7
3. Cigarettes	19	6.33
4. Alcohol	5	1.67
5. Other items	15	5
Total	87	29

Table 6.76

Purchase of Items from Other Places

Purchase from Other Places	Respondents	
	N	%
Yes	40	13.33
No	8	2.67
Total	48	16

Table 6.77

Frequency of Purchase from Private Home

Frequency	Respondents	
	N	%
1. Daily	14	4.67
2. Once a week	7	2.33
3. Once a fortnight	0	0
4. As required	27	9
5. Other	0	0
Total	48	16

Table 6.78

Awareness of Development of Town Centre

Awareness	Respondents	
	N	%
1. Aware of Plans to Develop a Town Centre	125	41.67
2. Unaware of Plans to Develop a Town Centre	175	58.33
Total	300	100

Table 6.79

Intention to Support Town Centre

Intention	Respondents	
	N	%
1. Intend to Support Town Centre	221	73.67
2. Do not intend to Support Town Centre	76	25.33
3. Do not Know	3	1
Total	300	100

Table 6.80

Existence of Shopping Centre and Intention to Support Town Centre

Intention to Support Town Centre	Existence of Shopping Centre					
	Y	%	N	%	T	%
Yes	141	47	80	26.67	221	73.67
No	49	16.33	27	9	76	25.33
Don't Know	2	0.67	1	0.33	3	1
Total	192	64	108	36	300	100

Table 6.81

Reasons for Intention to Support/
Not to Support Town Centre

Reasons	Respondents	
	N	%
1. Nearer Home	65	21.67
2. If Prices are Reasonable	163	54.33
3. Variety of Stores	95	31.67
4. If Good Quality Products	62	20.67
5. If Indian Owned	5	1.67
6. Prefer Town/Hypermarket/Other	14	4.67
7. Cannot get there easily	50	16.67
8. Other Reasons	25	8.33

Table 6.82

Possible Mode of Travel to Town Centre

Mode of Travel	Respondents	
	N	%
1. Bus	114	38
2. Car	78	26
3. Walk	24	8
4. Lift	3	1
5. Other	2	0.67
6. Don't Know	3	1
Total	224	74.67

Table 6.83

Intention to Support the Various Stores in the Town Centre

Shops	Intention						
	Yes		No		Don't Know		R.O.
	Y	%	N	%	N	%	
1. Tearoom	139	46.33	84	28	6	2	18
2. Grocery	192	64	30	10	7	2.33	4
3. Greengrocer/Market	197	65.67	24	8	8	2.67	3
4. General Dealer	179	59.67	41	13.67	9	3	7
5. Butcher	178	59.33	40	13.33	9	3	8
6. Clothing Store/Drapery	180	60	35	11.67	12	4	6
7. Furniture Store	154	51.33	63	21	10	3.33	14
8. Electrical Appliance Store	172	57.33	45	15	10	3.33	9
9. Bottlestore	96	32	125	41.67	7	2.33	19
10. Pharmacy	188	62.67	30	10	10	3.33	5
11. Building Society	151	50.33	58	19.33	19	6.33	16
12. Bank	156	52	55	18.33	17	5.67	13
13. Laundry	150	50	72	24.00	6	2	17
14. Restaurant	160	53.33	59	19.67	9	3	12
15. Dentist	172	57.33	46	15.33	9	3	9
16. Doctor	162	54	56	18.67	9	3	11
17. Hairdresser	152	50.67	66	22	9	3	15
18. Department Store	204	68	15	5	8	2.67	2
19. Supermarket	213	71	8	2.67	6	2	1
20. Other	28	9.33	8	2.67	4	1.33	20

Length of Residence in Years

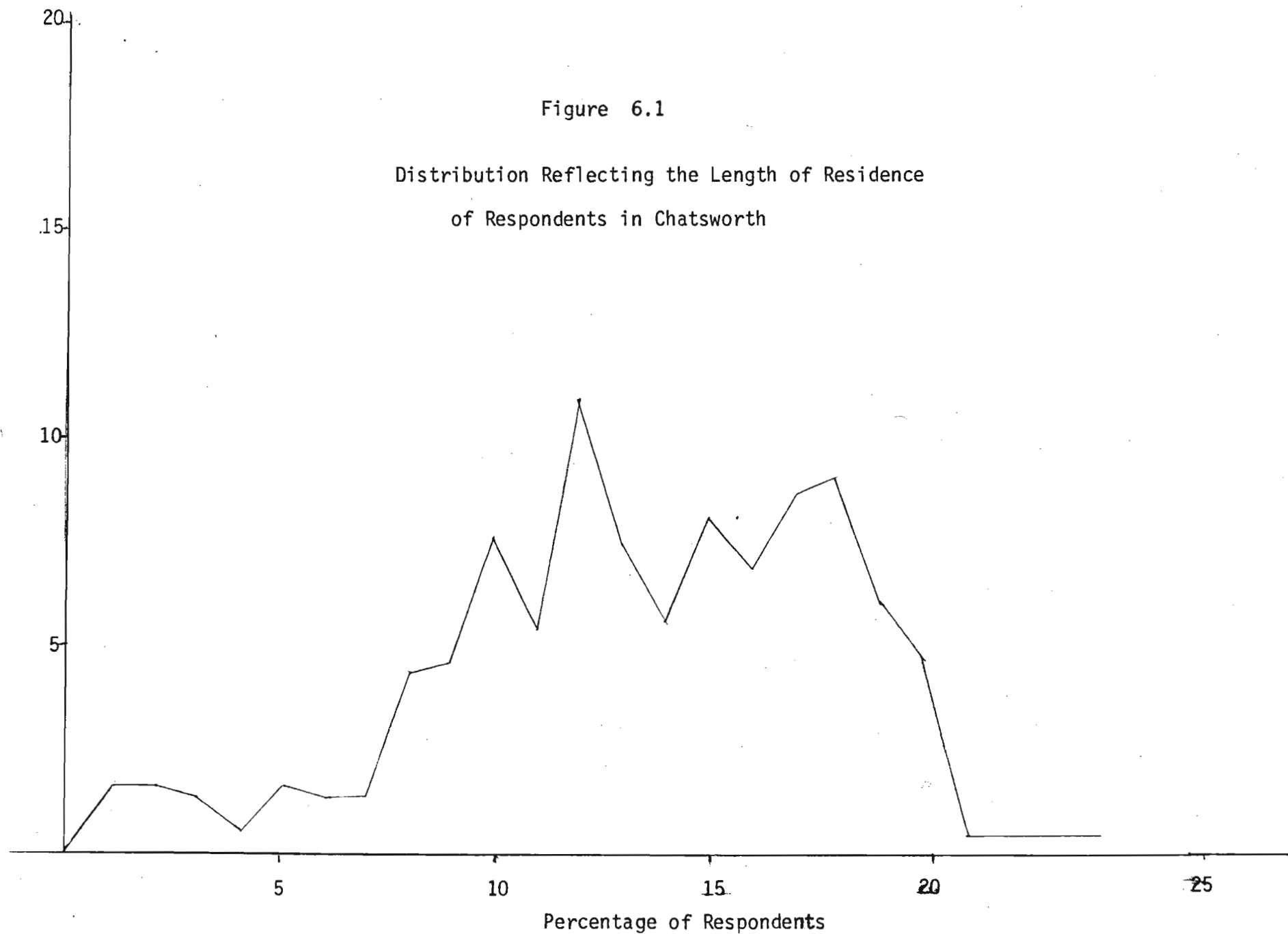


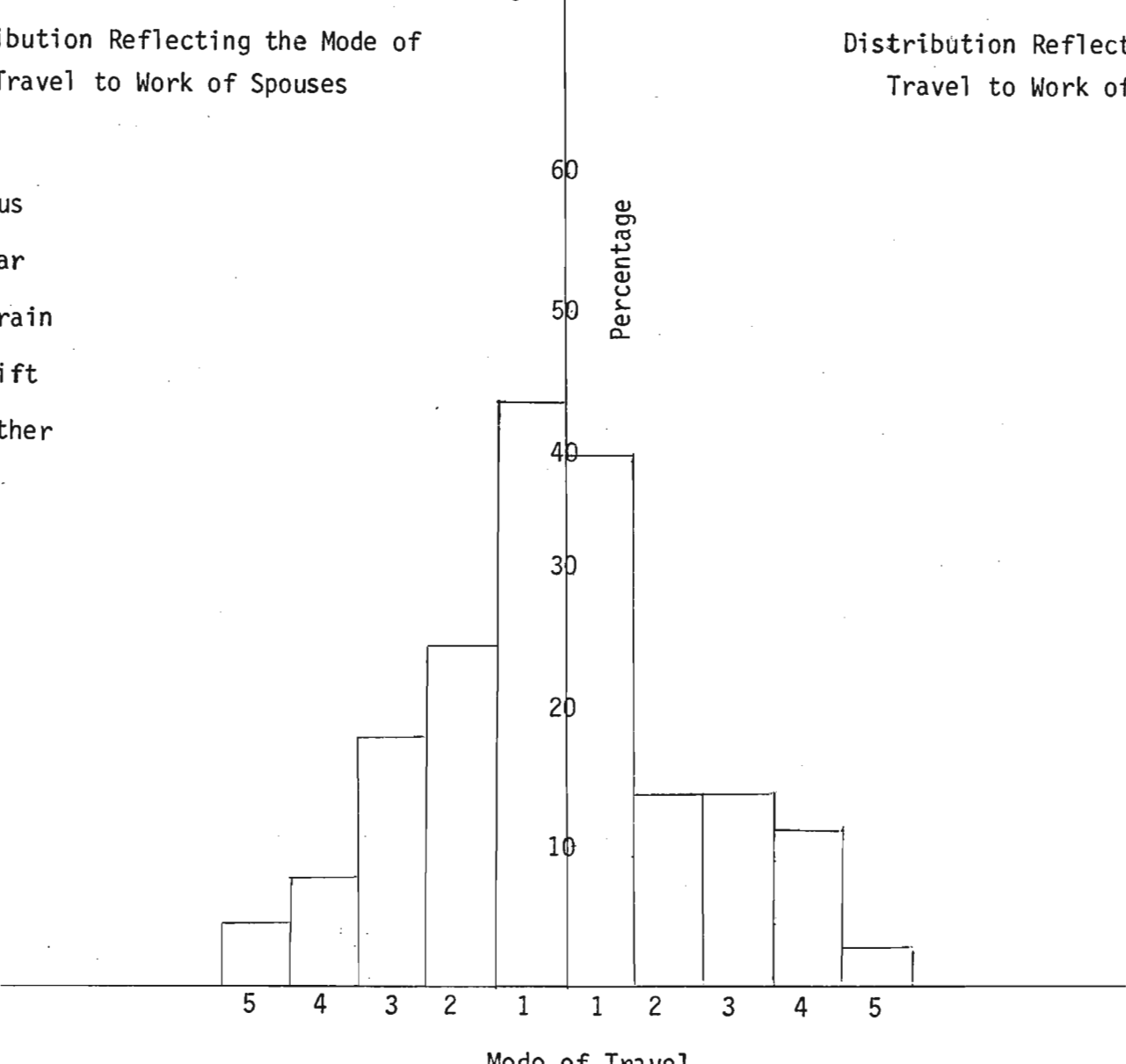
Figure 6.2



Distribution Reflecting the Mode of
Travel to Work of Spouses

- 1. Bus
- 2. Car
- 3. Train
- 4. Lift
- 5. Other

Distribution Reflecting the Mode of
Travel to Work of Respondents

- 1. Bus
- 2. Car
- 3. Train
- 4. Lift
- 5. Other



KEY Existence 
 Patronage 

1. Tearoom
2. Grocery Store
3. Market
4. General Dealer
5. Butcher
6. Clothing Store
7. Furniture Store
8. Electrical Appliance
9. Bottlestore
10. Pharmacy
11. Building Society
12. Bank
13. Laundry
14. Restaurant
15. Dentist
16. Doctor
17. Hairdresser
18. Departmental Store
19. Supermarket
20. Other

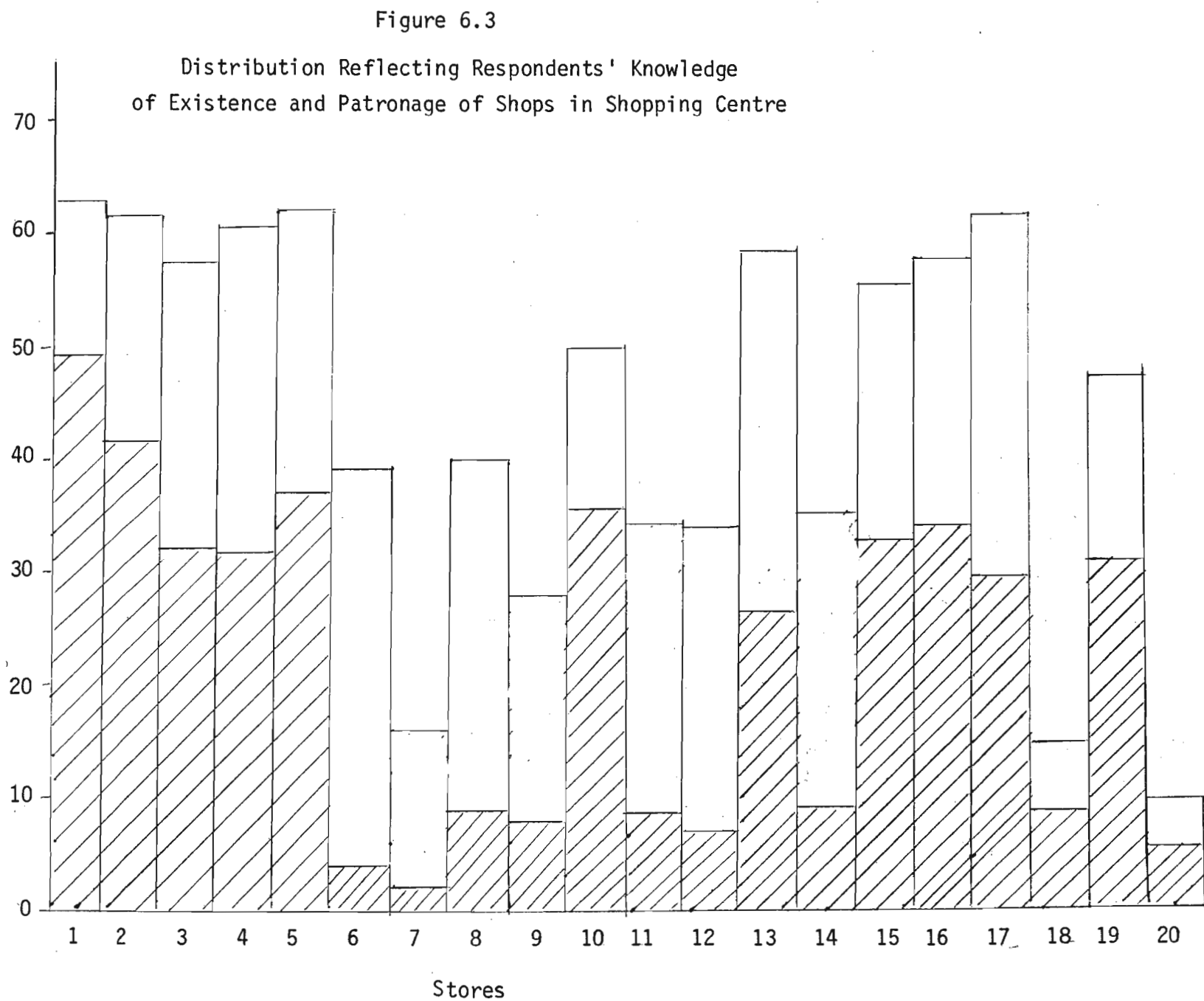
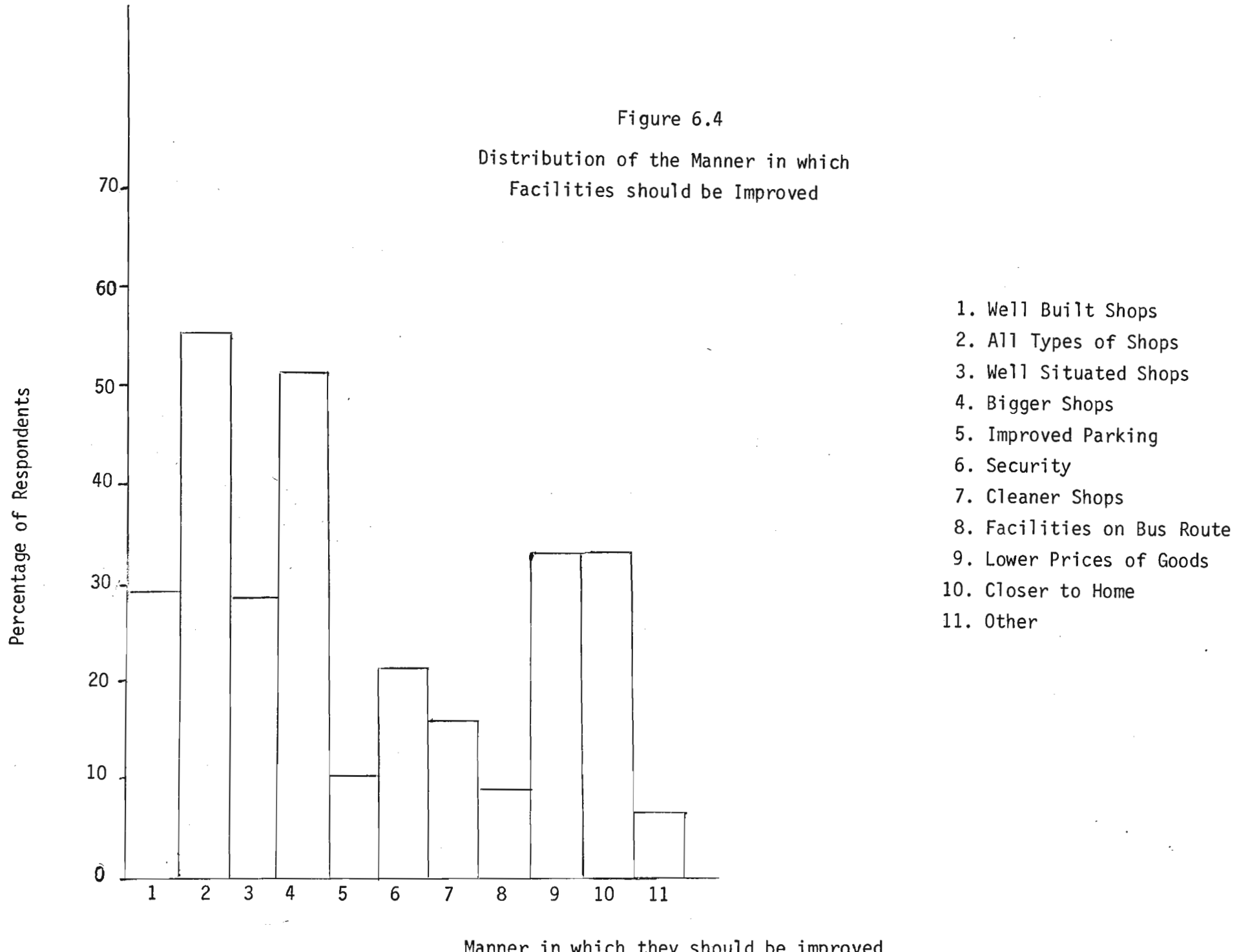


Figure 6.4

Distribution of the Manner in which
Facilities should be Improved



Percentage of Respondents

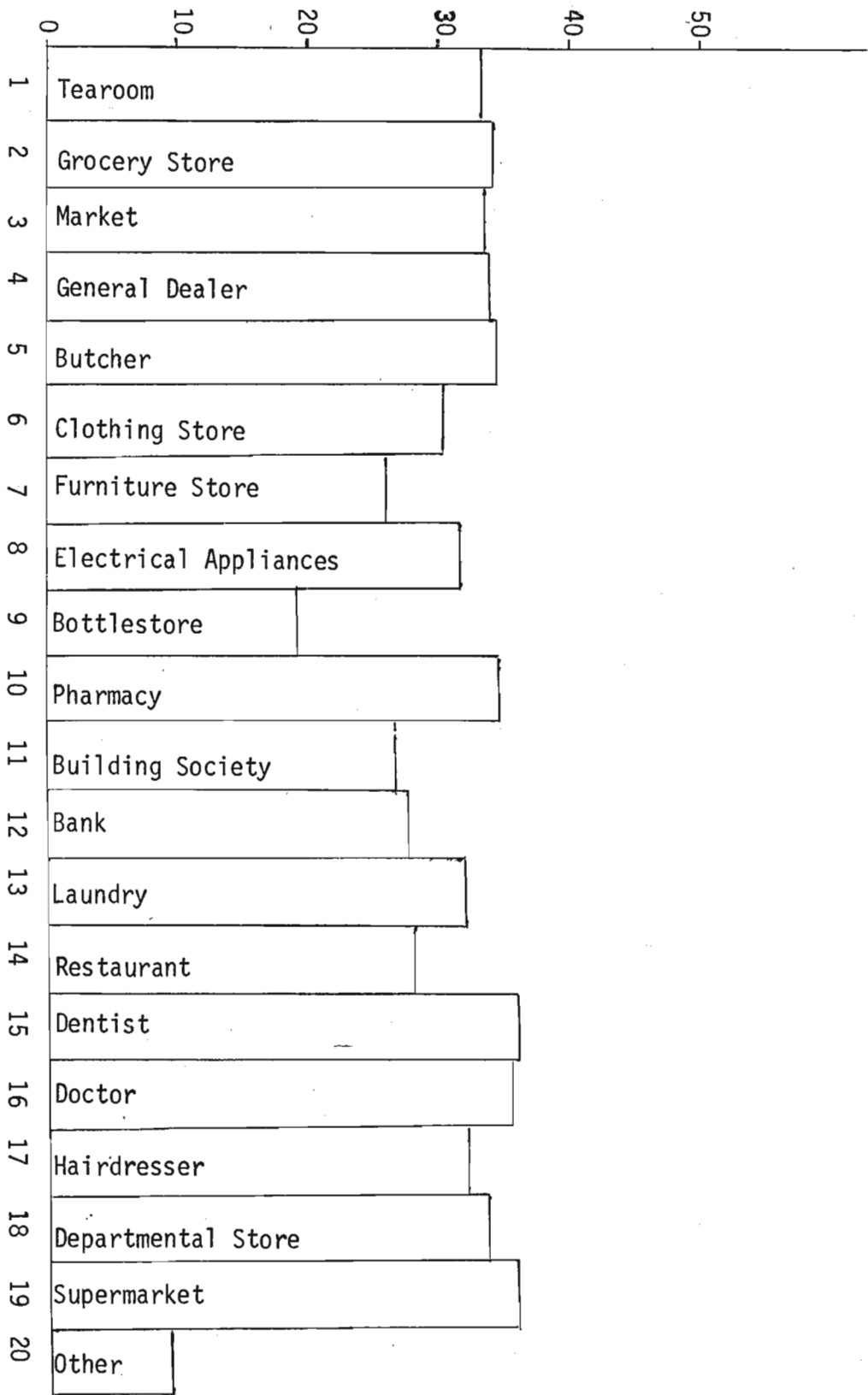


Figure 6.5

Distribution of Respondents Desiring Stores in New Shopping Centres

Percentage

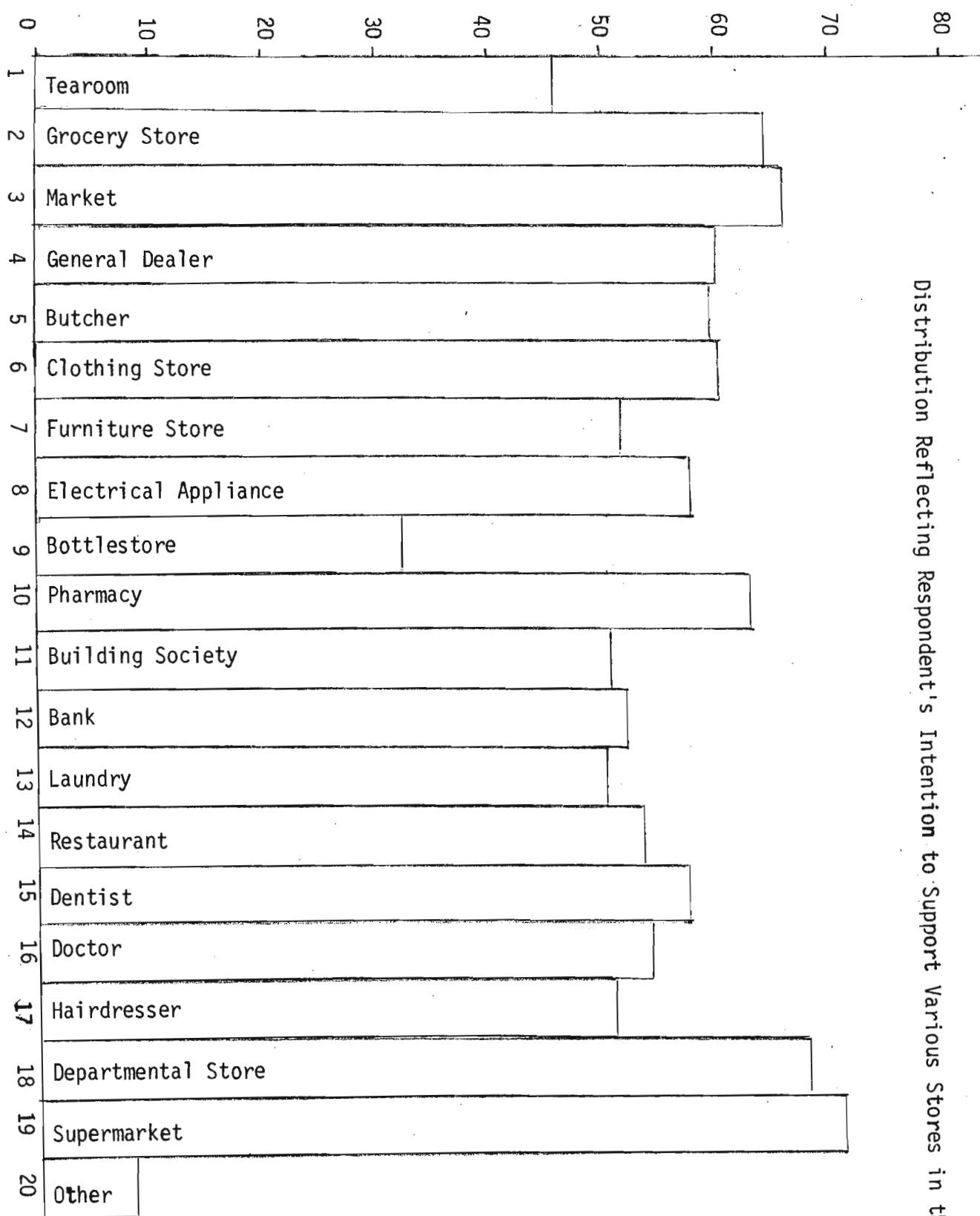
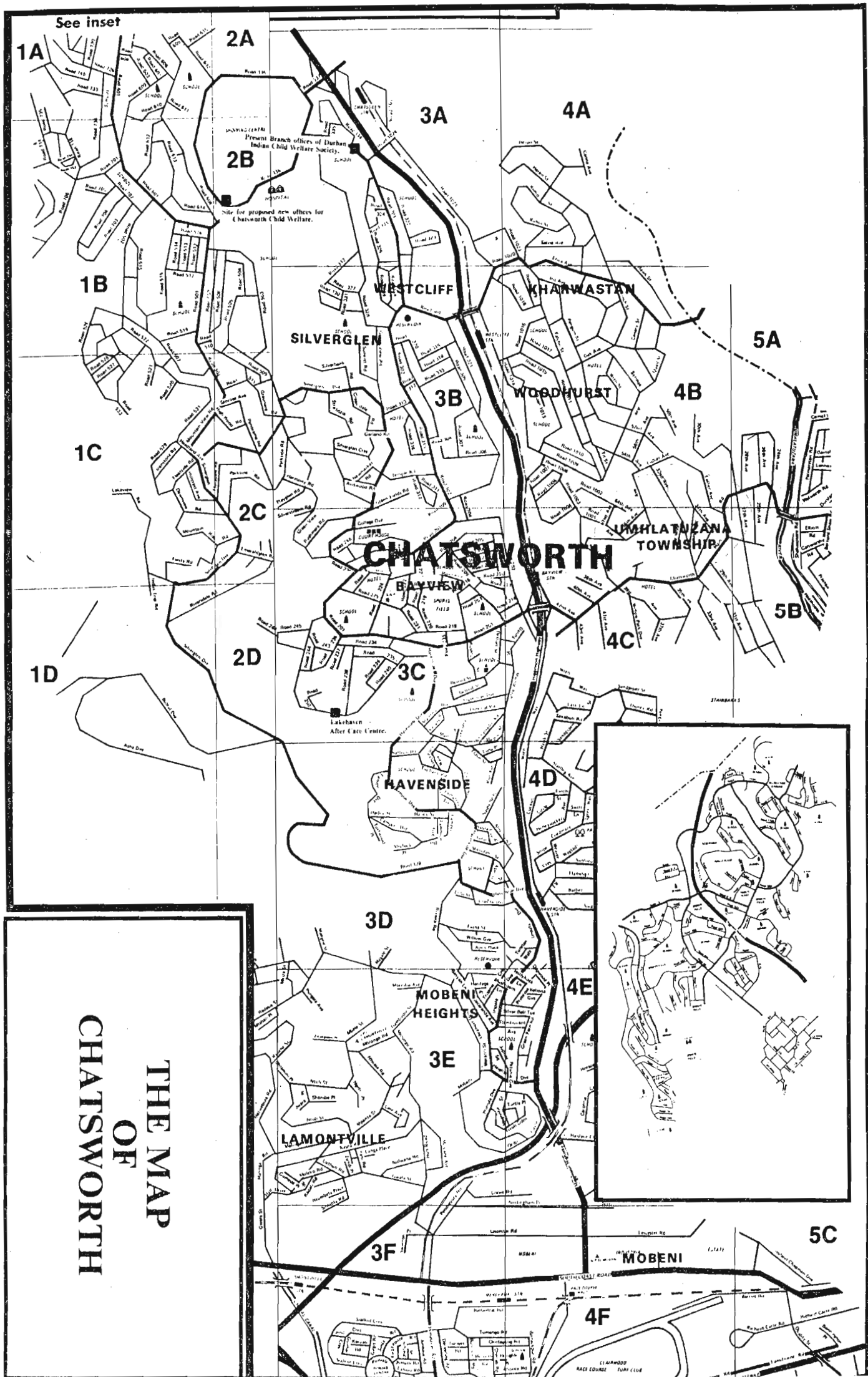
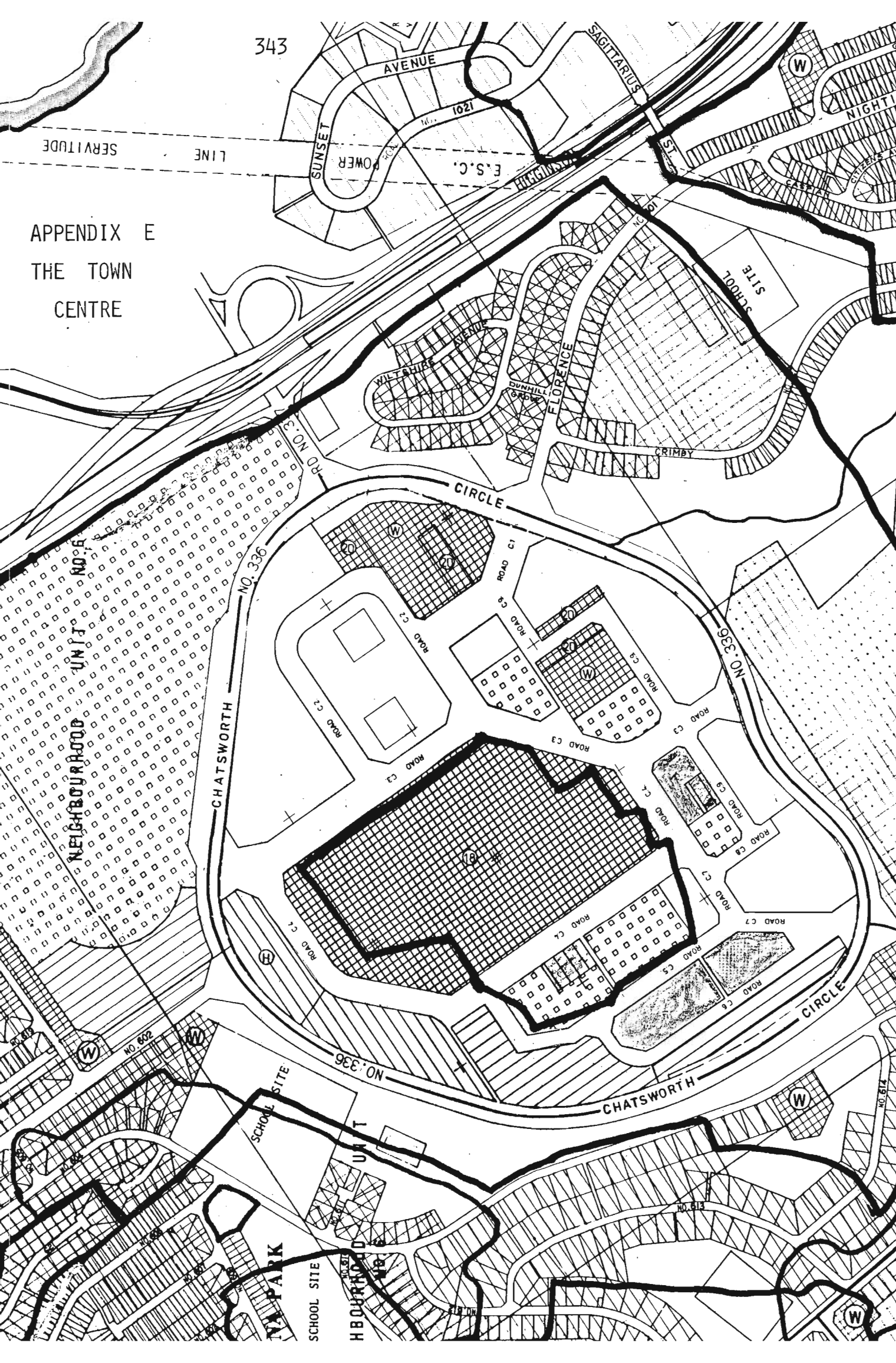


Figure 6.6

Distribution Reflecting Respondent's Intention to Support Various Stores in the Town Centre



APPENDIX E
THE TOWN
CENTRE



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The Mall

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