SATISFYING THE INDIGENOUS FOOD NEEDS OF SUB-SAHARAN AFRICAN IMMIGRANTS IN SOUTH AFRICA: A FOOD CONSUMPTION BEHAVIOUR MODEL FOR SOUTH AFRICA’S LEADING SUPERMARKET CHAINS

By

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ABSTRACT

The fall of apartheid in South Africa has attracted a large number of immigrants from different parts of the world, predominantly from sub-Saharan Africa. Sub-Saharan Africans immigrate to South Africa mainly in search of greener pastures and for educational enhancement. However, in pursuit of their objectives, sub-Saharan African immigrants encounter numerous challenges. One of the main challenges encountered by sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa is the absence of indigenous foods in South Africa’s leading supermarkets. As a result, the majority of these immigrants are compelled to modify their taste and food needs to comply with available local products. Sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa also consume indigenous foods obtained from friends and relatives visiting South Africa and from ethnic entrepreneurs. However, ethnic entrepreneurs are perceived to be expensive, have poor quality products and a limited variety of stocks. As a result, the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa prefer to buy their indigenous foodstuffs from South Africa’s major supermarkets, in the case where they are stocked by these supermarkets.

It is noteworthy that, South Africa’s leading supermarket chains acknowledge the potential of the emerging sub-Saharan African immigrant market and are interested in stocking indigenous food products from other sub-Saharan African countries. However, these supermarkets lack the knowledge and understanding of the market in order to establish marketing strategies to cater for their immigrant customers’ indigenous food needs.

This study has established a food consumption behaviour model of the sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. The model may enable South Africa’s leading supermarket chains to tailor their marketing campaigns towards fulfilling the indigenous food needs of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. The model is split into two phases, namely (1) the factors that influence the food needs, choices and desires of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa and (2) the stages in their food decision-making process. It is worth mentioning that the outcome of this thesis has been discussed within the framework of the standard or universal consumer behaviour concept.
The methodological framework designed to realise the purpose of this study began with a review of a rich collection of contemporary literature in the area of study. The literature study looked at theoretical arguments on the relationship between culture and food consumption, food consumption and globalization, immigrant food consumption behaviour and cross-cultural marketing. Also, a questionnaire survey and interviews were conducted with sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa to establish their consumption behaviour in terms of local and indigenous foods. Interviews were also conducted with executives of leading supermarket chains and ethnic entrepreneurs to find out about their perceptions of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market and for a deeper understanding of the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

In the analyses, the author used John Seidel’s *noticing, collecting and thinking* method for qualitative findings while Microsoft Excel was used to establish frequencies and percentages for quantitative data.

This study will make a contribution in the enhancement of knowledge on the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. It could also serve as a reference document for South Africa’s leading supermarkets, other companies who may be interested in the sub-Saharan African immigrant market and academics who may wish to develop and pursue new areas of research in immigrant consumer behaviour.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am extremely grateful to the many people who generously gave their time and support, including anyone not specifically mentioned who knows that they helped towards the completion of this thesis.

I am particularly grateful to Dr. Groenewald and Dr. Wakeham for supervising the thesis. They were a constant source of assistance and encouragement. Dr. Groenewald was instrumental in expanding my knowledge in the subject matter and in deeply expanding my scope in doctoral research. The completion of this thesis wouldn’t have been possible without his tremendous help.

I would also like to thank Professor André Slabbert for working so hard to ensure that my proposal was presented to the Higher Degrees Committee of the University.

Special thanks to all the immigrants, ethnic entrepreneurs and representatives of leading South African supermarket chains who participated in this study. I was continually amazed by how generously you people gave me your time, insights and feedback that made this thesis what it is.

I am also grateful to my wife Belinda Njomo and our two kids Kazia Njomo and Ekuka Njomo for their patience, encouragement and hospitality throughout the process.
DEDICATION

This degree is dedicated to my parents Late Chief Augustine Ekuka Njomo and my mom Christina Esaw Njomo
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# GLOSSARY

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<tr>
<td>BP</td>
<td>British Petroleum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBD</td>
<td>Central Business District</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Chief Executive Officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPUT</td>
<td>Cape Peninsula University of Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CRS</td>
<td>Creative Research System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIPRO</td>
<td>Companies and Intellectual Property Registration Office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>Democratic Republic of Congo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DTI</td>
<td>Department of Trade and Industry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HCCLGC</td>
<td>House of Commons, Communities and Local Government Committees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HDC</td>
<td>Higher Degrees Committee</td>
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<tr>
<td>ID</td>
<td>Identity</td>
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<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organisation</td>
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<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>LSM</td>
<td>Living Standard Measurement</td>
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<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non Governmental Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>PNP</td>
<td>Pick ‘n Pay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAIRR</td>
<td>South African Institute of Race Relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGH</td>
<td>Shoprite Group Holding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPAR</td>
<td>Samenwerken Profiteren Allen Regelmatig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Full Name</td>
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<tr>
<td>SSA</td>
<td>Statistics of South Africa</td>
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<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
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<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
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<td>WGH</td>
<td>Woolworths Group Holdings Limited</td>
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Everyday in nearly every way, consumer behaviour is woven into the fabric of our lives, confronting each of us with a multitude of important decisions. Whether you’re deciding on a college major, a career to pursue, food to eat, clothes to wear, a television show to watch, or an internet site to visit, you are participating in the activities most important to the study of consumer behaviour (Blackwell et al., 2006:1).

In this chapter, the author introduces the study, which is the establishment of a food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. The chapter looks at the research problem, the background of the study, the author’s motivations for the study, the aims of the study, an overview of the research methods and the significance of the study. The author has also briefly examined the geography and cultural dynamics of sub-Saharan Africa as well as a detailed analysis of the structure of the thesis.

1.1 Problem formulation

Since the demise of the apartheid regime in South Africa, South African society has become increasingly culturally heterogeneous as a result of an increasing immigrant population. South Africa has become home for many people from different cultural and geographical backgrounds. It is unclear how many people from other sub-Saharan African countries live in South Africa, but it stands out clearly that sub-Saharan African immigrants form the majority of South Africa’s immigrant population. A rough estimate by the South African Institute of Race Relations (SAIRR) claims that between five and ten million sub-Saharan African immigrants live in South Africa (Hawley, 2008:3).

The increasing sub-Saharan African immigrant population of South Africa has been overwhelmingly appreciated by the business community and the South African Government as a whole, as an emerging potential market for goods and services. According to McDonald (2000:186) “it is certainly understandable that South African politicians and citizens would be concerned about the impact that increased migration
might have on limited post-apartheid resource. Indeed the research that is available suggests that non citizens actually contribute to the South African economy and fiscus through the purchase of goods and services, the importing of skills and creation of jobs in the small, medium and micro enterprise sectors in particular”.

However, South Africa’s major supermarkets, unlike their counterparts in Europe, America, Canada and Australia (equally hosting large volumes of sub-Saharan African immigrants) are yet to stock food products from other sub-Saharan African countries to fulfil the culinary requirements of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

It is noteworthy that, South Africa’s major supermarket chains have developed marketing strategies that cater for the indigenous food needs of other immigrant groups such as Europeans, Asians, Jews, Australians, Americans, Canadians and Indians. For instance, South Africa produces no rice and is a major consumer. In 2006, rice imports from India, Pakistan and Thailand amounted to US$249 million. Another important import category is poultry with imports totalling US$184 million in 2006. These are primarily imports of chicken as South Africa generally has a shortage of chicken in a market where consumption of white meat is increasing relative to other protein sources due to the health benefit and the relatively lower cost. Brazil and Canada are the two key countries of supply for poultry products accounting for 75% and 10% of the value of imports in 2006 respectively. Also, maize is a staple foodstuff in South Africa with a domestic consumption of 8.8 million tonnes per annum, around 75% of which is met through local production. Although Argentina is the primary source of supply, Canada is an important supplier of wheat accounting for 11% of the total value of imports in 2006. Another important category of imports is vegetable oils, notably sunflower oil and soya bean oil. South Africa does not produce sufficient sunflower or soya bean oil to satisfy its demand and the deficit is imported in bulk and processed locally (Whitehouse and Associates, 2009). Also, most consumer-ready food imports, particularly from the United States, are considered high-value and specialty products (OECD: 2004: 104).

Many sub-Saharan African immigrants (especially newcomers) find it hard to choose from the array of different brands on the shelves of South Africa’s leading supermarkets. This is because, for most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South
Africa, the products and brands are new and unfamiliar. As a result, these immigrants have modified their food tastes and needs to comply with local availability without compromising the need for indigenous foods obtained from friends and relatives coming to South Africa, ethnic entrepreneurs and immigrant associations. However, it is worthy to highlight that the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa would buy their indigenous foods from major supermarkets, should these supermarkets stock them. According to these immigrants, buying from supermarkets implies that they would benefit from lower prices, better quality products, increased assortment and improved customer service.

It is equally worthy to highlight that interviews with executives of leading supermarket chains in South Africa unveiled that South Africa’s leading supermarket organisations acknowledge and appreciate the potential of the emerging sub-Saharan African immigrant market but lack an understanding of the consumption behaviour of the market in order to enable them to cater for their indigenous food needs. In fact, there is little awareness of whether or not sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa consume the same foodstuffs and services as the mainstream population. It is against this background that the following research questions have been formulated

**Research questions:**

a) What are the perceptions and experiences of sub-Saharan African immigrants about South Africa’s major supermarket chains?

b) What are the perceptions and experiences of sub-Saharan African immigrants about ethnic retailers?

c) Would sub-Saharan African immigrants buy their cultural or indigenous foods from supermarkets should South Africa’s major supermarket chains invest in them?

In its most fundamental sense, this study has established a consumption behaviour model of the sub-Saharan African immigrant population in South Africa. In other words, the study has established a deeper understanding of the foodways of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa in order to enable South Africa’s
major supermarket chains to develop marketing campaigns and tailor products and services to fulfil the indigenous food needs of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

1.2 Background of the study

Over 214 million people in the world currently live outside of their countries of origin. By 2050, the figure could rise to 405 million as a result of growing demographic disparities, the effects of environmental change, new global political and economic dynamics, technological revolutions and social networks (IOM, 2010:xxi). More than half of the world’s immigrant population comes from Africa. Sub-Saharan Africa is the most affected with some two to four million people emigrating every year within or out of the continent (Taylor, 2008:177; Tuch and Taylor, 2007:10).

For the majority of sub-Saharan Africans, emigration means searching for a better way of life and improved economic conditions. Undoubtedly, sub-Saharan Africa is the poorest region in the world suffering from the effects of economic mismanagement, corruption in local government, inter-ethnic conflict, diseases such as malaria and HIV/AIDS, drought, low life expectancy, malnourishment and high infant mortality which are fundamental impediments to economic development (Materu, 2007:13). The majority of sub-Saharan African economies are dependent on subsistence agriculture and export of natural resources. The exportation of natural resources and underdeveloped farming methods has made agricultural activity in the region vulnerable to climate change and global warming. Other major problems include lack of infrastructure, water, education, health facilities and electricity (Taylor and Massy, 2004:64).

South Africa is by far the continent’s wealthiest state, both in Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita and in total GDP. Since the collapse of the apartheid regime, millions of sub-Saharan Africans continue to migrate to South Africa in search for better living conditions (Lutchman et al., 2005: 558; McDonald, 2000:8). However, history suggests that even before the birth of democratic governance, South Africa was seen as home to people from other parts of Africa. Migration to South Africa from other African countries started when South Africa discovered the need for
people to work in the plantations and the mines; though the numbers were relatively low compared to the influx of immigrants today (Bailey, 2008: 81).

Sub-Saharan African immigrants, like immigrants in other host countries, encounter numerous challenges as they struggle to enhance their living conditions. Some of these challenges include: the rigorous terms and conditions of residency in South Africa, lack of accommodation, employment and awareness and knowledge of how to access and make use of community resources, eccentric behaviours of the South African public which include prejudices, stereotypes, aggressively privileged opportunities along racial, class and citizenship lines and above all, the absence of indigenous foodstuffs in South Africa’s major supermarkets (Nyamnjoh, 2006:13; Mwakikagile, 2008: 200).

The majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants, especially the new arrivals, are not familiar with local food products and the methods of distribution. In this light, they have modified their foods to include local products while also consuming indigenous foods. However, these immigrants would prefer to obtain their indigenous foods from supermarkets. Supermarkets are perceived to have the resources and commitment to sell at lower prices, stock quality goods, provide increased and diverse assortments and are also customer service oriented.

It is important to highlight that for sub-Saharan African immigrants, the choice of food products is to a large extent an appreciation of the symbolic meanings associated with the products, the method of preparation and the modes of consumption (Coff, 2006:45). As reported by Sellick (2010:73), traditional food is considered to contain ethnic or cultural group flavours with distinctive ingredients and cooking methods, which, for ethnic minorities, can be the “social glue” that binds community members to each other.

The absence of South Africa’s major supermarket chains in the sub-Saharan African indigenous foods industry has made ethnic retail shops and restaurants a characteristic feature of all sub-Saharan African immigrant residential areas in South Africa’s towns and cities (Patterson, 2007:70; Kalitanyi and Visser, 2010:380; Weisbecker, 2010:1). However, South Africa’s major supermarket chains require a deeper understanding and knowledge of the food consumption behaviour of the sub-Saharan African
immigrant market in order to enable them to devise marketing strategies to cater for their indigenous food needs. On this basis, this study has established a food consumption behaviour model of the sub-Saharan African market in South Africa. This researcher believes that the model may stimulate significant changes in South Africa’s food retail sector.

A number of factors served as the driving force behind the researcher’s decision to embark on this study. In the next paragraph, the researcher examines the factors that motivated him to embark on the study.

1.3 The motivation of the study

This researcher is an immigrant from the Republic of Cameroon. He has been fascinated by the plight of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa since the beginning of his postgraduate studies. One of the many challenges encountered by sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa that captured the researcher’s attention is the absence of indigenous food products from other African countries in South Africa’s major supermarkets. In essence, the absence of indigenous food products in South Africa’s supermarkets demands that sub-Saharan African immigrants confront the monopolistic practices of ethnic entrepreneurs, as illustrated in the following paragraphs.

At one of his visits to an ethnic retail shop in Maitland, the researcher was fortunate to witness a fierce quarrel between Mark, a Nigerian who works as a mechanical engineer, and the manager of the shop. Apparently, Mark bought smoked fish (commonly called “dry fish” by people from Central and West Africa) and other foodstuffs to prepare a delicious traditional meal for some friends who were visiting that Sunday afternoon. At home, Mark discovered that the inside of the fish was rotten and full of maggots. He quickly rushed back to the shop to have it replaced, but the manager of the shop would not listen to his plea. According to the manager, the fish came from the supplier in that condition. A very fierce quarrel ensued, almost manifesting in an exchange of blows, if not for the intervention of other customers. However, in the end, Mark’s money was refunded.
Also, at an immigrant restaurant in Cape Town, the researcher came across Peter, a friend from Malawi. He works as a waiter at the Table Bay Hotel in Cape Town. After a tiring morning shift, Peter stopped at a popular ethnic restaurant in Cape Town to have lunch before boarding a train to Kuils River where he lives. He was very disappointed at the level of customer service. During our discussion, Peter remarked that he had been sitting at his table for over 15 minutes with no one asking whether he needed to eat. He also reported that the restaurant looked untidy and that there were flies settling on the tables (having their share of the food particles). According to Peter, “the proprietor really needs to improve the standard of hygiene in this restaurant”.

The researcher is a fervent consumer of indigenous foodstuffs and a loyal customer of ethnic food retail shops. However, on regular occasions, the researcher gets startled not only at the absence of stocks but also the quality and prices of products. The researcher’s frustration with ethnic food retail shops reached optimum when he bought coconut from one of the ethnic shops in Parow. It was a hot summer afternoon and the researcher felt like cooling himself down with some “garri” soaked in cold water (commonly called cold water garri) and some fresh and sweet coconut. The researcher cannot overemphasise the level of satisfaction derived from eating coconut and “garri” soaked in cold water on a hot afternoon. At home, the researcher found that the coconut was bad. Like Mark, he rushed to the shop for a replacement. Although the researcher was pleased that the shop owner apologised for the bad experience, his frustration worsened when he discovered that the replaced coconut was also bad. This time the researcher decided not to go back for a replacement because it was evident that the entire stock was bad. The researcher did not only waste his money but his time and petrol and above all he was deprived of the satisfaction that he would have obtained as he consumed the products.

The researcher’s experiences and those of other immigrants motivated his quest to explore the reasons why South Africa’s major supermarket chains do not stock indigenous food products from other African countries. The researcher’s preliminary encounters with a few branch managers of Spar, Pick ‘n Pay and Shoprite supermarkets in Kuils River unveiled that, though South Africa’s leading supermarket chains recognise the importance of the emerging sub-Saharan African immigrant
market, lack of a deeper understanding and knowledge of their food consumption behaviour restrains the organisations from stocking their indigenous foodstuffs. As a result, the researcher decided to embark on a study to establish a food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa in order to enable South Africa’s leading supermarket chains to cater for their indigenous food needs.

Above all, this study has been designed to feed the researcher’s passion to explore the dynamics in multi-cultural food consumption behaviour in South Africa, with specific emphasis on the sub-Saharan African immigrant population. The researcher maintains that, despite the widely acknowledged potential of the emerging sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa, no study has been conducted to explore the consumption behaviour of the sub-Saharan African immigrant population in South Africa. In other words, there is little or no link between South Africa’s retail supermarket chains and the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa. The researcher intends to use this study as a link between the sub-Saharan African immigrant market and South Africa’s leading supermarket chains. In addition, the researcher hopes to promote diversity in the marketing of food products and to enhance retailers’ understanding of multicultural marketing at start-up and later stages in their businesses.

Therefore, the monopolistic practices of ethnic entrepreneurs, the researcher’s personal experiences of indigenous foods and lack of knowledge and understanding of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa by leading supermarket chains in South Africa served as motivations for this research. The motivations also contributed in establishing the aims of the study discussed in the next paragraph.

1.4 Aims of the study

As highlighted earlier (see paragraph 1.2 & 1.3) South Africa’s major supermarket chains require an understanding of the food consumption behaviour of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa in order to enable them to design marketing measures to cater for their food needs. In this light, this study was aimed at establishing a food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants
in South Africa. However, the principal aim of the study could not be achieved without exploring a number of sub aims. These include:

(a) To establish a deeper understanding of the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

(b) To explore sub-Saharan African immigrants’ experiences and perceptions of South Africa’s major supermarket chains.

(c) To explore sub-Saharan African immigrants’ experiences and perceptions of Ethnic entrepreneurs

(d) To examine whether sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa prefer to buy their indigenous food needs from South Africa’s major supermarket chains.

A comprehensive methodological package was established to acquire data for the study so as to realise its main purpose. The methodological package consisted of the tools, procedures and strategies that were used in the collection and evaluation of the findings. In the following paragraph the researcher presents a brief overview of the methodological process of the study (see chapter 5 for more on the research methods).

1.5 Overview of the research design and methodology

In order to realise the purpose of this study, two main research methods, interviews and a questionnaire survey, were used to acquire data from a respondent population of 409 immigrants from 26 sub-Saharan African countries. Interviews were also conducted with representatives of major retail chains in South Africa and ethnic entrepreneurs in the Western Cape Province.

The scope of the study was limited to the Western Cape Province with the notion that the findings should represent the views of the greater sub-Saharan African immigrant population in South Africa. The methodological approach consisted of the following steps:

(a) Conceptualization and drafting of the research proposal.
(b) Definition of the sample population and case study.

(c) Review of contemporary literature in the area of research.

(d) Design and administration of the questionnaire.

(e) Interviews with immigrants, representatives of leading supermarkets and ethnic entrepreneurs.

(f) Test of reliability and validity of the data.

(g) Test of significance of the data.

(h) Data analyses. Two methods were used to analyse the data; John Seidel’s method for qualitative data and Microsoft Excel for quantitative data; and

(i) Report writing.

It is also worth emphasising the significance of this study. Thus, in the following paragraph, the researcher takes a look at the significance of the research.

1.6 Significance of the study

It does not take much thought to realise the impact of a study of this nature on the wellbeing of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, the growth and development of South Africa’s food retail industry and the agricultural economy of the African continent in general. Literally, the study may serve as a frame of reference for not only South Africa’s supermarket chains that may want to venture in the sub-Saharan African immigrant market, but also for further studies in immigrant consumer behaviour undertaken by marketing organisations, professionals in consumer behaviour and the academic community. Therefore, the significance of the study includes:

(a) South Africa’s major retail chains may have an in-depth understanding of the food consumption behaviour of the sub-Saharan African immigrant population.
(b) It may enable South Africa’s major supermarkets to shape effective marketing strategies leading to greater success by capturing the rapidly expanding sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa.

(c) South African major retail chains may offer specifically tailored food products that support the cultural food needs of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa; while at the same time serving as a vehicle to expand their market to other nationals who may be interested in food products from sub-Saharan Africa.

(d) It may lead to the development of the agricultural economies of other sub-Saharan African countries and at the same time increase trade relations within the continent; and

(e) It may also facilitate the integration and inclusion of sub-Saharan African immigrants into the South African society.

It is evident that should South Africa’s leading supermarket chains invest in the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa, it could have an enormous significance on the wellbeing of sub-Saharan African immigrants in the country. However, the researcher believes that for a better and clearer understanding of the findings of this study and the impact it may have on the welfare of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, it is imperative to briefly look at the composition of the sub-Saharan region of the African continent.

1.7 Sub-Saharan Africa

In this paragraph the researcher has briefly examined the sub-Saharan region of Africa in three categories. These include: geography, nations, and the cultures of the people of sub-Saharan Africa.

1.7.1 Geography

Africa is the Earth’s oldest and most stable landmass with most of the continent having been where it is now for more than 550 million years. Most of Africa’s landmass is a plateau, with only ten percent of the area below an altitude of 500 feet.
Africa is divided into five regions – North, South, East, West, and Central. The West, East, Central and Southern regions constitute what is called sub-Saharan Africa. In other words, sub-Saharan Africa is a term used to describe the area of the African continent which lies south of the Sahara desert or those countries which are fully or partially located south of the Sahara. It contrasts with North Africa which is part of the Arab world (Dolan and Hobbs, 2009: 454).

More than half of sub-Saharan Africa comprises of grassy plains, known as savannas. The Northern savanna, sometimes called the Sudan, stretches across the continent, just south of the Sahara. Other patches of the savanna are interspersed among the mountains of East Africa, and another belt of grassland runs east and west across the southern continent, north of the Kalahari Desert. Heavy rainfall in this area permits the cultivation of some nutritious crops, though the soils are not very fertile (Blij et al., 2010:220).

1.7.2 Nations of sub-Saharan Africa

As illustrated in figure 1 below, sub-Saharan Africa is made up of 42 countries and six island nations. These countries are grouped as follows.


(b) East Africa: Sudan, Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia and Somalia.

(c) Southern Africa: Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

(d) West Africa: Benin, Burkina Faso, Chad, Cote d’Ivoire, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, The Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone and Togo; and

(e) African Island Nations: Cape Verde (West Africa), Comoros (Southern Africa), Madagascar (Southern Africa), Mauritius (Southern Africa) Sao Tome and Principe (West Africa) and Seychelles (East Africa).
Six African countries are not geographically part of sub-Saharan Africa. These countries are: Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Morocco, Tunisia, and Western Sahara (claimed by Morocco)

Figure 1: Map of Sub-Saharan Africa
(http://www.luventicus.org/maps/africa/subsaharanafica.html)

1.7.3 The people of sub-Saharan Africa

There are many nations and hundreds of different ethnic groups in sub-Saharan Africa. Each region has many different cultures and people. The most prominent sub-Saharan African people are the Bantu. They constitute almost two thirds of the population of sub-Saharan Africa. The Bantu people belong to the same language group. They speak similar languages and have similar customs. According to historians, the Bantu originated in West and Central Africa, between the savanna and the forests. They began migrating after about 1000 B.C., in what is known in history as “the Bantu migration”. For centuries they moved south and east, ultimately spreading along the coast. During their migrations, the Bantu absorbed or displaced other Negroid peoples of Eastern and Southern Africa, driving pygmies, Bushmen, and Khoisan speaking pastoralists into the southern jungle, the Kalahari Desert, or the extreme south-western savanna. Thus Bantu migrants provided most of sub-Saharan Africa with a common cultural identity (Holloway, 2005:43).
According to Burns and Collins (2007: 130), the most abiding part of sub-Saharan African heritage is its cultural value system. As Lew et al. (2008:170) remark, sub-Saharan Africa covers a larger and more diverse area than any other cultural region in the world. Lew et al. (2008:170) maintain that as a distinct cultural region, the cultural unity rests on similar characteristics shared, to varying degrees, by many popular cultures or small traditions.

The respect for tradition is very typical in sub-Saharan societies. Most sub-Saharan Africans hold firmly to old loyalties associated with lineage, village, and religion. The kinship principle is fundamental to social organisation throughout sub-Saharan Africa. Loyalties to the clans, each comprising of all members of an extended family, living and dead are more compelling than class interest (Suad and Afsandeh, 2005:125).

The sub-Saharan cultural value system is framed around customary beliefs which shape all aspects of life. Specific beliefs vary from tribe to tribe but some general tenets are common. Most common of these beliefs is the profound awareness of human interdependence. Also, appreciation for community and law, mingled in primitive superstitions and intuitive insights, finds expression in hundreds of oral myths and stories (Lew et al., 2008:171).

In terms of religion, the majority of sub-Saharan Africans are Christians and Muslims. Throughout much of the continent, there are also traditional African religions. Common themes in African traditional religion include: belief in a creator God (believe in a supreme being as the highest power, the source of all excellence and virtue but far removed from human understanding), ancestor spirit (indeed ancestors are considered to remain in spirit, eliciting respect and concern from the living who welcome ancestors at meals or appease them when they are believed to be angry), evil caused by human ill and neglecting ancestor spirits (Burns and Collins 2007: 130-131).

Having looked at the background, problems, aims, motivations, significance, methodological approach and an overview of sub-Saharan Africa, it is also worthy to present the structure of the research.
1.8 The structure of the study

This study contains eight chapters to ensure an insightful comprehension of the dynamics of the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

Chapter one is the introduction. Details of the structure of the chapter are set out in paragraph 1.9 (summary of the chapter).

In the second chapter, the researcher takes an in-depth exploration of the wealth of contemporary scholarship in the main subjects of the study. The chapter begins with an illustration of the concept of migration. It examines the causes of migration, the challenges faced by immigrants in the host country, as well as methods adopted by immigrants to facilitate integration in the host society. In the second section, the researcher presents evidence of the relationship between food consumption and culture. In section three, the researcher illustrates the relationship between globalization and consumption and its impact on the food consumption behaviour of immigrants. In the final section, the researcher reviews literature on cross-cultural marketing in the retail industry.

In chapter three, the researcher discusses the conceptual framework of the study. It begins with a systematic examination of the theoretical foundations that gave rise to the consumer behaviour concept used as the framework to explore the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. In the last section of the chapter the researcher discusses the two parts of the consumption behaviour framework. The first part examines the factors that influence consumer behaviour and the second part looks at the five stages in the consumer decision-making process. The stages include: problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase decision and post-purchase behaviour.

In chapter four, the researcher undertakes an in-depth examination into the growth and expansion of the four major supermarket chains discussed in this study. The chapter begins with an illustration of the dynamics of food retailing in the South African context. In the second section, the researcher looks at the growth and expansion of South Africa’s leading supermarket chains. In the last section the researcher explores
the factors that influence the growth of major supermarkets in South Africa and the effects of the growth on the consumption behaviour of the South African market.

Chapter five is an elaborate analysis of the methodological process of the study. The first section of the chapter examines the activities involved in the conceptualization process of the study. In the second section, the researcher undertakes a detailed examination of the two principal methods used in acquiring data for the study – interviews and a questionnaire survey. In section three of the chapter, the researcher conducts a test of the validity and reliability of the data. Section four explores the methods used in analysing the data and section five illustrates the limitations of the study.

Chapter six is a presentation and analysis of the findings of the study. John Seidel’s (Hobbs and Wright, 2006:310) noticing, collecting and thinking method has been used to analyse the qualitative findings of the research while Microsoft Excel was used to work out the frequencies and percentages of the quantitative data.

In chapter seven the researcher interprets and discusses the findings. The discussions begin with an examination of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa. It looks at the perceptions of major retailers of the market and the immigrants’ perceptions of South Africa’s major retail chains. Section two brings out the food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. The discussions are split into two parts, which are the factors that influence their food needs, choices and desires and the stages involved in the immigrants’ food decision-making process. In the last section, the researcher brings out some important features about the indigenous foods industry that must be considered by major South African retailers planning to invest in the sub-Saharan African immigrant market.

Chapter eight concludes the study. Here the researcher brings out the main findings of the study, the limitations of the study, as well as avenues for further research in immigrant consumption behaviour. The researcher has also discussed the problems faced by ethnic retailers. He has also presented possible suggestions on how the problems can be resolved.
1.9 Summary of the chapter

There is an inextricable relationship between the introductory chapter and the rest of the study. In this regard, the researcher has exerted great efforts to ensure that this introductory chapter animates the readers’ sense of commitment in understanding the fundamental arguments of the study. The researcher begins by highlighting the main problem of the study spiced with a background literature of the research and the factors that motivated the researcher to embark on the study. Of course the objectives, the methods used in achieving the objectives, as well as the significance of the study, could not be left aside.

Furthermore, in order to incite a deeper understanding of the research findings, the researcher has briefly discussed the geography, nations and cultures of sub-Saharan Africa. In the same vein, the researcher has discussed the structure of the research – the eight chapters that make up the story in the thesis. Overall, this chapter has looked at the elements necessary to define the readers’ understanding of the purpose and achievements of the study.

In the next chapter, the researcher undertakes a detailed examination of a wealth of literature relevant to the study. The researcher has systematically discussed the major theories advanced by contemporary scholars pertaining to the subject matter as well as their weaknesses.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the researcher introduced the study. The researcher looked at the research problem, the background, his motivations for embarking on the research, the aims of the study, an overview of the research methodology, the significance and the structure of the study. The researcher also briefly explored the geography, nations and cultures of the sub-Saharan region of the African continent. The essence is to expand the readers’ understanding of the purpose of the study, its outcomes, its contributions to enhancing the welfare of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, the growth and development of the South African retail industry and above all the contributions of the study to the existing body of scientific knowledge.

In this chapter, the researcher embarks on an examination of a wealth of contemporary literature in the area of research. It is important to highlight that the literature examined in this chapter focuses on the relationship between culture and food consumption. This stems from the fact that studies (Sonn, 2002:2; Berry, 2006:2; Farley and Darly, 2011: 235 Gupta and Sharma, 2006:186) universally assert that culture is the fundamental determinant of immigrants’ food consumption behaviour in the host country.

This chapter is divided into four sections. Prior to exploring the impact of culture on immigrants’ food consumption behaviour, the researcher found it necessary to begin with a detailed look at migration in the context of this research. In the second section, the researcher discusses theoretical arguments on culture’s relationship with consumption. In the third section, scholarship on the impact of globalization on the food consumption behaviour of immigrants is reviewed. In the fourth section the researcher takes an exploratory analysis of the role of culture in food retail marketing and in section five research presents to international case studies of immigrant markets – South Asians in the United Kingdom and the Hispanics in the United States.
2.2 Section one: Migration

In this section, the researcher contextualizes migration as it applies to the study. The section begins with the factors that influence migration, followed by the challenges encountered by immigrants in their host countries and the measures adopted by immigrants to adapt or acclimatize themselves in the host society.

2.2.1 Migration in context

Very few areas in social sciences have received as much scholarly attention as migration. Migration is one of the greatest constants of human history. Long before political borders emerged, people were already travelling from one part of the world to another (Manning, 2005:5). Keeley (2009:10) argues that for over 30 years immigration has emerged as the major force throughout the world. According to Keeley (2009:10) almost 3% of the world’s population or over 190 million people live outside the land of their birth. In Martin et al.’s (2006:9) opinion, the volume of immigrants in traditional immigrant receiving countries such as Australia, Canada and the United States has increased profoundly and its composition has shifted decisively away from Europe (the historically dominant source) towards Asia, Africa, and Latin America.

2.2.2 Causes of migration

Factors that cause migration occupy a prominent place in all migration studies. In his study of the increasing movement of Mexicans to the United States, Martin (2010: 19) asserts that the economic crisis that hit the country in the 1990’s plays a fundamental role in precipitating the movement of Mexicans to the United States. Martin (2010:19) remarks that poor wages, unemployment, absence and/or inadequate social services such as water, electricity, education and medical care were some of the effects of the economic crisis that has made many Mexicans to immigrate to the US.

Though economic reasons account for the main causes of the high exodus of people, especially from developing countries, in recent years, people have been increasingly forced into exile due to complex humanitarian disasters, wars and increasing human rights violations within their nation of origin (Amnesty International, 2005:8; Moses,
2006:2). Studies (Moses, 2006:3; Martin et al., 2010: 20) maintain that though it is obvious that immigrants encounter numerous challenges in the host country, most of the challenges are proportional to the reasons for migration.

2.2.3 Challenges encountered by immigrants

For most immigration scholars (Rutherford and Laroche, 2007:52; DeWind and Portes, 2008:397; Richards, 1991:19) the movement of people from one place to another is rarely a single, smooth and purposeful procession. Challenges such as hunger, xenophobia, diseases, police violence, conflicts and natural factors have attracted a lot of scholarly attention in recent years (DeWind and Portes, 2008:397).

Rutherford and Laroche (2007: 52) posit that in addition to the trauma that they may have experienced in their countries of origin, refugees and asylum seekers have been found to experience challenges such as lack of food, accommodation, medical care, clothing, water and electricity. For instance, studies by Bhui and Bhugra (2007: 508) and Leckie (2007:124) argue that in host countries such as Australia and Canada, refugees and asylum seekers from very poor countries have relatively fewer meals a day and even go to bed hungry at times. Also, in Japan, some authors (Oiarzabal and Alonso, 2010:175; Asakura and Murata, 2006:328) have reported that life stressors such as difficulty in learning a new language, language barrier, separation from family members and friends, absence of indigenous foods, homesickness, feelings of isolation, disrespectful attitude towards immigrants/procedures, family issues such as lack of child care and education for children, psychological pain, social isolation, verbal abuse (name calling), marginalization, detention, racial discrimination, financial problems due to lack of menial jobs, high cost of living, health concerns and difficulties with governmental residence regulations are some of the challenges faced by Brazilian immigrants.

The immigration process is often accompanied by emotions such as melancholia, emptiness, and an intense longing for contact with one’s previous world, whether in reality or in fantasy. This greatly affects the immigrant’s approach to local and indigenous foods. In this state, the immigrant may restrict him/her self to the consumption of indigenous food (depending on availability). As the immigrant stays longer and as his living conditions improve, he or she may begin to think creatively
and see the relationship between indigenous and local food products. He or she will give more weight to positive information when evaluating the different local food options (Deaux 2009:197).

Immigration basically implies losses of various kinds such as loss of significant people and culture, loss of indigenous food products and consumption behaviour, loss of an internal sense of harmony, loss of familiarity, and often loss of one’s mother tongue. In this regard, adaptation to the values of the host society is indispensable for the welfare of the immigrant (Margar, 2009:110). According to Wilson (2010:100) the extent of the challenges faced by an immigrant determines the method or strategy he/she adopts to familiarise him/herself in the host country. Thus, in the next paragraph, the researcher looks at theoretical arguments advanced by scholars on measures adopted by immigrants to adapt in the host society.

2.2.4 Immigrant adaptation

Since the beginning of the 20th century, a wealth of literature has explored the phenomenon of immigrant cross-cultural adaptation. According to Markovizky (2008:784), much emphasis has been centred on the adaptation of immigrants in the USA. However some researchers (Hosffman et al., 2006:36; Kim, 2001: 49 and Berry et al., 2006:x) have also examined cross-cultural immigrant adaptation in countries such as Australia, Canada, England, Germany, Israel and Sweden. Evidence from empirical studies conducted by researchers such as Margar (2009:110) and Hosffman et al. (2006:36) argue that upon arrival in the host country, immigrants undergo a dynamic process of establishing (or re-establishing) and maintaining a relatively stable, reciprocal and functional relationship with the host society. Thus Berry et al. (2006:x) look at adaptation as consisting of a wide spectrum of an immigrant’s possible responses to the new cultural context, ranging from complete adoption to complete rejection of the receiving society’s values. For instance, in Sigad et al.’s (2007:65) study of North American women in Israel, the authors found that in Israel, North American women exert a tremendous amount of effort to integrate themselves in the community to assimilate or adapt to the existing customs and norms. Similarly Liu (2001:9) maintains that upon arriving in the USA, though with little intention to stay after their studies, Asian students appreciate the need to commit themselves to the US culture in order to meet the demands of the society both on and off campus.
Nevertheless, Bornstein and Cote (2006:38) are convinced that though entering a new culture is a potentially confusing and disorienting experience, each adaptive challenge in turn offers immigrants an opportunity to grow beyond the perimeters of the original culture. According to Bornstein and Cote (2006:38), the scale of the challenges encountered in the integration process, determines the method adopted by immigrants to acclimatize or adapt themselves to the host culture. In this light, in the following paragraph, this study examines the methods of immigrant adaptation in the host society.

### 2.2.5 Strategies of immigrant cultural adaptation

A wealth of research documents the social and psychological implications of cross-cultural transitions and adaptation. Intercultural contact often requires migrants to negotiate group boundaries and identities and make adaptations to meet the demands and challenges of the new context (Sonn, 2002:2). A prevailing assumption in most of the studies reviewed in this section reveals that immigrants have a dual frame of reference whereby they tend to compare their country of origin to their current living conditions. Thus, different researchers (Berry, 2006:2; Finklestein, 2008:30) have advanced theories to explain the dynamics of the strategies applied by immigrants to adapt to the systems of the host society. Studies in immigration have advanced two conflicting methods used by immigrants to adapt in the host community. These include acculturation and assimilation.

#### 2.2.5.1 Acculturation

The concept of acculturation has been defined differently in different disciplines and contexts. Within the area of consumer research, acculturation has been defined as a process whereby immigrants acquire the traits of the host culture and at the same time maintain the traits of their culture of origin (Laroche et al., 1997:34). In other words, acculturation is a process through which immigrants become a functioning part of important social spheres by taking part in different types of social relations in the community in which they have settled (Marlatt and Donovan, 2008:50; Sigad et al., 2007:65).
The immigrant adaptation process of acculturation takes place in two phases (primary and secondary phases). During the primary phase, the immigrant learns the majority language, is able to support himself, choose a home and a housing area that as far as possible meets his own needs, have access to social capital in the form of friendship, a social network and other close relationships. The secondary phase is a more qualitative stage, which includes participation in the political sphere, interest in starting a family with a partner from the majority population and finally identification with the majority population (Marlatt and Donovan, 2008:50 and Bornstein and Cote, 2006: 80).

It has been observed by researchers (Chattalas et al., 2007:353; Batra et al., 2006:230) that as the individual lives and participates in the new culture, he/she begins to internalize the normative expectations prevalent in that culture, which includes complying voluntarily with the food consumption behaviour patterns reflecting the values and beliefs of the new culture. Conversely, Batra et al. (2006:230) found that the individual may be obliged to comply with the consumption patterns of the host culture due to structural constraints such as lack of availability of indigenous food products, which may force the immigrant to make changes in his/her food choices.

However, in Berry’s (2006: 145) opinion, the acculturation processes and the speed with which immigrants begin to adopt new cultural values within the host society is determined by the factors that influence acculturation. In the discussion that follows, this researcher looks at the factors that influence the acculturation of individuals in the host society.

### 2.2.5.1.1 Factors that influence acculturation

Research has examined the importance of a myriad of factors considered to influence the acculturation process of immigrants in host societies. These include the influence of family, the media and demographic factors such as age, gender and race.

A deep analysis on the influence of family has been expressed in studies such as Funk (2008:90) and Palriwala and Uberoi (2008:88). For instance, Funk (2008:90) argues that family influences the acculturation process of its members if the family complies with the host culture.
In Berry and Sam’s (2006:137) opinion, while an immigrant’s relationship with peers from the original culture reinforces preservation of the immigrant’s original culture, attitudes, and values, his/her relationship with peers from the host culture may also provide rich information that relates to consumption in the new culture, hence stimulating the immigrant’s acculturation process.

It is also argued by Keshishian (2004:230) that the media is a significant influence in the acculturation process, in the sense that it informs and educates aliens about the cultural values of the host society. In addition, Keshishian (2004:230) maintains that because the acculturating immigrant lacks experience with the host culture, he or she may be vulnerable to the messages from mass media.

Also the influence of demographic factors such as age, gender and race have not been overlooked by scholars such as Tetteh-Fio and Frazier (2006:229), Salzmann et al. (2009:167) and Belk (2010:71) in the acculturation process of individuals. According to these scholars, at different ages and life cycle stages, and with different levels of education, people tend to learn different consumption-related knowledge and values and tend to interact differently with socialization agents.

Sawyer (2005:30) posits that acculturation strongly depends on the individual’s voluntary selection of socialization agents. Sawyer’s (2005:30) study also shows that an individual with a positive attitude towards the host culture tends to be more willing to consult information sources of products from the host culture. Studies (Sawyer, 2005:32; Castro, 2003:4) also maintain that an individual who sticks to his or her original culture, and does not accept the host culture, however, may turn to family or peers from the original culture for advice.

Despite the vast amount of scholarly interest in immigrant acculturation, Castro (2003:111) argues that the majority of the studies have failed to explore the more fundamental elements of acculturation. In Castro’s (2003:111) opinion, studies on acculturation have focused on how acculturating group members accept and practice the customs, values and traditions of the host society, but not on how they relate to members of the host society in specific terms of inter-group attitudes and behaviours. In a similar analysis, Sonn (2002:5) argues that the focus of most studies on acculturation has been largely about understanding individual-level factors that impact
settlement with little attention to understanding how groups respond internally to the challenges of transition, through forming and adapting social and support systems developed in the home country to the new context. Furthermore, in Trinh and Rho’s (2009:183) opinion, most of the studies on acculturation deny the fact that immigrant consumption behaviour may in fact constitute an important type of cultural learning, especially among consumers who feel particularly competent in using material possessions and reading the symbolic meanings of material culture.

As indicated in paragraph 2.2.4, acculturation is one of the two methods of adaptation in the host country. Another significant way in which immigrants adapt in the host community is by assimilation. Thus, in the next paragraph, this researcher takes a look at studies of immigrant assimilation in the host community.

2.2.5.2 Assimilation

Unlike the acculturation process, that entails a balance between preservation of original cultural values and adherence to host cultural value systems, immigrant assimilation requires that the individual should have more in common with the host society than with his/her original cultural segment (Perin et al., 2004:36; Ramakrishnan, 2006:16). In Alba and Nee’s (2005:28) opinion, assimilation is not a linear process of ethnic obliteration, but a dynamic one in which minority and majority cultures converge. In his study of the process of assimilation, Johnson (2007:47) found that assimilation requires the immigrant to change his/her cultural (cultural assimilation) and employment patterns (structural assimilation) in the direction of the culture of the country of residence.

Examining assimilation of immigrants in the context of the United States, Foner and Fredrickson (2005: 44) argue that assimilation means much more than simply being identified as an American citizen; it also entails accommodation to American cultural norms, including aspirations to white racial identification. According to Johnson (2007:85) and Marger (2009: 503), the US government has been seen to coerce immigrants and people of colour to assimilate into the mainstream culture and adopt ‘American ways’. For instance, in his study of Chinese immigrants in the United States, Marger (2009: 275) found that despite patterns of insularity, it appears that
Chinese Americans today are moving rapidly in the direction of assimilation, both cultural and structural.

2.2.5.3 The problems of adaptation

Numerous studies (Asada, 2007:34; Ryan and Cooper, 2008:57; Berry et al., 2006:x) have found that the challenges involved in the process of immigrant adaptation largely defeat the purpose for adapting to the host society’s cultural ways. For instance, Massey et al. (2010: 43), Bush (2004:129) and Bush et al. (2009: 37) reveal that in many countries, immigrant adaptation is affected by the immigration policies of the host countries which, to a large extent, are restrictive. According to Bush et al. (2009: 37), over the past decade, rigorous immigration policies in most receiving countries of Europe, United States of America and the United Kingdom have led to the deportation and detention of thousands of immigrants. Bush et al. (2009: 37) also maintain that other challenges encountered by immigrants in the host country include delays in processing refugee applications and human rights violations.

Other researchers (Bornstein and Cote 2006:38; Bhui and Bhugra, 2007: 508; Rutherford and Laroche, 2007: 52) have also looked at the adaptation process of refugees and asylum seekers in the host society. According to these scholars, the problems encountered by refugees in the adaptation process are partly as a result of the sudden (abrupt and involuntary) nature of departing their countries of origin and upon arriving in the host country, these refugees and asylum seekers tend to suffer from severe psychological dislocation and a sense of loss.

Studies (Nyamnjoh, 2006: 56; Deutscher and Lindsey, 2005: 125; Njomo, 2008:43) have also reported that the struggle to adapt to the host country’s cultural value systems has sparked tension, suspicion and criminal activity between immigrants and the local population in countries such as the United Kingdom, South Africa, France, Germany and the Netherlands. For instance, Njomo (2008:43) argues that in 2008, xenophobic violence swept across South Africa’s major cities leading to the death of 63 immigrants and thousands seriously wounded, rendered homeless and forced to return to their countries of origin. Bush (2004:129) reports that although these tensions are nothing new in the process of migration, they have simply increased significantly in recent years as the scale of migration continues to rise and as political
and public debate on the issue becomes simultaneously more vociferous and less well informed. Thus, Konadu et al. (2006:274) and Vertovecs (2009: 80) argue that immigrants have been compelled to adhere strongly to their cultural value systems by strengthening connections with their countries of origin. This practice is described in migration studies as “transnationalism”. In the following paragraph this researcher explores the impact of transnationalism on the adaptation of immigrants in the host society.

2.2.5.4 Transnationalism

Studies (Konadu et al., 2006:274, Vertovecs, 2009: 80; Dominelli, 2007:350) have shown that irrespective of the adaptation pattern adopted, immigrants still sever strong physical ties with their countries of origin. According to Konadu et al. (2006:275) the depth of immigrants’ relationships with their countries of origin is strengthened by the challenges faced in their countries of residence. Looking at the American example, Vertovecs (2009: 80) argues that transnationalism is increased by the factors that hinder the process of incorporation, such as the American racial system, which to a large extent pushes immigrants towards transnational participation. Vertovecs (2009: 80) maintains that factors such as the rise of new communication and transportation technologies, including air transport, long distance telephone, facsimile communication, electronic mail, increased levels of human capital, including years of education and occupational status, play a tremendous role in facilitating the link between the host and resident countries.

Manifestations of transnational connections include the flow of money and goods between the country of origin and the host country and taking part in the political, social and economic developments of the country of origin. For instance, Potter and Conway (2009:214) found that Australian immigrants establish relationships with Australia including family and friends through informal linkages, frequent accessing of news about events in Australia, and in many cases formally linking with businesses, organisations, professional colleagues, and other groups in Australia. Equally, a study by Arthur (2000:181) found mounting evidence that the majority of Ghanaian immigrants living in Europe and America are an integral part of the social, cultural, political and economic development of their country of origin.
In this section, this researcher has reviewed studies on migration with particular emphasis on immigrant cultural adaptation. The first part of the section looks at the context of migration as it applies to the study. The researcher has also examined the challenges of migration, including the strategies adopted by immigrants to adapt to the cultural values of the host society. The researcher concludes the section by exploring the dynamics of transnationalism which is believed to be strengthened by the complexities of immigrant adaptation.

However, as described earlier (paragraph 2.2.3) the absence of familiar foods in the host country is one of the primary challenges faced by immigrants in the host country. Therefore, in the following section, this researcher examines contemporary studies on the relationship between migration and food consumption.

2.3 Section two: Consumption and culture

Consumption has always attracted a tremendous amount of interest in migration studies. According to Wang and Lo (2007:184) immigrants tend to behave like their host country counterparts in areas such as shelter, household operations and health care, but behave differently in their food consumption patterns. Studies (Wang and Lo, 2007:184, Belk, 2010:250) have largely acknowledged that culture is the primary determinant of immigrants’ food consumption behaviour in the host country. Based on this framework, the collection of literature examined in this section focuses on theoretical arguments on the role of culture in the food consumption process of immigrants.

This section is divided into two parts. In part one, the researcher examines the role of culture in food consumption. Part two looks at the influence of globalization on immigrants’ food consumption behaviour.

However, prior to exploring the influence of culture in consumption, the researcher found it necessary to define culture and consumption in the context of this research.
2.3.1 Culture defined

Few concepts in contemporary social science are as abstract and imprecise, and at the same time such a central object of study as "culture". Culture is an intricate concept that scholars in disciplines such as anthropology, sociology, business management, and communication, among others, have made several attempts at defining (Delaney, 2009:11). For some (Walrath et al., 2008: 33) in the social sciences, the study of symbolic forms has generally been conducted under the rubric of the concept of culture. That is, culture is a public system of symbols and classifications that give meaning to an otherwise meaningless and disordered world. Others, such as Delaney (2009:11) look at culture as a form of integration through which social, economic, religious and political institutions are linked together into a coherent whole.

In his *The Cultural Tribes of Public Relations*, Leichty (2003:278) defines culture as the system of shared beliefs, values, customs, behaviours, and artefacts that the members of society use to cope with their world and with one another and that are transmitted from generation to generation through learning. In other words “the way you dress, your relationship with your parents and friends, what you expect of a marriage and of a job, the food you eat, the language you speak are all profoundly affected by your culture” (Kroeber, 2008:296). According to UNESCO, quoted in Ivanovic’s (2008:26) report, culture is a set of distinguished spiritual, material, intellectual and emotional features of a society or social group.

In the context of this study, this researcher agrees with Leichty’s (2003:278) definition of culture in the sense that culture is seen by immigrants as a system of shared beliefs, values, customs and behaviours learnt from home and used in their new society to cope with one another.

It goes without saying that each cultural process is reinforced by its cultural characteristics (Walrath et al., 2008:26). These include the following:

(a) It is symbolic – a symbol is simply understood as an expression that stands for or represents something else, usually a real world condition. In other words, symbols are abstract ways of referring to ideas, objects, feelings or behaviours.
(b) It is shared – people in the same cultural group share common behaviours and ways of thinking.

(c) It is learnt – culture is socially inherited. A person must learn from others in the group; and

(d) It is adaptive – people use culture to flexibly and quickly adjust to changes in the world around them.

Therefore, as Hossian and Salili (2003:54) remark, each culture dictates rules for certain expected behaviours which greatly influence the development of individuals within the cultural system. It is therefore fundamental to the maintenance of cultures that the individuals who make them up must have some awareness of their cultural procedures in their social standing with respect to age, sex, and hierarchies of social standing (Linderman and Hess, 2007:66). In Volkel’s (2010:1) opinion, complacency in this regard leads to a situation where individuals are unable to appraise their conduct in terms of traditional values. Le Vine (2007:108) adds that individuals will not be able to provide an acceptable account of their actions when called to do so upon transgressing custom (accounts which draw on the local social constructs of the group).

2.3.2 Consumption defined

There is perhaps no single issue that dominates the modern psyche in the social and cultural contexts as much as consumption. The relationship between consumption and society has continued to be of interest to both academics and marketing practitioners seeking to understand norms, values and beliefs that consumers bring to their consumption activities. Consumption is the set of practices through which commodities become part of a particular individual. Consumption does not only form an important part of everyday decisions, but it is also a central component of almost all daily events, influencing what and where people eat, the clothing they wear, the furnishing they decorate their homes with, how they communicate and inherently the very nature of their thinking (Cohen and Goodman, 2004:2).
Consumption is influenced by factors such as culture, consumers’ preferences and consumers’ attitude towards risk (Farley and Daly, 2011:235). However, in the context of this study, this researcher limits the influence of consumption to culture seen as the most important determinant of immigrants’ food consumption behaviour.

2.3.3 The role of culture in consumption

The social and cultural relationships of consumption have been amply investigated by scholars such as Farley and Daly (2011:235), Hetzler (2002: 284) and Gupta and Sharma (2006:183). Contrary to the writings of economists and philosophers, Hetzler (2002: 284) argues that consumption is a social construct. Hetzler (2002: 284) looks at consumption as a non-economic behaviour, compounded of psychologically conditioned appetites sustained by social convention. In a similar analysis, Gupta and Sharma (2006:183) argue that the concept of consumption should never be limited to only economic and utilitarian processes but should also be seen as a social and cultural process involving cultural signs and symbols.

Quoted in Fullbrook’s (2002:49) Inter-subjectivity in economics: agents and structures, Grant McCraken (1990) argues that there is an unprecedented relationship between culture and consumption in the modern world. In a similar scale, and without attribution to any particular group, McCracken (2005:142) adds that “the system of design and production that creates consumer goods is an entirely cultural enterprise”. A notable example is Wu’s (2008:130) study of the consumption pattern of Chinese immigrants in host countries. Wu (2008:130) points out that the consumption behaviour of Chinese immigrants is shaped, driven, and constrained at every point by cultural considerations. He argues that Chinese cultures distinguish themselves by taste which involves the consumption of signs and symbols (of meanings) and works like a language, in that it is rooted in a system of meaning.

Similarly, Lindridge et al. (2004:214) found that the way British South Asians construct, identify and interact with their so-called “family unit” is a complex cultural issue, arising out of traditional Indian sub-continent values, as well as from a pragmatic response to wider British culture. They also found that British South Asian family roles and structures demonstrate a close attachment to the interdependent
cultural values of the Indian sub-continent (e.g., values of honesty, obedience, and ultimately conformist qualities) that maintains their family honour and traditions.

The values implicit in a culture are said to affect consumption motives which in turn partially set the choice criteria used by individual consumers (Miller, 2006:215; Gupta, 2001:46). Quoted in Woodside’s (2007:32) study, Hofstede (1997) found that cultural values are the core manifestations of culture in that they have a central role amongst the other manifestations of culture in impacting consumption behaviour. As Macinnis and Hoyer (2008:50) and Patterson et al. (2009:42) point out, the values preferred by a group of people separate them from other groups and cultures can be compared with each other using values as a standard. Patterson et al.’s (2009:42) study found that the value image consists of the decision maker’s principles, values, morals, ethics, ideals, and standards of behaviour. In the same light, Lake (2009: 145) argues that value serves as the primary motivator of the entire food consumption process of a people because it determines what one should and should not eat. Therefore, in the next paragraph this researcher looks at the role of food in culture.

2.3.4 The relationship between food and culture

In the last 20 years or so, there has been a tremendous growth in the scholarship of food consumption. Food has been researched in a wide range of concepts. In this study, the researcher limits the concept of food to its cultural impact on consumption behaviour. The underlying proposition of most of the literature explored in this section underscores that all food is cultural. Montanari (2006:83) posits that the foods that humans grow involve cultural selectivity. According to Montanari (2006:83), from the “moment humans choose food products, however ‘natural’ their provenance, it becomes a cultural choice”.

Food habits and beliefs are ingrained in the culture pattern of a community. While some cultural practices forbid the intake of certain foods, other practices advise the consumption of certain food items (Bhargava and Bhatt, 2006:234). An examination of food consumption from a product acquisition perspective by Couniham and Esterik (2007:285) depicts that food consumption includes many symbolic aspects, and not just functional activities, because consumers have been found to seek food products less for their use value than for what is termed “cultural value”. Anderson (2005:235)
argues that food is not just feed; it embodies history, memory, tradition, invention, place, diaspora, cultural values and reflects both continuity and change. In this regard Counihan and Esterik (2007:282) postulate that in contemporary food consumption, a high value is placed not on the physical attributes of meals and the process of eating them but on the symbolic meanings associated with food.

In Jane and Davidson’s (2006:489) the Oxford companion to food, the factors that influence the spread of Chinese, French and Indian cuisines in the world have been clearly studied. Jane and Davidson (2006:489) found that every cuisine has a history, and every significant meal within a cuisine has a biography that begins with the basic ingredients and over time becomes a cultural narrative, offering unique attributes of society and history. For instance, Robert and Cindy Carpenter (2008:23) argue that in the Hawaiian culture, pigs, the most valued food in Polynesia, were sacred to the gods, as were coconuts, bananas, chickens and certain types of fish (often red ones) because red was a sacred colour. They add that these were the main foods offered in ritual sacrifices in the temples dedicated to the four great gods. According to Sandlin and McLaren (2010:30), this is indicative of the fact that products that align to the cultural values of a society communicate information that allows individuals, society and their culture to function effectively. In the next paragraph, this researcher examines the different theoretical arguments on the role of food consumption in communication.

2.3.4.1 Food and communication

Consumption as communication is an activity through which people convey symbolic messages primarily to others but also to themselves (Aldridge, 2003:10). People consume food products because of their ability to carry and communicate symbolic and cultural meanings contributing to the construction of the culturally constituted world (Lindridge et al., 2004:213). Janer (2008:51) remarks that the meanings of food products express cultural categories and principles, cultivate ideals, create and sustain lifestyle, construct notions of the self and create (and survive) social change. According to Sandlin and McLaren (2010:30), no other time or place has seen these elements enter into a relationship of such mutuality.
For an act of consumption to be viewed as performing a communication role, it must operate within a set of convention which can usefully be regarded as constituting a system of communications in order for it to convey meaning, even to oneself. Therefore, in order to participate in the food consumption process, one must know what things mean, and to whom, because lack of the appropriate knowledge of the consumption process makes it practically impossible to participate in the process and to be able to either send or receive information (Aldridge, 2003:11; Wang et al., 2005:2).

Fornas et al. (2007:9) suggest that the act of consumption as communication is inevitable in the era of globalization. According to Fornas et al. (2007:9), in today’s global economy, the actions involved in the consumption process (i.e. acquiring and using objects, materials and spaces) do not only communicate messages, but also enable people to be informed. Lang and Gabriel (2006:140) have shown that the foods that people buy and the way these foods are eaten tell stories and communicate every bit of meaning as effectively as words.

Robert and Cindy Carpenter (2008:23) found that apart from playing a communication role food also constitutes a basic element in cultural identity. In fact there is an intimate relationship between food and identity. According to Fox (2001:1), what we eat becomes a very powerful symbol of who we are. Fox (2001:2) adds that ethnic foods are identity markers, especially in the presence of gustatory “foreigners” such as when one goes abroad or when foreigners visit the home shores.

In the paragraph below, this study looks at the scholarly arguments of the relationship between food and identity.

2.3.4.2 Food and identity

Food is pivotal to grasping the significance of otherness as found in a study by Stern et al. (2006: 311). According to them, differences in food identity, characterisation and similarities promote internal cohesion. In Cotento’s (2010:32) opinion, what people eat or do not eat in different societies varies and are of course interlinked with cultural norms and taboos. Cotento’s (2010:32) study found that food and foodways are a particularly potent way of illustrating contrasting cultural practices. His views find evidence in an interesting research by Kniazeva and Venkatesh (2007:421) which
provides an insight into how US consumers relate to food and highlights the symbolic dimension of food in a culture that is depicted as highly individualistic. According to these authors, food can be seen as a cultural category representative of post-modernism. Kniazeva and Venkatesh (2007:421) also argue that postmodernists regard everyday life as a valuable site for expressions of cultural symbolism, thus they have urged researchers to turn to everyday practices for what they term “guiding themes of life”.

The importance of food as a vital contributor to the conceptualization of identity has been effectively researched by Wilson (2006:132) and Cwiertka (2006:178). What seems clear in Wilson’s (2006:132) view is that food, and the environments and circumstances in which it is eaten, serves as an important arena for the expression of national cultural identity at international exhibitions. Wilson (2006:132) argues that while much has been made of the ways that food habits (through food choices or meal structures for example) can function to demarcate self from others and to structure communities or are used to talk about practices which delineate class-based identities, anthropologists are now turning their attention to ways that food habits can anchor a collective identity in relation to the specifics of the place. As an important part of national culture, Cwiertka (2006:178) maintains that food consumption proves particularly powerful in keeping nationhood near the surface of mundane life. Cwiertka (2006:178) adds that most national cuisines are grounded on the array of foods and practices characteristic of social groups and communities that occupy the nation state territory.

It is argued that the influence of culture on food consumption behaviour is prevalent in immigrant societies. Faced by unfamiliar food traditions in the host country entails that the process of establishing what and how to eat is, to a large extent, influenced by immigrants’ national cultural value systems (Wilson, 2006:132). In the following paragraph, this study examines scholarship on immigrants’ food consumption in the host country.

2.3.5 The immigrant food consumption behaviour

One of the challenges of immigration is the loss of food products and food consumption patterns in their homeland. For most newcomers, immigration means
losing their indigenous food consumption behaviour and adopting a new form of consumption (Wu, 2008:130).

Relatively few studies (Kuma and Lal 2007:172; Asher and Teitelbaum, 2005:29) have addressed the central role of food in the life and activities of immigrants in the host country. Remarkably, Kuma and Lal (2007:172) have found that the desire to eat indigenous foods strengthens the connection between immigrant societies and their homelands. Kuma and Lal’s (2007:172) assertion finds strong evidence in Jennissen’s (2004:97) study of Italian labour immigrants in Belgium, where it was revealed that despite Belgium’s efforts to assimilate Italians to Belgian food consumption behaviour, Belgian-Italians still cook as they do back home. Thus, as Connel (2009:48) explains, the kinds of foodstuffs consumed by immigrants and the method of preparation recall families and friends left behind and by continuing to consume homeland foods, immigrants preserve this transnational relationship and enact their companionship with those back home.

An illustrated example is also found in Roger-Winarto’s (2006:86) study of Indonesians in Australia. Winarto (2006:86) found that most gatherings of Indonesians in Australia, whether formal or informal, include food (exclusively Indonesian menus) as a central element. According to Markovitsch and Rottger–Rossler (2008:335), such social interactions reflect cultural conformity; consuming the familiar while constructing an interdependent collective/public self-image of the group within the wider community.

An earlier study by Schwartz and Solomon (1999:148) on the travellers’ experiences on food acted as a keystone in colonial encounters between European travellers and indigenous peoples. Schwartz and Solomon (1999:148) observed that food was a central and decisive element in the journeys of European travellers. Their study found that acceptance or refusal of food, meals and table manners determined the relationships between European travellers and indigenous peoples, and served as a space between reinforcing one party’s identity and appropriating the other’s culture. They argue that food was also crucial in the creation and reinforcement or contestation of alliances, vital in inclusion and exclusion and for rites of passage.
It is generally argued by scholars (Asher and Teitelbaum, 2005:29; Janer, 2008:113) that migrant kitchens are shaped by identities surrounding the real or imagined common origin of people, or in other words their ethnic identity. In this regard, researchers such as Berger (2004: 194) have applauded the role of immigrant women in preserving immigrants’ cultural heritages. Berger (2004: 194) argues that immigrant women function as “gatekeepers” of domestic culture by providing, preparing and presenting indigenous foods to their families; hence significantly maintaining the link between the “foreign” and home. Berger’s (2004: 196) study has also shown that immigrant women frequently privilege the tastes of other family members, particularly husbands; they also balance the need to impart family and community values via traditional foods and cuisines, while adjusting to life and the utilisation of food in the host country. Therefore, apart from the necessity of sustenance, Counihan and Esterik (2008:516) maintain that food consumption in the context of immigration is a social practice playing a central role in the negotiation of the everyday life of immigrants.

However, as Nnakwe (2009:339) remarks, as immigrants live longer in the host country, they start to think creatively by modifying their indigenous food consumption to incorporate relevant local foodstuffs and consumption patterns of the host society. In the following discussion, this researcher examines how immigrants modify their indigenous food consumption behaviour in the host country.

2.3.5.1 Modifying food consumption

The central role of food consumption in immigration studies has also stimulated the minds of researchers (Van Selm and Guild 2005: 218; Kirova and Adams, 2006: 68) to examine the extent to which immigrants modify their food needs and consumption patterns to suit local availability. Kirova and Adams (2006: 68) maintain that in most cases unavailability and/or inaccessibility of indigenous foods compels immigrants to switch their food requirements to incorporate local availability. Also, according to Van Selm and Guild (2005: 218), migration frequently entails adapting to new life ways; part of this process may include adjusting food conceptualizations of self and performance of identities. Van Selm and Guild (2005: 218) have also acknowledged that though many immigrants hope to retain their cultural practices and identities in
their food consumption, some modifications are common, especially as they cope with socio-economic realities encountered in their host countries.

However, Hingley and Lindgreen (2009:225) argue that the impact of culture on food depends on the culture itself and to the extent to which immigrants follow the teachings of their culture. They argue that although culture imposes strict dietary laws, the amount of people following them may vary considerably. Hingley and Lindgreen’s (2009:225) assertion finds manifestation in Sadek et al.’s (2010:97) research of Jewish immigrants in the US. Sadek et al. (2010:97) found that only an estimated 16% of Jews in the US strictly follow their cultural dietary laws. They sighted health and nutrition concerns as some of the reasons why some immigrants have modified their eating habits. However Mamdouh and Sen (2008:17) argue that whether food actively determines immigrants’ consumption behaviour, or simply reflects other aspects of cultural identification, is a complex question but it remains broadly true that food provides an attractive mode of expression of migrants’ orientation with regard to the host country.

In summary, the literature reviewed in this section presents a wide range of theoretical and conceptual interpretations on immigrant consumer behaviour pertaining to food needs. As indicated in paragraph 2.3, immigrant consumption behaviour symbolizes the impact of culture on immigrants’ food decision-making process. A significant finding is that though cultural values underpin immigrant food consumption behaviour, sustained predominantly by immigrant women, factors such as unavailability and/or inaccessibility of indigenous foods and most importantly the growing influence of globalization, may compel immigrants to modify or change their food needs to suit local availability.

The world today is in a grip of unprecedented social and cultural changes as a result of globalization. Globalization has initiated a strong stimulus to migration; hence a significant impact on the food consumption behaviour of immigrants (Wu, 2007:8). As Welsh and Koc (2002: 3) put it, immigrant diets and food consumption behaviour needs to be contextualized within a global framework where food choices are no longer limited to the social and cultural contexts of the country of immigration or country of origin. Therefore, in the next section, this researcher explores existing literature on globalization and its impact on immigrant consumer behaviour.
2.4 Section three: Globalization, culture and consumption

As localities become increasingly globalised both spatial and social differentiations are influenced by specific channels that bring individuals and the outside world closer together. The increasing diversity of migrants’ nationalities, the growing proportion of movements of temporary and skilled workers in total migration flows and the methods of adaptation in the host society does show that migration is increasingly taking place in the context of globalization. This means that the impact of globalization on immigrants can be measured not only in the context of residential differentiation, but also on how it shapes their food consumption behaviour (Wu, 2007:9). However, prior to exploring the dynamics of food consumption and globalization, it is imperative to look at the definition of globalization.

2.4.1 Globalization defined

Although the term globalization surfaced in the 1960s, it was only in the 90s that it attracted a huge amount of public consciousness. Since then, globalization has not only stimulated extensive research, but has also given rise to theoretical contestations by scholars across a wide range of disciplines especially in the social sciences. The term “globalization” has been vigorously used in both popular and academic literature to describe a process, a condition, a system, a force and an age (Welsh and Koc, 2002:3).

For Steger (2010:10) the term globalization applies to “a set of social processes to transform our present social condition of weakening nationality into one of globality”. Lechner (2009: xiii) attempts to define globalization as “the ways in which, as more people become more connected across larger distances, they create a new world society in which they do more similar things, affect each other’s life more deeply, follow more of the same norms, and grow more aware of what they share”. Arion (2006:11) argues that “globalization is a historical novelty, implying qualitative changes in the dynamics of the world system such as the restructuring of the global economy, the interconnectedness between various kinds of networks, the interdependence between states and communities, the increasing interaction, deterritorialisation and fusion of existing cultural forms”. Thus, according to Cherrier
et al. (2009: 82), globalization has caused an enormous impact on consumption behaviour which has not gone unnoticed in contemporary migration studies.

Today there are sizeable global markets where similar consumer segments are emerging across national boundaries. The primary challenge is to identify these segments on a global scale and to find ways to reach them via global marketing programs (Kaynak and Hassan, 1994: 4). This has resulted in conflicting scholarly views on the consumption behaviour of markets as a product of the increasing globalization.

### 2.4.2 Globalization and consumer behaviour

The relationship between consumption and globalization has long been studied (Wang et al., 2005: 15; Wamwara-Mbugua et al., 2008:53). According to Wang et al. (2005: 15) the link between globalization and consumption is not accidental; there is a complex and intricate relationship between globalization, consumption and identity. These authors maintain that consumption is the foundation on which the concept of globalization is built.

The extent to which globalization influences consumer behaviour is determined by the factors that influence globalization. These include: technological developments, changing patterns of intrapersonal and socio-cultural communication spawned by easier travel, satellite communication links, the internet, the continual onslaught of mass media, migration and marketer dominated communications that attempt to shape how consumers respond (Wamwara-Mbugua et al., 2008:53).

Globalization is a significant influence of migration with a tremendous impact on immigrants' consumption behaviour (Heslop et al., 2009:200). The movement of consumers from emerging market economies to industrialized ones has, to a large extent, dramatically impacted the patterning of markets, the formation of consumer tastes and preferences, their search for information, purchase behaviour and the diffusion of new products and ideas (Tsai, 2005:278; Caruana 2007:300). In this context, scholars have advanced three theories to explain the influence of globalization on consumption behaviour. These include: homogenization, heterogenization and hybridization.
2.4.2.1 Homogenizing influence of globalization

Protagonists of the homogenization theory suggest that cultural differences are increasingly being eroded through the world wide replacement of local products with mass produced goods which originate from the West (Saccuzzo and Kaplan, 2009:527; Prempeh, 2006:27; Mot, 2004:201). A study by Carvalho et al. (2008:20) argues that today the consumption behaviour of countries or cultures can no longer be viewed in isolation as a set of separate entities, characterised by their own distinctive value systems, traits and customs. Carvalho et al. (2008:20) argue that rather a complex collage of consumer culture and context is emerging in which no clear demarcation line identifies where one culture begins and another ends and consumer influences from one country or culture are constantly permeating others.

Sharing this opinion, Brunswick et al. (2009:58) found that the sovereignty of national consumer cultures is breaking down, giving way to global and regional consumer segments such as global or Euro-consumers, mature consumers, and ecologically concerned consumers. However, a study by Prempeh (2006:27) reveals that although globalization negatively affects culture, the impact is much apparent in economically vulnerable countries. According to Prempeh (2006:27), the economic vulnerability of non-Western cultures is assumed to be matched by cultural vulnerability.

2.4.2.2 Heterogenizing influence of globalization

A number of studies have criticized current globalization discourse’s propensity to ignore the heterogeneous impact on consumer behaviour. Theorists (Nguyen et al., 2008:90; Prempeh et al., 2004:84) of heterogeneity assume that globalization will not eliminate cultural differences nor lead to standardized consumer behaviour around the world. These scholars assert that instead, globalization is the most significant force in creating and proliferating cultural diversity; hence heterogeneity in consumption behaviour.

A significant characteristic feature of globalization is the up-surging power of local culture that offers resistance to the centrifugal force of Western influence. This is because globalization extends a sense of universal belonging. Human beings can
hardly identify themselves with such a general and vague phenomenon. The more people are exposed to other cultures, the more likely they are to root themselves in their own culture in order to safeguard their identity from being diluted into a global culture too generic to be able to give specificity to a person. Therefore, globalization leads to an invigoration and revitalisation of culture which can also induce more patriotic consumption behaviour patterns (Kamaravadivelu, 2008:98; Prempeh et al., 2004:84).

Sharing this opinion, Parrilo (2008: 6) has shown that globalization’s elements that enforce cultural homogeneity, such as global media, advances in information systems and multinational dispensations, instead of projecting a globalizing consumer culture, have rather enriched people culturally by providing them with information and knowledge which they were hitherto deprived of. Parrilo (2008: 6) argues that an example is the increased awareness by the media of the many conflicts and wars (e.g. China and Tibet, Palestine and Israel, and the United States and Asia) based on cultural grounds affecting today’s world. According to Parrilo (2008: 6), since animosity impinges on consumer behaviour, the reverse effects of globalization are almost apparent.

Equally, a study by Ho-Joo (2007) quoted by Seo et al. (2007:8) found that there is probably less mutual liking, more distrust and greater emphasis on the difference between the United States and Asia today than there was 40 years ago. Ho-Joo (2007) remarks that hostility between the Western and Arab worlds has also greatly affected the consumption behaviour of US products by Arabs.

In his The handbook of international marketing communications, Monye (2000:40) has shown that standardization works better for industrial and high technology products like computer hardware, machine tools and heavy equipment and not for food and eating habits. Monye (2000:40) argues that to a large extent, food and eating habits are culture-bound, especially where a rich culture context surrounds the product and there is an investment of consumers’ cultural and often national background and identity in the consumption act. Monye (2000:45) maintains that, while there is support for the view that some products have a universal appeal and that lifestyle, especially ‘the American way of life’ as communicated through film, television and the print media, are being emulated in other countries, there is also evidence of a
countervailing trend of ethnic groups and nationalities resisting what they see as a takeover of their cultural heritage. He argues that the growing animosity among certain cultures in the US makes consumer ethnocentrism quite significant, despite the immense wave of globalization which America commenced.

Consumers’ favourableness or unfavourableness towards products has been found to vary largely according to product specific origins. A considerable construct in international research on consumer behaviour in this era of increasing globalization is the effect of ethnocentrism on consumption behaviour. It is argued that in the increasing globalizing world, “made in” (country of manufacture) is assumed to have a tremendous impact on consumers’ willingness to buy foreign products and on buying decisions indirectly via product judgments. In the following discussion, this study examines the influence of consumer ethnocentrism on consumption behaviour.

2.4.2.2.1 Globalization and its effects on consumer ethnocentrism

Consumer ethnocentrism has attracted a considerable amount of attention from marketers and researchers. In effect, the enormous wave of globalization has placed consumer ethnocentrism as a significant requirement in any cross-cultural or cross-national research. Becerik et al. (2006:5) define ethnocentrism as an attitude that one’s own group (race or people) is superior. Becerik et al. (2006:5) add that ethnocentrism represents the universal proclivity for people to view their own group as the centre of the universe, to interpret other social units from the perspective of their own group, and to reject persons who are currently dissimilar, while blindly accepting those who are culturally like themselves.

Most studies (Egger 2006:50; Becerik et al., 2006:5) in consumer ethnocentrism claim that consumers have diverse perceptions about products based on stereotyped national images of the country where the product is produced or is perceived to be produced. These perceptions affect consumer attitudes, purchase intentions and behaviours. Burton (2009:82) remarks that consumer ethnocentric tendencies play a significant role when products are perceived to be unnecessary and when consumers believe that their personal or national well-being is threatened by the act of purchasing imports.
In the same vein, Netemeyer et al. (2007:85) and Jung and Kau (2006:142) have shown that consumers in a different culture, who are fundamentally different in their tastes and preferences, perceptions, ordering of needs and motivations to consume, are still sufficiently different even after being exposed to the enormous wave of globalization. According to Netemeyer et al. (2007:85), consumers maintain images and stereotypes about foreign (and their own) countries and that these stereotypes induce a generally negative evaluation of products manufactured in other countries.

Consumer ethnocentrism is influenced by numerous factors. In the paragraph below, this researcher discusses the salient factors that stimulate a consumer’s preference for home-made products as opposed to foreign products.

2.4.2.2.2 Factors that influence consumer ethnocentrism

A wealth of literature has explored the factors that underlie consumer ethnocentrism. Undoubtedly most studies (Helsen and Masaaki, 2009:106; Burton 2008:85 and Kaynak and Jallat 2005:99) tend to focus on three constructs, namely, animosity, economic impact and information related to product of origin. For instance, Kaynak and Jallat’s (2005: 99) study found that consumer animosity conceptualized as the remnants of antipathy related to previous or ongoing military, political or economic events towards current or former enemies affects a consumer’s willingness to buy a specific country’s products.

Kaynak and Jallat (2009:97) argue that consumer emotions of anger and/or fear directed at some nation(s) will prevent a person from buying a country’s products, irrespective of the level of superiority of the product. In Burton’s (2009:84) study, it was found that a practical example is the animosity of Chinese consumers towards Japan which transformed into the unwillingness to purchase Japanese products; an effect viewed as being independent from their judgments about the quality of Japanese products.

A study by Singh (2010:25) suggests that economically some consumers refrain from buying foreign products because purchasing foreign products is perceived as unpatriotic towards the economic threat of foreign competition, which can result in a loss of domestic economic benefits. For instance, Karjaluoto and Kautonen
(2008:176) found that Finnish consumers rated domestic products significantly higher than foreign goods in spite of the fact that most foreign goods in Finland are of superior quality manufactured by major trading nations with dominant positions in world markets. Conversely, according to Chase (2006:74), British consumers evaluate British goods quite high overall, but perceive them as weaker than products from some foreign origins like Germany and Japan across a variety of attributes.

Also, cultural differences though previously unaddressed are an important consideration for consumer ethnocentrism (Cavusgil et al., 2009:85). According to Nguyen et al. (2008: 89) cultural ethnocentrism is a tendency to strongly accept the culturally “alike” and reject the culturally “unlike”. From this viewpoint, Nguyen et al. (2008:90) have found that ethnocentrism is judged from an evaluative perspective; that is, an attitude which evaluates all other cultures by the standards of one’s own culture. According to Ranjbarian et al. (2010:374), this explains why people’s attention to their own cultural identity induces feelings of allegiance to one’s country and increases the tendencies to espouse values common in that culture.

In a similar opinion, Cavusgil et al. (2009:85) maintain that making salient a culture perceived as invasive might increase the threat of cultural incursion and render consumers more defensive and resistant to foreign products. In this regard, Andersen and Taylor (2007: 67) remark that it is possible that members of a subculture would tend to evaluate more favourably products from foreign countries with which they have cultural ties. Also, Hingley and Lindgreen (2009:186) believe that consumers with relatively high levels of ethnocentrism prefer imported products from countries with a culture that is similar to theirs explained by similar traditions, lifestyles, customs, language and even law systems.

While homogeneity and heterogeneity represent contrasting opinions on the effect of globalization on consumer behaviour, a third school of thought argues that globalization enables consumers to protect their cultural values while at the same time perform global consumption practices. This is called hybridization. In the next section, this researcher reviews studies on how hybridization impacts consumption behaviour.
2.4.2.3 Hybridization

Many contemporary scholars (Van Parijs, 2004:374; Ritzer, 2009:255) interested in the globalizing effects of culture support globalization as a cultural hybridization concept. Ritzer (2009:255) posits that globalization emphasises a blend of global and local cultures to produce new unique hybrid cultures that are not reducible to either a local or global culture.

In a historical context, a study by Van Parijs (2004:374) found that cultures have never remained static or isolated. His study has found that throughout human history, people of one society have been influenced by the consumption habits of other societies. Brown and Barter (2007:149) argue that today, these influences have become more evident due to the increasing mobility of people. In Reisinger’s (2009:19) opinion, many people want to preserve their roots while at the same time become global citizens; a process scholars (Steenkamp et al., 2006:230; Mendis, 2007:100) have referred to as “glocalization” (the interpenetration of global and local consumption patterns, resulting in unique outcomes in different geographic areas).

Wu’s (2008:6) study divides cultural hybridization into two parts, namely, physical and chemical. According to Wu (2008:6), physical hybridization involves the co-presence of two different cultural traits or forms, while chemical hybridization assumes the emergence of a new synthetic culture that emerges from the combination of the formerly “pure” cultures. He argues that it is impossible to separate the component elements of the new culture (chemical hybridization) or to reverse the change. Wu (2008:48) maintains that the relationship between the two (local and global cultures) is not unilinear as both of them influence each other. In this regard, Marcel and Neubauer (2010: 473) argue that globalization alone does not determine the shape and character of culture, nor is culture the only influence of globalization.

Niezen (2004:78) argues that it is hard for globalization not to impact on culture and consumer behaviour. His study has looked at the impact of globalization on consumer behaviour in a historical context. Niezen (2004:78) maintains that prior to globalization there existed local, autonomous, distinct and well-defined, robust and culturally sustaining connections which constituted one’s community and cultural identity. Niezen (2004:79) describes this identity as an undisturbed existential
possession, an inheritance and a benefit of traditional long dwelling of continuity with the past. He maintains that globalization has generated a continuous identity crisis; a chronic condition afflicting nations as well as individuals. According to Niezen (2004:78) a permanent area of tension has been created between the danger of losing, distorting and expropriating traditional forms of cultural expression and the need to create new forms.

In this section, this researcher has reviewed scholarship on the effects of globalization on consumption behaviour. The author has advanced contemporary debates on the three main schools of thought, namely, homogeneity, heterogeneity and hybridization that preoccupy contemporary studies in consumer behaviour. While theorists of homogeneity look at globalization as creating a universal consumer, protagonists of cultural heterogeneity maintain that the structure on which the concept of globalization is build ironically reinforces awareness on indigenous cultures. These scholars describe theorists of cultural homogeneity as Western-oriented. Scholars such as Fine (2006:15) see theorists of homogeneity through the lens of the Washington Consensus, which aimed to bring cultural uniformity throughout the world without leaving any scope for diversities. However, advocates of cultural hybridization argue that globalization has instead given rise to ‘mixed’ consumers. That is, people who blend their local consumption practices with global ones.

Therefore, diversity in markets, stimulated and reinforced by global processes presents marketers with enormous challenges as they struggle to devise measures on how to fulfil the expectations of the different markets. One of the compelling changes is the extent to which standardized marketing campaigns can be pursued. It has been argued by Mantrala and Krafft (2008:302) that cultural differences are a logical barrier to standardization of marketing strategies on a global scale; hence a knowledge and understanding of different cultures is indispensable in developing effective marketing strategies across markets. In this regard, the following discussion explores contemporary theoretical arguments on cross-cultural marketing strategies in the retail industry.
2.5 Section four: Cross-cultural retailing and marketing

The various impacts of cultural tendencies on consumption behaviour are of central interest to a wide range of retail marketing studies. This stems from the fact that retailing is one of the world’s largest and most diverse industries, in which the growing wave of migration has inflicted an enormous impact (Dunne and Lusch 2008:17, Mantrala and Krafft, 2008:302).

Solomon (2006: 89) argues that markets have become so homogenized that firms can market identical products and services around the globe through standardized marketing programs. According to Solomon (2009:198), this approach enables companies to benefit from economies of scale because companies do not have to incur a substantial amount of time and expense to develop a separate strategy for each culture. However, Ritzer (2004:238) has emphasised that this measure has achieved a very minimal success rate as a result of the long existing cultural, political and economic differences among nations. Ritzer (2004:238) argues that the growing influence of globalization very much reflects cultural differences; a contradictory opinion to the views of most United States and European scholars. According to Ritzer (2004:239), it is realistic for companies to adopt marketing programs aligned to the local market and environmental conditions, implying that store formats which conform to local shopping and store-choice behaviour will yield better post-entry performance. Ritzer (2004:239) concludes that consumption within the bounds of the world system is always a consumption of identity, thus there is indeed greater heterogeneity which to a large extent is in response to the homogeneity of a consumer culture.

A study by La Roche (2005:133) has shown that irrespective of the massive evolution in the retail industry in the past two decades, retailers have been adamant to take advantage of the changes to establish a customer focus orientation. According to Nwankwo and Rugimbana (2003:118), many retailers are still struggling to develop the competencies needed to compete in the global arena, such as taking advantage of their closeness to customers to develop customised marketing strategies. Nwankwo and Rugimbana (2003:118) also found that generally most contemporary retailers are more product oriented as they attempt to manage an assortment of merchandise in a
profitable manner; with their highest priorities placed on operational concerns and merchandising practices, and not customer management.

In addition, studies (Sinclair, 2007:414; Shimp, 2008:190) maintain that many marketers have placed more emphasis on price, product assortment and diversification across product boundaries and/or across market boundaries so as to stay competitive. According to Schumann (2009:47), this is neither a viable nor a desirable long term strategy for most organisations. Schumann (2009:47) maintains that the only approach to organisational success in today’s highly competitive marketplace is the ability of firms to efficiently fulfil the needs of diverse customers based on cultural standings. An approach which according to Dannehl (2007:12) is paramount in food retailing considering the fact that food is a definitive factor in shaping the cultural attitudes, values and preferences of immigrant groups.

2.5.1 Marketing to immigrants

Recent studies in cross-cultural marketing have shown that cultural norms and values have a strong impact on immigrant food consumption behaviour, service encounter evaluations, service quality expectations, referral behaviour and the nature and strength of customer relationships (Schumann, 2009:47; Macinnis and Hoyer 2008:314).

In the case of the immigrant who is physically, culturally and psychologically removed from familiar surroundings, scholars (Erdem 2007: 11; Felipe and Betty Korzenny, 2005:128) argue that effective marketing communication should be geared at targeting elements of being, belonging and becoming. According to Henkel and Baum (2010:183), success in food retailing depends upon knowledge of local tastes and habits; hence retailers must be sensitive to immigrants’ food needs; not predicated on cultural proximity, but on sound knowledge of cultural differences, including perceptions and behaviour that influence consumer decision-making. In this regard, Macinnis and Hoyer (2008:315) argue that this will greatly enhance the development and implementation of marketing strategies, particularly in those areas of the marketing mix that are highly visible and may act as “culture flags”. These include: brand names, packaging, advertising and perhaps even the choice of retail outlets depending on the latter’s perceived nationality.
Felipe and Betty Korzenny (2005:128) maintain that the exciting factor is that immigrants bring diversity with their cultural traditions and ethnic food customs, exhibited by the arrival of restaurants and stores stocked with food products reflecting their food habits and cooking styles; an ample opportunity for new food product ideas for any food manufacturer. Felipe and Betty Korzenny (2005:128) believe that advertising agencies have to learn, and then employ, quite specific cultural characteristics such as vocabularies as a precondition for advertising specific consumption practices to particular immigrant consumer groups.

Din’s (2006:27) study has found that in the United Kingdom, for instance, some retailing companies have changed in response to the demands brought on by the changing lifestyles of immigrants. Din (2006:27) has also shown that information about the desires, buying habits and any other characterising traits of Pakistani immigrants in the UK have helped retail organisations to develop products to cater for their needs. In the same light, Hingley and Lindgreen (2009:1210) maintain that Asian foods are now widely available in major retail chains in the UK.

2.5.1.1 Strategies for marketing to immigrants
Multicultural researchers such Felipe and Betty Korzenny (2005:128) have criticized the standardized approach of marketing to ethnic markets and advocate ethnically differentiated marketing strategies to appeal to various audiences. According to Macinnis and Hoyer (2008:317) owing to increasing population size and purchasing power of ethnic markets, marketers have recognized the importance of multicultural marketing, and many marketers are using multicultural segmentation and customized marketing strategies and tactics to appeal to ethnic consumers. Thus, in Raju and Xardel’s (2009:50) opinion, retailers and producers whether, multinational or national, should recognise that not all immigrant consumers are alike and therefore should seek to culturally target segments of the population; complacency, of course, leads to ineffective marketing strategies and eventual decline in the bottom line.

Marketers should to try to take advantage of emerging multicultural markets by targeting untapped multicultural marketing opportunities. To do this, they should first investigate multiple facets of identity in a multicultural market, understand how consumers’ cultural identities are related to market and media choices, investigate
attitudinal and behavioural characteristics of specific cultural groups who are likely to constitute distinctive markets in the future, and examine the effectiveness of various communication tools in building relationships with consumers in a multicultural society. Examples include: customized advertising, tailored promotional activities, new product lines and customized product packaging (Burton, 2009:3).

Also, a similar study by Nwankwo and Rugimbaba (3003:63) maintain that other strategies of ethnic marketing include using ethnic spokespersons in ads, hiring ethnic salespeople, employing ethnic language, art, music, national flags, or other cultural symbols, placing a retail outlet in an ethnic community, supporting ethnic community events.

In Schumann’s (2009:47) opinion, to be successful in a multicultural marketplace marketers should recognize marketing changes or “marketing paradigm shifts” in multicultural settings and should effectively adapt to the shifts by refining different functional areas of marketing and advertising. Thus, they should do the following:

a) Share interests with customers
b) Develop specific marketing strategies for different cultures
c) Identify important cultural values and situational identities for distinctive cultural groups
d) Target contact points between consumers and brands
e) Facilitate consumer dialogue by acquiring intensive and extensive information about their target customers.

Thus the study can postulate that the most important job for a multicultural marketer is to develop an essential tool in interpreting cultural differences and similarities in diverse marketing environments.

In this section the researcher has reviewed works on cross-cultural retail marketing. An interesting finding is that many retail companies are still hesitant to adopt customised marketing approaches aimed at satisfying the needs of diverse cultural groups. For the majority of the scholarship reviewed in this section, authors argue that cross-cultural marketing, especially in the case of the immigrant market, is indispensable for the success of any organisation. This stems from the fact that there is increased emphasis among immigrants to preserve their indigenous cultures while
adapting, rather than assimilating, to the new culture. Therefore, it has been opinionated by most of the literature reviewed in this section that marketers should pay attention to a culture’s language of communication, differences in values, concerns, attitudes, product needs, relationship to nature as well as culture’s relationship to power, in order to effectively construct and define marketing strategies. This researcher argues that the main dispute in immigrant retail marketing and advertising should not be about the efficiency of standardization but about the effectiveness of cultural segmentation.

2.6 Section Five: International case studies of immigrant markets

In this section the researcher has explored literature pertaining to two very significant immigrants groups in the world and how the retail industries in their respective countries cater for their needs. These groups are the South Asian market in the United Kingdom and the Hispanics in the United States of America.

2.6.1 South Asian ethnic market in the United Kingdom (U.K)
The U.K is a diverse society with a long history of migration, and it has become increasingly multicultural in the last fifty years. In 2011, the minority group population in the U.K was estimated at 15% of the total U.K population, up from 8% in 2001. This has resulted to an incredible ethnic consumer market in the U.K (Kachru et al., 2008:517).

Dana’s (2007: 253) study has looked at the immigrant food market in the U.K, and according to Dana’s findings, in 2003, ethnic food sales in the U.K via restaurants and takeaways were approximately 3.2 billion pounds of which over half was Indian and a third Chinese. In David’s (2010:104) opinion, the South Asian and Chinese ethnic retail markets account for 70% of the sales in UK’s ethnic retail industry.

The historical connection between Britain and the Indian sub-continent led to a tradition of South Asian immigration to Britain. Since the 1950’s, the size of the South Asian population has increased steadily. ‘South Asia’ is a term used to describe people from the Indian sub-continent primarily from India, Pakistan and Bangladesh.
According to the 2001 census results, 4.0% of the population of the U.K was of Indian descent (Herbert, 2007:15).

A study by Kittler and Sucher (2008:20) remarks that food is probably a strong cultural pillar for any culture, but it does seem to play a very strong role in the South Asian population. According to Kittler and Sucher (2008:21) South Asians commonly feel nostalgic about food from their home countries and desire the same items that they consumed prior to migration, which creates a market niche for selling indigenous food products in the U.K. A report by Mannur (2010:150) has also looked at the reasons why South Asians in the U.K prefer indigenous to local foods. Mannur’s (2010:150) study found that South Asians believe that consuming indigenous food products is a form of cultural expression, it offers public space where cultural divides can be bridged and also provides opportunities for communities to mix. In her opinion, Waxler-Morrison (2005:5) argues that South Asians in the U.K believe that cooking ethnic food at home is cheaper and healthier than getting a takeaway. Thus, Kittler & Sucher (2008:20) maintain that it explains why South Asian immigrants consider cost and authenticity as the most important decision making factors when purchasing ethnic cuisine.

In Shakur and D’Souza’s (2003:99) opinion, mainstream brands in the U.K have historically been minimally focused on specific ethnic audiences. According to Shakur and D’Souza (2003:99) this has partly been driven by the relative size and split of the audiences and also that data is not readily available for brands and their agencies to analyse in order to help determine whether targeting specific audiences would deliver the desired return on investment.

Dowling and Schmude (2007:2) argue that the lack of full commitment by U.K major grocers to satisfy the culinary needs of the South Asian market and the need to be self employed has greatly stimulated a high propensity towards entrepreneurship in the South Asian immigrant community in the U.K. According to Dowling and Schmude (2007:3) South Asians in Britain have traditionally focused on sole trader retail, wholesale, restaurant and business service sectors. For instance, Maxwell (2008:92) reports that in Bradford, there are over 200 South Asian owned restaurants and take-aways providing curries, baltis and tandoori cooking as well as more authentic
representations of Kashmiri and Moghul cuisine. Also, in Procter’s (2003:21) study, it was found that in Bradford there are hundreds of South Asian businesses providing specialty foods as well producers and distributors of ingredients, sauces and ready meals.

Although the majority of South Asian businesses in the U.K are micro or small with less than 10 employees, a few have expanded and grasped opportunities to break out of geographically proximate market boundaries. They have adapted and re-positioned their product offerings in order to attract a wider market nationally or internationally (Herbert, 2007:11). According to a study by Mintel (2009), although Chinese is Britain’s most popular cuisine with Indian coming a close second, in retail sales, Indian comes top, beating Chinese by 189million pounds.

A study by Stiles and Galbraith (2003: 11) remarks that South Asian retailers provide not only the basic staples of Indian cuisine but also fill other vital social functions. According to Stiles and Galbraith (2003:11), South Asian specialist shops act as meeting points for South Asian immigrants and dissemination points for various types of information about different activities in the South Asian immigrant community. Stiles and Galbraith (2003:140) also found that specialist shops in Britain can be compared to the village shop or post office in rural areas, connecting people and providing a sense of community.

A study by Sam and Berry (2006:456) argues that despite most South Asian adults claiming to eat ethnic cuisine in some form, the regularity with which they do so varies, with nearly two thirds only eating ethnic cuisine once a month at most. In a similar study, Atkins (2007: 195) argues that in addition to traditional food preparation practices, South Asians have adopted many other cooking methods and foods as a consequence of acculturation to the host society. According to Atkins (2007:195) others have adopted a tendency of replacing healthier components of the Asian diet (e.g fruits, vegetables and starchy cereal foods) with less desirable components of the Western diet (e.g high fat convenience and snack foods).

British Brand Group (2011:3) maintains that the growth in the South Asian ethnic food retail industry is incredible, with well established indigenous supermarkets like
Mumtaz and Medina Foods. However British Brand Group (2011:3) argues that most South Asian immigrants in the U.K prefer to buy their groceries at supermarkets of U.K’s four major chains. According to British Brand Group (20011:4) South Asian consumers prefer to do groceries of both homogenous and specialist products under one roof rather than visiting different specialist shops. However, Chapman (2002) remarks that its unfortunate that UK’s major supermarket chains do not always stock the necessary specialist products and ingredients required by the majority of South Asian consumers. Thus Phillips et al. (2004:37) posit that with the large changes in the U.K population, it is important for brands to build a more detailed understanding of who is consuming their products or services. According to Phillips et al. (2004:37) by building their knowledge, they will be able to understand the size and needs of the different markets in the U.K.

However, British Brand Group’s Director, John Noble reported in the organisation’s recent publication (British Brand Group 2011:2) that U.K supermarkets meet basic needs well but, for many, other factors have to be compromised in order to benefit from the convenience of “all under one roof”. He adds that “with an increasingly diverse U.K population but an increasingly homogenous retail offer with declining numbers of specialist and convenience stores, high levels of dissatisfaction are only set to increase”. However, Phillips et al. (2004:37) maintain that irrespective of these challenges, U.K’s ethnic foods retail market continues to develop as new cuisines arrive with incoming populations.

2.6.2 Hispanics ethnic market in the United States (U.S)

The Hispanic or Latino consumer market is broken down into persons originating or descending from Mexico, Puerto Rico, Cuba, South America, Central America or other Spanish speaking countries and cultures (Berube et al., 2006:5). The Hispanic population is the largest and fastest growing minority group in the U.S., notably in the Pacific Southwest, increasing both in size and purchasing power (Tienda et al., 2006:28). According to the National Association of Social Workers (2008:50) the general Hispanic consumer segment is estimated at 15% of the US population or 44.3 million consumers. An earlier study by Kipke (1999:48) estimates that the population of Hispanics will reach 25% of the US population by 2050. A study by Perkins
(2004:3) found that Hispanics account for 10 percent of the U.S buying power with higher expenditures on groceries. Perkins (2004:3) argues that the buying power of the Hispanics is the strongest of all ethnic groups in the U.S.

In Lovato’s (2006:43) opinion, food plays a very important role in the Hispanic culture. Lovato (2006: 43) argues that Hispanic shoppers spend more on food purchases because their families are usually big. According to Lovato (2006:44) a total of 54% of American Hispanics live in households with five or more persons.

Perkins (2004:4) adds that Hispanic families are more likely than other families to prepare and serve food at home. Perkins (2004:4) also maintains that cooking at home, scratch cooking and brand loyalty are also identifiable traits of the Hispanic community. According to Parkins (2006: 89) another important characteristic of the Hispanic population is that they are more geographically concentrated than non-Hispanics thus allowing retailers to more easily target the Hispanic ethnic market on the basis of location.

The growth and economic strength of the Hispanic ethnic group has not been overlooked by both specialist and homogenous grocery chains in the U.S (Mendoza de Villa, 2008: 65). According to Lantos (2011:197) most U.S food retailers have dedicated ethnic food aisles/sections in their stores, and they are allocating even more shelf-space to ethnic foods, including Hispanic products. For instance, supermarkets in Hispanic-oriented cities, such as Fiesta Mart, Inc, with locations throughout Texas, are strongly focused on satisfying the needs of the Hispanic market. Also, a study by Soto (2006:14) found that 86% of Hispanics are loyal patrons of Wal-Mart Stores. However, Valdes (2002:185) argues that many Hispanics still prefer smaller grocery stores and convenience stores instead of large supermarkets. Valdes (2002:185) maintains that this is because many Hispanic immigrants come from small towns and villages where the weekly farmer’s market is the common place to do their shopping if food is not grown at home.

In a study conducted by Mendoza de Villa (2008:132) it was found that Hispanic foods are growing in popularity with non-Hispanic consumers and demand for Hispanic foods in U.S restaurants is growing at an incredible rate. Mendoza de Villa (2008: 132) adds that convenience-oriented Hispanics foods are growing in
popularity, especially among the mainstream U.S. population looking for efficient meal solutions.

However, Perkins (2004:59) maintain that despite the growing popularity of the Hispanic market in the U.S, many retailers are faced with a major challenge of accurately understanding this diverse and dispersed population. Perkins (2004:62) maintains that retailers who have failed in their attempt to market to Hispanics have failed to understand the nuances among the Hispanic population.

A study by Michman et al. (2003: 185) found that the Hispanic market may be sharing similar needs but not homogenous. Michman et al. (2003: 185) argue that although some foods and flavours may have a mass appeal throughout the Hispanic market, each country of origin has distinctive foods, differing tastes and preferences which need to be recognized. For example, Pederson (2008:217) argues that Goya Foods, the largest Hispanic-owned food company in the U.S. attributes its success to understanding the different needs of the various Hispanic markets and being able to serve them.

On the other hand, a study by Lee and Roberts (2008:35) maintains that despite the differences in their food needs, Hispanic consumers have some common shopping habits utilized by retailers to deeply understand the market. According to Lee and Roberts (2008:35) Hispanic shoppers look for fresh and authentic fruits and vegetables and also check prices, quality and service in their food decision making process. Nevertheless Mueller (2008:16-20) argues that the food practices and shopping preferences among Hispanics vary widely depending on their level of acculturation – how they are adapting to their new culture and surroundings. Lee and Roberts (2008:36) add that more acculturated Hispanics tend to purchase American foods that require less preparation, including frozen entrees and fast foods. A study by Patel and Rushefsky’s (2008: 94) uncovered that among Hispanics, acculturation has been found to be associated with health related risks such as dietary and nutrition behaviours as well as alcohol and drug abuse.

Nevertheless, the increasing population of Hispanics and their purchasing power has greatly influenced the U.S marketplace. Plus, the culinary influence of this minority group is dramatically affecting how all Americans, especially specialty food consumers eat.
2.7 Section Six: Summary of the chapter

This chapter has reviewed literature on a broad range of theoretical underpinnings on consumption behaviour with particular reference to immigrants. The researcher has explored the main themes in four sections in a bid to stimulate a deeper understanding of contemporary frameworks in the food consumption behaviour of immigrants in host countries. Very important findings and theoretical arguments have been advanced by scholars who have made significant contributions to the body of knowledge in consumer behaviour. However, some of these studies are not without a few conceptual, empirical, structural and methodological vacuums.

It is worthy to mention that the quality of arguments advanced in the different theories discussed in the collection of scholarship reviewed in this chapter is indicative of the profound challenges involved in studying the consumption behaviour of target markets. Not only does it require consideration of a wide range of theoretical material and perceptions, but like many aspects of human behaviour, it is very difficult to deal in absolutes. It is also one of the most difficult, dynamic, challenging and frustrating areas of study. In this concluding section of the chapter, this researcher looks at the major arguments discussed in the four sections of the chapter.

2.7.1 Main arguments in section one

As reported in the introduction of this chapter, the literature reviewed was focused on establishing culture’s impact on consumption behaviour. This emanated from the fact that cultural values have been advanced by numerous studies as the primary influence of immigrants’ food consumption behaviour. Prior to exploring the dynamics of culture and its effects on consumption the researcher took an insightful discussion on migration. Numerous studies (Manning, 2005:5; Keeley, 2009:10) assert that there is a very high population of immigrants in the world today; mostly from sub-Saharan Africa. Factors such as conflicts, economic crisis, natural disasters, diseases, and education have been advanced as the reasons for migration, with economic reasons having a foothold.

However, scholars argue that as the number of immigrants increases globally, so too are the challenges faced by immigrants prior to and on arrival in the host country.
Examples of challenges faced by immigrants in the host country include: lack of shelter, food, medical care, loss of family relations, unfamiliar food products and methods of consumption, xenophobia, stringent residential regulations and unemployment. As a result, immigrants are compelled to devise strategies that can enable them to adapt to the customs of the host society. The two adaptation methods advanced by the works reviewed in this chapter are acculturation and assimilation. Scholars have also argued that the challenges encountered by immigrants in the host country greatly strengthen their connections back home in what has been described as “transnationalisation”.

It is important to note that the different methods of immigrant adaptation are indicative of the fact that the welfare of immigrants is affected by and dependent on, directly or indirectly, by the cultural ways of the host society. In this light, this study argues that adaptation should be viewed as a collaborative partnership between the minority and mainstream population; one in which the immigrant’s well-being is also in the interest of the overall cohesiveness of the host country’s socio-cultural system. This does not imply that the immigrant becomes a “native” or blindly accommodates the local cultural norms and practices. Rather, it is to recognise the fact that, for the most part, local cultural norms and practices, even those that are incompatible with the immigrant’s core values, are upheld by local people for a reason.

A noticeable aspect in the adaptation literature reviewed in this study is that in some of the studies, the meanings of adaptation and assimilation are unclear. Sometimes, what is meant by acculturation is actually assimilation. In other studies, assimilation is one of the methods of acculturation and in some acculturation and ethnic identification are treated synonymously. Such confusions over the concepts have led to varied interpretations of findings posing questions about the validity and the comparability of the results of the different studies.

Another very notable finding in the majority of the studies reviewed is that scholars place a lot more focus on immigration in North America. Very little academic studies have examined the substantial volumes of people who cross between many different cultural environments, especially to South Africa.
2.7.2 Main arguments in section two

In section two, this researcher has reviewed scholarship on consumption and culture. The researcher commences by defining culture and consumption. The role and importance of culture in consumption has also been examined, followed by arguments on the relationship between food and culture pertaining to communication and cultural representation. Finally, the researcher looked at theoretical constructs on immigrant food consumption behaviour as well as a detailed insight on the factors that enable immigrants to adjust or modify their indigenous food consumption patterns in the host country.

It is important to highlight that the majority of the studies examined in this section appreciate the fact that culture primarily influences the consumption behaviour of consumers with a lot more emphasis on food consumption. These studies, with special reference to Becerik et al. (2006: 5), Egger (2006: 50), Monye (1999: 22) and Ho-Joo (2007: 8) ascertain that consumption of products is not a passive process, but an active one involving the consumption of signs and symbols (of meaning) and works like a language that is rooted in a system of meaning. Most researchers contributing to this body of work take the position that food tastes and practices are particularly good vehicles for cultural distinctions and identity. Special reference is made to the relevance of Bobo’s (2001: xviii) argument where he maintains that food is an ideal medium for examining the influence of social relations where the values, traditions, mores and enduring historical linkages of life are cultivated and preserved.

However, in this section, the researcher noticed that the majority of the studies lack a clearer understanding of how respective immigrant cultures impact the activities of immigrants in the host society. Many of the works have adopted constructs developed in a North American or European context and have then adapted these, where appropriate for use with other samples. Foner (2009:29) maintains that a notable example is the use of non-Chinese instruments by Western scholars to measure the consumption behaviour of Chinese immigrants in host societies like the US and Canada. This has compelled scholars like Liamputtong (2008:16) to argue that researchers must have a thorough understanding and knowledge of social, familial, cultural, religious, historical and political backgrounds of the sample population and, in some situations their communication styles, before embarking on cross-cultural
studies. According to Liamputtong (2008:16), it is often necessary that those who undertake cross-cultural studies are “insiders”, that is, those who share the same social, cultural, and linguistic characteristics as the research participants.

2.7.3 Main arguments in section three

In section three of this chapter, this researcher explores the opinions of a myriad of scholars on the relationship between globalization, consumption and culture. In the opening paragraph, the researcher looks at the definitions of globalization in relation to the study. This is followed by an exploration of theoretical arguments on the impact or effects of globalization on consumer behaviour. The researcher took a detailed examination of the three fundamental theories on the impact of globalization on consumer behaviour. These include: homogenization, heterogenization and hybridization.

While theorists of cultural homogeneity argue that globalization creates standardized consumers, advocates of cultural heterogeneity report that, instead, globalization stimulates cultural awareness, hence heterogeneous consumers. Theorists of cultural heterogeneity maintain that Western oriented studies (homogeneity) overlook the extent to which the interactions between particular communities and the larger society can be effective in both directions. Equally, they maintain that protagonists of cultural standardization have overlooked the antagonism between the West and other countries, especially in the Muslim world, which has inflicted a profound effect on the consumption of goods and services manufactured in the West.

More recently, the implications of Western-oriented standardized consumer behaviour has given rise to the development of a more thorough going view of contemporary consumer culture, called “cultural hybridization”. Contrary to advocates of homogeneity and heterogeneity, advocates of consumption hybridization posit that the growing rise of globalization has given rise to a blend of indigenous and global consumption patterns.

An important argument advanced in some of the literature is that standardized consumption patterns are largely evident in the use of technological (and not food) products. These scholars argue that recently, numerous dangers of globalization such
as additives, the unknown origin, potential genetic modifications and the homogenization of tastes have largely enforced the cultural reasons for food consumption. Therefore, according to these scholars, the foods that one ought to acquire a taste for and enjoy are those that are produced and locally grown.

2.7.4 Main arguments in section four

In this section, the researcher examined a wealth of literature on cross-cultural marketing. Also, two main theories were examined, namely, standardized and segmented marketing. While theorists of standardization advocate homogeneous marketing strategies on a global scale, theorists of cultural segmentation maintain that marketing campaigns and strategies should be tailored towards satisfying the needs, preferences and tastes of consumers of diverse cultural backgrounds.

An oversight in the studies examined in this section is that there is no mention of marketing strategies tailored to fulfilling the culinary needs of immigrants in the host country. In addition, some of the marketing literature lacks a comprehensive theory on how variations in consumption behaviours can be explained across different immigrant groups. In other words, the existing marketing models are short of a full account of how specific cultural dimensions affect specific consumption behaviour patterns.

It is noteworthy to highlight that Hofstede’s (1997) framework on cross-cultural consumer behaviour is largely used in most marketing studies as the foundation upon which most cross-cultural marketing strategies should be based. This researcher sees this as an oversight in the sense that the basis on which Hofstede’s theory is used as the most suitable marketing framework has not been rigorously tested. This researcher argues that one of the foundations of scientific research is to rigorously test and measure theories in order to ascertain reliability and validity. This study also argues that marketers need an empirical understanding (and not assumptions) of exactly what it is that the cultural consumer is seeking (especially immigrants) to achieve through consumption before entering the immigrant market. Only once this understanding has been achieved can immigrant market segments be effectively defined and targeted and appropriate advertising and promotional appeals designed.
2.7.5. Main arguments in section five

Section five has looked at the South Asian market in the U.K and the Hispanic market in the U.S. The main arguments in the wealth of literature reviewed revealed that both immigrant groups have very strong purchasing powers causing enormous positive impact on the economies of the respective host countries. Secondly, cultural foods play a very important role in the well being of the groups and both groups prefer cooking their foods at home from scratch. Nevertheless, while there is so much attachment to cultural foods, adaptation to the cultures of the host countries has made some of the immigrants in both groups to develop more interest in western foods. It is also important to highlight that in the U.S major grocers have committed themselves fully to the satisfaction of the needs of the Hispanic market whereas in the U.K, major supermarket chains are only partly involved in catering for the culinary needs of the South Asian population. As a consequence, South Asians have developed a propensity towards entrepreneurship. Equally, numerous specialist stores exist in the U.S that caters for the indigenous foods of the Hispanics.

In a nutshell, this literature review has examined migration, the challenges of migration and how immigrants adapt to the challenges in the host country. It has also looked at the role of culture on food consumption and how globalization impacts on the cultural consumption patterns of individuals. The chapter looked at marketing in the globalization era and the marketing strategies necessary for marketing products to immigrants. Finally the author has explored the South Asian and Hispanic ethnic markets in the UK and US respectively. In this light, a contextual analysis of consumer behaviour is discussed in the next chapter.
CHAPTER THREE

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

3.1 Introduction

Without any doubt, research (Liampoutong, 2008:16; Felipe and Betty Korzenny, 2005:128) has demonstrated that an organisation’s marketing campaign will be futile without knowledge and understanding of the consumption behaviour of its target consumers. According to Felipe and Betty Korzenny (2005:128), all behaviours occur in specific contexts, which include the immediate physical environment and the social environment; thus understanding consumer decision-making requires a careful attention of the context in which the decision occurs. Based on this premise, this study argues that the key to establishing a food consumption behaviour model of the sub-Saharan African market in South Africa is by deeply exploring the consumption behaviour of the market.

Several perspectives or models of consumer behaviour have been postulated in the consumer behaviour literature. Irrespective of the variations in the precise construction, a general approach to consumer behaviour has been constructed to explain the consumption behaviour of targets. This study has applied the universal consumer behaviour approach to establish a food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. The approach consists of two parts. The first part deals with the factors that influence consumer behaviour, while the second part looks at the consumer decision-making process.

This chapter is divided into two sections. Section one examines the theories that gave birth to the universal consumer behaviour concept, while section two explores the two parts of the universal consumer behaviour concept used as the framework of this study.

3.2 Section one: Prior theories of consumer behaviour

In this section the researcher explores the pre-existing theories of consumer behaviour. In other words, the theories that have been combined and filtered to
produce the standard consumer behaviour concept discussed in section two of this chapter. However, prior to exploring the pre-existing consumer behaviour models, it is imperative to look at the definitions and importance of the study of consumer behaviour.

3.2.1 Consumer behaviour defined

The marketing concept starts with the consumer and ends with the consumer. The consumer is the kingpin around which all the entire business activities revolve. A consumer is usually thought of as a person who buys a product or service for the monetary consideration on prices, at a place convenient for him, in order to satisfy his needs. Therefore, all the numerous activities involved in an organisation’s marketing campaign have one objective - to fulfil the needs and desires of the customer (Aspers, 2006:12; Kumar and Tyagi, 2004:1).

This makes the study of consumer behaviour imperative for any marketing success. But what is consumer behaviour? Khan (2007:2) defines consumer behaviour as “the decision making process and physical activity involved in acquiring, evaluating, using and disposing of goods and services”. According to Khan, this definition depicts that the consumer behaviour process does not only entail the buying of goods and services, but the process actually starts much earlier, that is, before the goods are acquired.

For Reddy and Naik (1999:3), consumer behaviour is defined as “an individual directly involved in obtaining and using economic goods and services, including the decision processes that precede and determine these acts”. In effect, Reddy and Naik (1999:3) maintain that, it involves the study not only of what people consume, but when, how often, and under which conditions goods and services are consumed.

Cant et al. (2006:2) maintain that consumer behaviour “is the mental and physical activities undertaken by households and business customers that result in decisions and actions to pay for and use of products and services”.

Macinnis and Hoyer (2008:3) believe that consumer behaviour is “the totality of consumers’ decisions with respect to the acquisition, consumption, and disposition of goods, services, time, and ideas by human decision making units over time”.
According to Macinnis and Hoyer (2008:3), consumer behaviour involves more than just the way that a person buys tangible products such as a book or a car. It also includes consumers’ use of services, activities, experiences and ideas such as going to the doctor. They also posit that another example of consumer behaviour involves choices about the use of time, such as whether to watch a certain television programme (and for how long) and the use of time in ways that show who we are and how we are different from others.

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Figure 2: Defining consumer behaviour

Figure 2 is an illustration of Macinnis and Hoyer’s definition of consumer behaviour. It explains the manner in which a consumer perceives the idea of getting a product, how he gets the product and the way he uses and gets rid of the product when no longer in use. Looking at the figure above, the first column (The totality of decisions) deals with whether, what, why, how, when, where, how much, how often, and how long goods and services are acquired. In the second column (about the consumption) Macinnis and Hoyer (2008) explain how goods and services are acquired used and disposed. The third column (of an offering) refers to products, services, activities, experiences, people and ideas. The fifth column (decision making units) looks at the information gatherer, influencer, decider, purchaser and user of the goods and services.
and the last column (over time) refers to hours, days, weeks, months and years of the consumer decision-making process.

Therefore, in the context of this study, the author defines sub-Saharan African immigrant consumer behaviour as the totality of the decisions made by immigrants about acquisition, usage and disposal of food products in South Africa over time.

The myriad of definitions is reflective of the immense importance of the study of the consumption behaviour of a market. Therefore, in the next paragraph, the author examines the importance of the study of consumer behaviour.

3.2.2 The importance of studying consumer behaviour

The importance of understanding the consumption behaviour of a market cannot be overemphasised. This is because different consumers have different needs, tastes and preferences. Also, factors such as globalization, migration, income distribution, household sizes and demographic factors play a tremendous role in shaping the consumption behaviour of target markets.

Thus, studying the consumption behaviour of a market assists the marketer in achieving the following:

(a) Discovering new market opportunities.

(b) Providing a sharper segmentation of the market and meaningful product differentiation; and

(c) Formulating marketing strategies based on customer responses (Uhls and Anderson, 2004:66).

Therefore, the questions of why, how, when, what and where relating to the marketing mix variables (product, price, place, and promotion) can not be answered without a thorough knowledge and understanding of the consumption behaviour of the target market. A marketer who understands how consumers respond to different products, prices and advertising campaigns definitely has an enormous advantage over his/her
competitors. That is, the marketer can easily predict how consumers will react to new products, prices and changes in promotional campaigns (McDaniels et al., 2008:146).

A study of the consumption behaviour of a market is not only limited to corporate organisations. It is equally important to Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs), Governments and the academic community. For instance, it enables NGOs to know and understand the needs and preferences of the communities they represent. Governments will be able to draft policies that provide services to the people and to establish laws that protect consumers against the malpractices of manufacturers. Also, the academic community will be able to disseminate knowledge about consumer behaviour when they teach courses on the subject and also generate knowledge on the behaviour of markets when research is conducted on how consumers act, think, and feel when acquiring, using and disposing of offerings (Blackwell et al., 2006: 9; Sciffmann and Kanuk, 2010:22).

The immense importance of consumer behaviour has stimulated the minds of scholars to advance theories on how consumers behave with regards to acquisition, usage and disposition of goods and services. In the following paragraph, the researcher examines the theories that have been advanced to explain consumer behaviour. As indicated in paragraph 3.2, these theories are the foundation of the universal consumption behaviour model used to establish a food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

3.2.3 The theories of consumer behaviour

The complexities in the study of consumer behaviour have yielded several models over the years in a bid to explain consumer behaviour. These theories include: economic, psychological, social, Gestalt, cognitive dissonance, Howard Sheth, Engel Blackwell and Kollat and Nicosia theories

3.2.3.1 The economic theory

Theorists of the economic model of consumer behaviour believe that the consumer is a rational creature who has perfect information about the market, fully aware of his desires and needs and able to determine the best way to satisfy them. The economic
theory maintains that the customer’s buying decision is guided by the principles of utility maximization in order to maximize his satisfaction. The theory argues that the lower the price of the product the higher its sales and the lower the price of the substitutes the lower the sales of the product. It also posits that the higher the consumers’ income, the higher the sales of products especially if the product is not of an inferior quality (Hisrich, 2000:120, Langston, 2004: 95-96).

Theorists of the economic model believe that the market is a collection of homogenous buyers who behave in a similar fashion under a set of conditions and every buying decision is a logical process with the ultimate intention of obtaining optimum value for the money they spend (Kihonna and Jain, 2006: 83, Vitale, 2006:47; Rima (2000: 361-62).

Though the model of the economic man may help us to understand certain aspects of buyers’ behaviour, Kokkoris and Loannis Lianos (2010:205) posit that it cannot be applicable in real life situations. Kokkoris and Loannis Lianos (2010:205) believe that the market consists of diverse consumers who do not think in a similar fashion. These authors argue that the economic theory deals with only the price and income influence on consumer behaviour and ignores many other aspects such as perceptions, attitudes, motivation, personality, the learning process, social class and culture.

3.2.3.2 The psychological model (The Pavlovian learning model)

This model has its origin with a classical Russian psychologist called Ivan Pavlov. The model is based on experiments in which the feeding of a dog was preceded by the sound of a bell and found that dogs behave in a conditioned manner. Pavlov’s theory is related to behaviour producing stimulus (bell ringing) and behaviour response (salivation). The model suggests that human behaviour is based on four fundamental factors – drives, cues, responses and reinforcements which determine the human needs and need satisfying behaviour. The cue is a weak stimulus in the environment determining when, where and how an individual responds to a drive. The way an individual reacts to a stimulus is known as a response. If the response to a given stimulus is rewarding, it reinforces the possibility of a similar response when faced with the same stimulus or cue (Reddy and Naik: 1999: 8; Hisrich, 2000: 114).
The theory relates consumer behaviour to a learning process. This implies that a consumer’s response to a product is likely to depend on his experience and level of knowledge about the product or service (Kokkoris and Loannis Lianos, 2010:206). However, studies by Ewen (2003:334) and Blythe (2008: 217) argue that learning is not a perfect predictor of behaviour because a variety of other factors also influence a consumer’s buying process. Ewen (2003:334) argues that a pattern of repeatedly purchasing the same brand may be disrupted as a consumer may be influenced by advertisement or may desire variety or novelty.

3.2.3.3 Psycho-analytic model

This model is the brain child of Sigmund Freud. In fact the model has added a new dimension in consumer behaviour – the use of psychological elements in consumer decision-making. The model suggests that human needs operate at various levels of consciousness. These include: Id, ego and super-ego. Freud argues that instinctive needs present in the Id and the super-ego contains values and limit actions on ethical and moral considerations. Ego mediates between the unrestrained needs of the Id and social constraints of super-ego (Reddy and Naik: 1999: 8-9; Vitale, 2006: 50).

Sigmund Freud’s school of thought enables marketers to understand individual’s primary aim for purchasing a particular product or brand. This implies that marketers are aware that buyers are motivated by symbolic as well as economic functional products. It also enables marketers to realise that they must provide consumers with socially acceptable rationalization for their purchase (Greco et al., 2003:121).

3.2.3.4 Veblenian social psychoanalytic model

According to Veblen’s school of thought, man is a social animal thus his behaviour is influenced by the cultural and social norms which the society has and in which the consumer is living. He argues that man’s wants and behaviours are largely moulded by his present group membership and the group membership to which he aspires. Thus, man’s attitudes and behaviour are influenced by several levels of society, culture, sub-cultures, social classes, reference groups and family (Greco et al., 2003: 121).
The Veblenian model enables marketers to be aware of the importance of social influences on individuals’ tastes and preferences. The challenge to the marketer is to determine which of these social levels are most important in influencing the demand for his product (Greco et al., 2003: 121).

### 3.2.3.5 The Gestalt theory

The Gestalt theory argues that an individual perceives products and ideas as part of the whole instead of isolated or segregated segments. The theory aims at understanding and explaining phenomena that are perceived as possessing qualities which transcend the sum of their elements and which are unable to be described only in terms of their elements. According to this theory, stimuli are perceived in relation to the organisation of one’s experience. In other words, every individual tends to organise parts of information and ideas into a whole, so as to respond to stimuli. This is because perceptions based on parts differ from that based on whole (Dacko, 2008: 231).

Gestalt believes that the marketer should attempt to avoid an action which by itself may not be negative, but becomes so when combined with other parts of action already initiated or likely to be initiated. This is because consumers will not think of only one action of the marketer but the totality of the action (Reddy and Naik, 1999:10; Dacko 2008: 231).

### 3.2.3.6 Theory of cognitive dissonance

The theory was founded by Festinger and is based up on the premise that people have a need for order and consistency in their lives and that tension is created when beliefs or behaviours conflict with one another. A state of dissonance occurs when there is a psychological inconsistency between two or more beliefs or behaviours, and people tend to reduce this dissonance by finding arguments to convince themselves that their behaviour was right (Cooper, 2007:117).

A consumer facing post-purchase decision anxiety will attempt to reassure himself by obtaining information in support of the product purchased or avoid sources of information which increases dissonance or may seek information about the negative
attributes of the rejected products and positive attributes of the product purchased (Oliver, 2010: 282-283).

3.2.3.7 The Howard Sheth model

The Howard Sheth model presents numerous factors in attempting to explain consumer behaviour. The model explains what happens between stimuli (input) and the action or behaviour (output). According to this model, four sets of variables are deemed to determine consumer behaviour. These are:

(a) Stimuli; that is, input variables from the social environment and the marketing campaign of a firm).

(b) Internal variables that together show the state of the buyer (buyer’s motives, attitudes, experiences and perceptions).

(c) Exogenous variables that affect the internal state of the buyer (these include social class, culture, time pressure and financial status of the buyer); and

(d) Response; that is output variables (buyer’s behaviour based upon interaction of the first three sets of variables) (Varey, 2002:48; Majundar, 2010: 231).

3.2.3.8 Engel Blackwell and Kollat model

This model treats an individual as a system with outputs that respond to inputs. The model recognises the existence of intervening variables between initial inputs and final outputs. The Engel Blackwell and Kollat model takes into account an individual’s psychological makeup (personality, attitudes, stored information, learning experiences and evaluation criteria) as well as environmental inputs that affect individual behaviour (Paramaswaran, 2003: 24; Olson & Reynolds, 2001: 415).

The model involves four basic components: central control unit, information processing, the decision process and environmental influences. The central control unit consists of stored information and experience, evaluation criteria, attitudes and personality that affect a person’s mental process. The information processing component consists of the consumer’s exposure, attention, comprehension and
retention relating to the product or brand. The decision process component of the model is the environmental influence which affects the consumer at various stages in the decision-making process. The main environmental factors are income, culture, family and social class. Situational factors such as consumers’ financial position also influence the decision-making process (Maclaran et al., 2009:65).

3.2.3.9 The Nicosia model

Francesco M. Nicosia is a leading scholar in the study of consumer behaviour. His model concentrates on the communication process that occurs between a firm and a consumer. It uses a flow of events, tracing through a sequence of stages and each stage is identified as a field. There are four stages in the model. Stage one is divided into two sub-stages or fields. The first subfield includes consumers’ attributes and communication efforts. The second subfield includes consumers’ attributes which affect his reception of the firm’s message. Stage two represents a search for and an evaluation of the advertised products in comparison to other alternatives. In stage three the consumers’ motivation towards the advertised products result in the actual purchase of the product. Finally, stage four deals with the use of the purchased item and the output is fed back to the firm as stimulus and to the consumer, the consequence of the purchase is stored in his/her memory (Maclaran et al., 2009:65, Reddy and Naik, 1999: 13).

Though several frameworks have been put forward to explain consumer behaviour, none of the theories is grounded enough to independently explain the complexities in consumer behaviour. As a result, scholars have sifted the main elements of the models to devise a generalised framework that explains the dynamics of consumption behaviour. In the next section, the author undertakes an insightful examination of the dynamics of the general concept of consumer behaviour.

3.3 Section two: The universal consumer behaviour framework

This study adopts the general consumer behaviour framework to explain the food consumption behaviour of immigrants in their host country. In other words the framework attempts to illustrate how immigrants make decisions pertaining to their food requirements in the “foreign environment ”. Thus, it is imperative for marketers
to have an insightful understanding of immigrants’ consumption behaviour if they have to satisfy their food needs. This implies that marketers need to know what the immigrants’ food needs are, what they think about these foods, how they consume these foods, what portion of their income is allocated for these needs and what factors influence their decisions. In this light, the general consumer behaviour framework is divided into two main parts, namely, the factors that influence consumer behaviour and the consumer decision-making process.

3.3.1 Factors that affect consumer behaviour

Two main sets of factors influence consumer behaviour. They are individual and group or social factors.

3.3.1.1 Individual determinants of consumer behaviour

Consumers have a perceptual map that influences every part of their lives including their consumer decision process. At each stage of the consumer decision process, personal variables such as gender, age, income, lifestyle, personality, attitude, motivation, beliefs, mood and learning affect how consumers make choices to buy and use goods and services.

3.3.1.1.1 Age

It goes without saying that the consumers’ preferences and tastes undergo considerable changes with age. The way we perceive age varies from culture to culture and from one historical period to another. Thus cultural influences shape how humans perceive age and also shape their food consumption behaviour (Samovar et al., 2009:62). Therefore, in different cultures, taste and demand for various food products will change as the person grows. The food requirements of an older person differ significantly from those of younger ones in different cultural settings. Therefore, understanding the age structure in the context of culture provides insights on the types of food products that will be bought and consumed by people in different societies (Sandhusen, 2008:124).
3.3.1.2 Income

Income is one of the factors that greatly influence consumption patterns and product choice. It determines why, what, and when people buy. A consumer’s lifestyle can change if his income increases or decreases. Market studies show that as a consumer’s disposable income increases, he/she is more apt to spend money on his/her wants rather than his/her needs (Quester et al., 2004: 185).

The cultural values and practices of a society also plays and important role in how people generate income as well as how they spend their income on food products. For instance the food consumption behaviour of many low income Africans are believed to contain a set of cultural values and traditions consistent with the African world view (Samovar et al., 2009:66).

Although income determines what consumers can buy, it does not determine what they want to buy. An individual may aspire to buy certain foods but his/her income may become a restriction. On the other hand, a consumer may have an unlimited amount of income and so he/she may be able to buy what ever type of food he/she wants (Sandhusen, 2008:124; Blackwell, 2006:256).

3.3.1.3 Gender

Gender is a pervasive filter through which individuals experience their social world and consumption activities are fundamentally gendered (Martens, 2009:45, McDaniel et al., and 2000:166). Culture has an enormous impact on gender in many societies. In some societies, the cultural values determine the food choices of men and women. For instance in West Africa, certain animal parts are only eaten by men. Also, there is a great deal of evidence that males and females in India do not receive equal allocations of foods. These cultural practices influence people’s behaviour towards food consumption, what they think about what food products to eat and how they view themselves and others in society (Samovar et al., 2009:62).
3.3.1.4 Personality

Personality is defined as the hierarchically related set of intra-psychic constructs that reveal consistency across time and combines with situations to influence the feelings, thoughts, intentions, and behaviour of individuals (Mowen, 2000:15-24).

Culture and personality are interdependent and track along an interconnected path. Cultural values influence the development of personalities. In other words, culture stimulates the growth and development of personal or social identity as it relates to the surrounding social environment. This plays an important role in establishing the food preferences of an individual as well as his/her food consumption behaviour (Cowan et al., 1986:7).

Therefore, personality enables marketers to identify how customers view themselves. Also, because some personality traits may be related to food consumption behaviour, marketers can develop offerings that appeal to various types of personality (Majumdar, 2010:111).

3.3.1.5 Mood

It has been shown that mood affects the shopper’s perception of the store, the amount of time spent shopping and the number of items purchased (Macinnis and Hoyer, 2008: 161). Cultural values and beliefs play an important role in dictating the mood of an individual. An individual’s food needs are determined by his/her cultural values. For instance, when his/her expectations of food are not met as designed by his/her culture, the individual finds him/her self in a bad mood (Dingman, 2008:49).

Consumers in a bad mood are likely to feel worse and downgrade their judgments of the product being sold, especially when they interact with salespeople who seem to be unhappy (unless the decision is so important that they are motivated to shake off the effects of their bad mood) (Macinnis and Hoyer, 2008: 161).

Equally, when the individual’s food needs are satisfied as established by his/her cultural beliefs and practices the individual is often in a good mood (Dingman, 2008:50).
Consumers in a good mood are more likely to like a brand, product or service. A good mood can act as a resource by increasing elaboration, helping consumers think creatively and see relationships among brands (Macinnis and Hoyer, 2008: 161).

Also, consumers in a good mood tend to give more weight to positive information when evaluating food and other products, whereas consumers in a bad mood give more weight to negative information (Christensen and Flemming 2007: 72).

3.3.1.6 Memory

Memory refers to the process of retention of information about past events and ideas. Culture has a great impact on an individual’s memory. Culture operates as a lens that directs attention and filters the processing of the environment into memory (Assmann and Livingstone, 2006:155)

In other words, an individual’s cultural values and beliefs determine how the individual learns, encode, stores and retrieves information on food products that meet his/her cultural expectations. This greatly plays an important role in a consumer’s choice of food products and food consumption behaviour (Majumdar, 2010:91; Brenner, 1990: 78; Mullen and Johnson, 1990: 31).

3.3.1.7 Self concept

Self concept is defined as the totality of the thoughts and feelings of an individual about him or herself. Despite the varying social roles that consumers manifest on a daily basis, every consumer has an image of him/herself as a certain kind of person, with certain traits, habits, possessions, relationships and ways of behaving (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2010:164; Stanton et al., 2001:111).

Culture has an amazing impact on self concept. A consumer’s self concept or image is developed by an individual’s cultural values and setting. These includes interaction with other people, initially with his/her parents, then other individuals or groups that the individual relates with over the years such as friends, peer groups, colleagues at work and others in the culture that the individual resides in (Cant et al., 2006:170; Bordens and Horowitz, 2002:38).
Therefore, an individual’s choice of food products and food consumption behaviour is based on the fact that the symbolic value of the products and consumption behaviour is congruent with his/her personal picture or image of him/herself as designed by his/her cultural values. Thus, consumers use products to preserve and enhance their self image and avoid those that do not (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2010:165).

3.3.1.8 Lifestyle

Lifestyle is a popular concept for understanding consumer behaviour, perhaps because it is more contemporary than personality and more comprehensive than values. At times, lifestyle is reflective of the self-image. It represents the external characteristics that pertain to how a consumer lives. That is, the activities he engages in, his habits, his possessions, the interests he expresses, and what he sees as value in his life which is reflected in the way he spends his time and money (Quester et al., 2004:200).

Culture and lifestyle are the biggest factors affecting food consumption behaviour in all societies. An individual’s lifestyle is greatly influenced by his cultural values and belief system. It influences his/her food choices and consumption behaviour. In other words, an individual’s choice of food products and food consumption behaviour are a characteristic of a particular social, ethnic or age group (Bordens and Horowitz, 2002:375).

Figure 3: The influence of lifestyle
Figure 3 illustrates how lifestyle can influence rational thinking and logic used by consumers in purchasing and consuming goods. It depicts that an individual’s lifestyle determines what, when, how, where, and with whom to purchase goods and services. It also influences where, how, when, what and with whom a consumer consumes goods and services.

3.3.1.9.9 Motivation

One of the fundamental questions that companies must answer about consumer behaviour is, “why do people buy our products?” The answer is because he or she experiences a need. All behaviour starts with a need. Consumer motivation represents the drive to satisfy both physiological and psychological needs through product purchase and consumption (Stanton et al., 2001: 106; Pettitt and Brassington, 2003:112; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2010: 106).

Culture is so vital because it builds up values that essentially are the fuel for an individual’s needs. Cultural values motivate an individual’s need for different food products thereby influencing his/her food consumption behaviour. Thus culture stimulates an individual’s motive to seek satisfaction from the consumption of certain food products (Ginsberg and Wlodkowski, 2009:394).

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![Figure 4: The motivation process](source: Adapted from Schiffman L.G. and Kanuk, L. K. 2010. Consumer Behaviour. (10th Ed). Toronto: Prentice Hall. p107)
Figure 4 illustrates how consumer behaviour is impacted by the desire to satisfy unfilled needs, wants, and desires. This creates tension within the individual which stimulates a drive to achieve the needs.

3.3.1.10 Attitude

An attitude is a learned predisposition to behave in a consistently favourable or unfavourable way with respect to an object. In the realm of marketing, an attitude can be defined as a relatively lasting cluster of feelings, beliefs and behavioural tendencies that are directed toward a specific product, person, idea, object or group (Lake, 2009:100; Pligt and Eiser, 1988: 26).

Cultural values influence attitudes and behaviours individually and collectively. The attitudes of individuals towards foods and food consumption vary from culture to culture. It is also linked to personal experiences and the influence of family and friends in the individual’s cultural setting (Moore and Isen, 1990: 155, Grunert, 2000:120; Dierks, 2005:24 ;). Cultural differences affect immigrants’ attitudes about food and their ability to understand, manage and cope with foreign foods (Albarracin et al., 2005:249).

a) Beliefs

This is the cognitive component of consumer attitudes. It represents the opinion or the way someone ‘thinks’, which helps that person form the point of view that is reflected in his attitude towards a product (Pettitt and Brassington, 2003:115).

Belief formation is a complex process that starts from the cognitive learning a consumer gains from his environment (Pettitt and Brassington, 2003:115). It is formed as a result of the inference a consumer derives from various aspects of his life in the culture in which he resides. It involves his own observations, learning from his family, peer group, media and the environment surrounding him (Majumdar, 2010:88; Sharma, 2006: 56; Dierks, 2005:77).

Cultural beliefs modify our behaviour all the time. Cultural Beliefs can be powerful forces that shape and affect an individual’s food choices and food consumption.
behaviour. These beliefs lead to attitude formation, which governs the way a consumer acts persistently in his food buying behaviour and consumption (Albarracin et al., 2005:249).

b) Feelings

Consumers’ attitudes may also depend on feelings. The feeling component is the emotive component of consumer attitudes and is derived from emotions that a consumer feels toward a product or service (Lake, 2009:100). The consumer’s feeling is comprised not only of his/her knowledge of a product or service but also of his/her internal emotional evaluation of the product (how he/she “feels” about the product). This helps the consumer to reach a purchase decision about a product or service (Wood, 2009:78).

Feelings are affected and influenced by cultural value systems. Culture has a huge role to play in the way in which feelings are expressed, understood and defined (Wood, 2009:78). Cultural values and practices determine how an individual feels about certain food products. This determines his/her food choices and food consumption behaviour as well as where to buy his food products. For instance when a food product satisfies the need of the individual, he/she feels happy and may always want to buy the product. Equally, when a food product fails to meet her expectations as designed by her cultural values, she feels unhappy and may refrain from consuming the product (Vanhuele et al., 2008: 138).

c) Intention

Behavioural intention is defined as the subjective probability that an individual will perform the behaviour in question. Intent can be looked at as the result of attitude. It is the state of mind at the time the consumer carries out an action (Yau, 1994: 92; Vanhuele et al., 2008: 138).

Culture values play a fundamental role in inducing purchase intentions of consumers. This is because intentions are a function of among other things, norms which are influenced by culture and various social factors. Therefore an individual’s cultural
values and practices stimulate his/her intention to purchase food products aligned with his/her cultural expectations (Earley and Aug, 2003: 6).

Although intentions are a significant predictor of behaviour, they are far from being a perfect predictor. Sometimes, even the best intentions go unfulfilled. Intentions can change. Unanticipated circumstances may cause them to change. Similarly, a consumer may not intend on buying a product but ends up doing so. Despite these limitations, consumer intentions may still be a company’s best bet for predicting future behaviour (Blackwell et al., 2006:413; Xiao, 2008: 74).

![Figure 5: The influence of beliefs, feelings, and intentions on consumer behaviour](source)

Figure 5, illustrates an understanding of how the three components of attitude (beliefs, feelings and intention) influence consumption behaviour. This figure explains that beliefs and feelings are the building blocks on which attitudes are built. In other words, if a consumer finds a product to have desirable attributes he/she will have a more favourable attitude toward the product. Similarly, if he/she associates the product with positive feelings, his/her attitude becomes more favourable toward the product. The consumer’s attitudes in turn determine his/her intention. Thus his/her intention to buy the product grows as his/her attitude toward the product becomes favourable.

### 3.3.1.11 Learning

Consumer learning is a process by which individuals acquire purchase and consumption knowledge as well as the experience that they apply to future related behaviour (Ranju and Mukesh Trethan, 2009: 97; Schiffman et al., 2008: 185).

Culture also influences how individuals learn and how they teach. Cultural learning styles are those learning styles of an individual that are the product of his/her cultural
background and upbringing. In other words, it is the way a group of people within a society or culture tend to learn and pass on new ideas (Salili and Hoosain, 2007: 6).

Cultural learning develops an individual’s behaviour with regards to food choices and food consumption practices. For instance, the types of food and methods of consumption a child learns as he/she grows up in a cultural setting, influences his food choices and consumption behaviour as he/she gets older (Salili and Hoosain, 2007: 6).

According to Law and Miles (2005:68), a consumer who learns about a product or service behaves more rationally when making a decision than one without any knowledge about the product or service. However, Sharma (2006:47) posits that the consumer does not always need to go through the learning process him/herself. Sharma (2006:47) believes that sometimes, it is possible to learn from observing the consequences of others.

3.1.1.1.12 Perception

Perception is defined as the process by which an individual selects, organises, and interprets stimuli into a meaningful and coherent picture of the world. In other words, perception can be described as how people see the world around them (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2006: 175; Stanton et al., 2001:108).

Culture can develop our view of the world. Many studies have shown that people from different cultures see and perceive things differently and that is probably due to how their culture shaped the way they view the world. Therefore, an individual’s cultural value system determines how he/she perceives his/her indigenous food products and consumption behaviour. It also designs his/her perception of food products and consumption patterns of alien cultures. This also influences his attitude towards the product and may also influence the way he thinks about the people consuming the product (Wood, 2009:77).

The perceptual process consists of four stages:

(e) **Exposure**: This is the degree to which people notice a stimulus that is within range of their sensory receptors. Examples of stimuli include: cultural values
and products, package design, brand names, advertisement and commercials, experiential marketing, price, product upgrade, service, expectations, motives, learning, status, image, previous experience and needs (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2010.175, Cant et al., 2006:116; Stanton et al., 2001:108).

(f) **Attention:** Attention refers to the extent to which the processing activity is devoted to a particular stimulus. Attention is determined by the individual, the stimulus and the situation (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2010.179; Cant et al., 2006:116).

(g) **Interpretation:** Just as customers differ in terms of the stimuli they perceive, the meaning assigned to stimuli vary as well. Individuals tend to interpret stimulus according to their cultural beliefs, attitudes and general disposition and experiences (Cant et al., 2006: 118; Pettitt and Brassington 2003:111, Uhls & Anderson, 2004:80); and -

(h) **Recall (Memory):** This refers to the fact that only a selection of messages may be retained in memory. Customers do not remember all the information they see, hear or read, even after attending to it or interpreting it; hence one of the reasons for the repetition of cultural rituals (Cant et al., 2006: 118; Pettitt and Brassington 2003:111, Uhls and Anderson, 2004:80; Quester et al., 2004:198).

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**Figure 6: Stages in the perceptual process**


The illustration above depicts that people tend to perceive things they need or want. This is done in four steps: exposure, attention, interpretation and memory.

**3.3.1.2 Social factors that influence consumer behaviour**

Like individual factors, social factors also play a vital role in consumer behaviour with respect to food preferences. The following social factors have been examined in
this conceptual analysis. They include: reference groups, social class, family and culture.

### 3.3.1.2.1 Reference groups

In consumer behaviour, a reference group is defined as a group that serves as a point of reference for an individual in forming certain values. In other words, as people interact with others, the social interaction influences their behaviour in specific ways. All reference groups have distinctive norms of behaviour. Thus, as a member of the group, you are expected to adhere to these norms; if not, sanctions may be applied to you (Cant *et al.*, 2006:75).

Cultural groups are one of the most important reference groups in a community. They play a very important role in the food consumption behaviour of an individual. An individual’s cultural group or one that he aspires to belong to influences his food consumption behaviour by performing the following:

1. The reference groups transmit valuable information especially regarding the source, purchase, use and quality of products and services.
2. When consumers fulfil the expectations of the cultural group, they may receive a reward or be sanctioned if they fail to do so; and
3. A person’s aspiration to belong to a certain cultural group may enhance their self concept (Cant *et al.*, 2006: 75; Uhls and Anderson, 2004: 85).

The influence of a reference group on the consumption behaviour of an individual depends on the degree of the individual’s involvement with the group. The more involved the individual is, the more likely that his or her purchasing behaviour will correlate with that of the members. The consumer draws upon the group’s frame of reference or value system to guide his or her decision-making in the marketplace (Cant *et al.*, 2006:75).

It is important to note that marketers play a significant role in fuelling the influence of reference groups in consumer behaviour. They do this by aligning their products and marketing campaigns with the values and beliefs of targeted reference groups. They
also position their products in a way that plays on people’s desire to join certain reference groups (Cant et al., 2006:74).

3.3.1.2.2 Social class

Social classifications or structures have been part of mankind since creation. A social class is defined as the division of members of a society into a hierarchy of distinct statuses or classes, so that members of each class have relatively the same status and members of all other classes have either more or less status. To many people, social class categories suggest that others are equal to them (about the same social class), superior to them (higher social class) or inferior to them (lower social class) (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2010: 338; Cant et al., 2006: 76).

Social class is a cultural phenomenon. It is one of the divisions that must be taken into consideration in order to understand a society’s culture. There are five types of social classes. These include: upper class, upper middle class, lower middle class, upper lower class, and lower-lower class. The culture of these classes differs in beliefs and values about food choices and food consumption behaviour. Therefore, the cultural values and beliefs of an individual’s social class determine his food choices and food consumption behaviour. These class specific ideologies are not learned by experience, but rather are passed down over generations within families and communities through socialization and enculturation practices (Kitayama and Cohen, 2010: 307).

Consumer researchers have been able to relate class standing to consumer attitudes concerning specific products and to examine social class influences into the actual consumption of products. This is most evident in the consumption of clothes, cars, food, leisure pursuit and media preferences. Clearly, most marketers target more than one social class. To reach a desired target market, marketers match the socio-economic profiles of their target audiences to the audience profiles of selected advertising media (Blackwell et al., 2006:472).

3.3.1.2.3 The family

Traditionally a family is defined as two or more persons related by blood, marriage or adoption who reside together. In a more dynamic sense, the individuals who make up
a family can be described as members of the most basic social group who live together and interact to satisfy their personal and mutual needs. Generally, most societies have three types of families. These include:

(l) Married couple, which is made up of husband and wife.

(m) Nuclear family, which consists of a husband, wife and one or more children; and

(n) Extended family, which consists of a husband, wife, children, grandparents and other relatives (McDaniel et al., 2008:164).

Culture plays an important role in shaping a family’s way of life. A family culture is the unique way that a family forms itself in terms of rules, habits, activities and beliefs. The types of foods eaten by a family and its food consumption behaviour are largely influenced by the culture in which the family lives (Kitayama and Cohen, 2010: 283).

The family or household plays a key role in shaping the food consumption behaviour of not only the family at large but also the individuals within the family. In direct and subtle ways, children are moulded by the family culture in which they were born. Growing up, their assumptions about what is right and wrong and good and bad regarding their choice foods and consumption pattern will reflect the beliefs, values and traditions of the family culture (Kitayama and Cohen, 2010: 283).

3.3.1.2.4 Culture

There is no such thing as human nature independent of culture. Just as there are numerous cultures in the world, so too are definitions of culture. Culture refers to the sum total of learned beliefs, values and customs that serve to direct the consumer behaviour of a particular society (Blackwell et al., 2006:426; Mullins et al., 2005:125). Culture distinguishes one group of people from another. They are adaptations of a people to the conditions of life (Strydom et al., 2000: 90; Bearden et al., 1995: 112).
The culture of a group of people influences or determines their consumption behaviour through the characteristics or the functions of the culture. Most cultures have similar characteristics. These include:

- **a) Culture satisfies needs:** Here culture offers order and guidance in all phases of human problem solving methods of satisfying physiological, personal, and social needs (Schiffman et al., 2010:368).

- **b) Culture is dynamic:** To fulfil its need-gratifying role, culture continually must evolve if it is to function in the best interest of a society. In this respect, when specific foods and food consumption standards no longer satisfy the members of the society, it is modified or replaced, so that the resulting standard is more in line with current cultural needs and desires (McDaniel et al., 2008:157; Hoffman et al., 2005: 194).

- **c) Cultural customs and beliefs are shared:** To be considered a cultural characteristic, a particular food or consumption pattern must be shared by a significant portion of the society. This is made possible through communication by using a common language (Schiffman et al., 2008:373).

- **d) Culture is ritualistic:** Cultures include various ritualised experiences and behaviours that are increasingly receiving the attention of consumer behaviour researchers. They tend to be replete with ritual artefacts (products) that are associated with or somehow enhance the performance of the ritual such as use of sacred or cult objects, food products, ritual clothing, sacred or ceremonial places, magical or ritual words, idols, icons and sacred images. (Bernard & Veronique Cova, 2001: 67, Kam and Tyagi, 2004: 73; Schiffman et al., 2008:373; Cant et al., 2006: 58, Kemp and Earl, 2000: 509).

- **e) Culture is learned:** Culture is a learned practice or behaviour. At an early age, people begin to acquire from their social environment a set of beliefs, values and customs that make up the culture of the society. This greatly influences their choice of food products and services (Kotler, 1991.165; Hoffman et al., 2005: 195).

- **f) Culture is symbolic:** Cultural symbols can be verbal or non-verbal. Individuals of national as well as other cultures use cultural food products and practices
that contain symbolic messages that the individual may wish to transmit to other socially significant people (Piacentini and Mailer 2004:24).

\[ g)\] *Culture is made up of values:* Individuals living within a culture usually share common values and cognitive structures that profoundly impact their consumption behaviour (Rao, 2006: 34-38). Once formed, values become important goals that need to be attained and fulfilled and in turn influence consumer consumption patterns and product/brand preferences. Also, values serve as moral standards upon which objects and events can be considered to be “just”, “right”, “fair”, and “appropriate” in life (McDaniel et al., 2008:157; Kerin et al., 2006: 139); and

\[ h)\] *Heroes are significant to cultures:* Cultural heroes epitomise qualities such as courage, goodness, grace, and self sacrifice that all people, on some deeper level, recognise as the “ideal”, or, in other words, that state of human perfection they would like to see in themselves yet, know they probably never will attain (Berger, 2004: 55).

Heroes play a significant role in food consumption behaviour. This has to do with the power of identification. Many people like to identify themselves with cultural heroes and as such are inspired to consume food products that are affiliated to their role models (Majumdar, 2010: 282; Berger, 2004: 55).

It is evident that culture plays a very vital role in food consumption behaviour. Culture has a profound effect on why and how people buy and certain food products and services. People’s needs, their search for information, evaluation of alternatives and the products they buy are to a large extent determined by cultural factors (Blackwell, 2006:432; Czinkota et al., 2000:68).

As reported earlier (paragraph 3.3) the universal consumer behaviour model used as the framework of this study comprises of two parts, namely factors that influence consumer behaviour and the consumer decision-making process. The preceding discussions (paragraphs 3.3.1 to 3.3.1.2.4) have examined the first part of the model. In the discussions that follow, the researcher explores the second part of the model – the consumer decision-making process.
3.3.1.3 Consumer decision-making process

The consumer decision-making process is made up of five stages. These include: need or problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase decision and post-purchase evaluation.

3.3.1.3.1 Need or problem recognition

This occurs when a consumer is faced with a problem. In other words, when a consumer realises a difference between what he or she perceives to be the ideal or desired state (the situation the consumer wants to be in). Need recognition is triggered when a consumer is exposed to either an internal or external stimulus. Internal stimuli are occurrences you experience, such as hunger or thirst (Baker, 2003:140, Blackwell et al., 2006:71). External stimuli are influences from outside sources, such as someone’s recommendation of a new restaurant or retail shop, a brand name mentioned by a friend or an advertisement on television or radio (Baker, 2003:140, Blackwell et al., 2006: 71).

Cultural values determine an individual’s choice of food products and hence his food consumption behaviour. Though food consumption occurs globally, the value that consumers perceive to enjoy from buying and using a food product or a service differs across cultures. In other words, a consumer’s perception of a food product is largely determined by his/her cultural values. Therefore, the need to obtain food products to satisfy an individual’s expectations as defined by his cultural values greatly influences his food choices and food consumption behaviour (Herbert, 2003:125).

Also, inadequate stock of goods, discontent with stock of goods, changing environmental circumstances, changing financial circumstances and marketing activities can ignite a consumer’s desired state. In addition, a need or a problem may be expected or unexpected. An expected need or problem normally requires planning and is routine while the unexpected requires immediate solution (Kumar and Tyagi, 2004:152, Cant, et al., 2006:195; McDaniel et al., 2008: 146).
Need Recognition

Figure 7: Need Recognition

Figure 7 is a graphical demonstration of the factors that stimulate a consumer’s need(s). These include environmental or external influences such as culture, social class, family and other situational factors. Internal stimuli such as the consumer’s resources (e.g. income) motivation, knowledge, attitudes, personality, values and lifestyle also play a significant role in creating an individual’s desired state.

3.3.1.3.2 Information search

In many buying situations, once the consumer has recognised the problem, he/she starts looking for information. Consumer information search is the mental and physical activities undertaken by consumers to obtain information on identified problems. It is a learning process by which consumers become aware of alternative products or brands, specific stores, specific trading centres, prices of products, terms of sale and consumer services. At this stage, the consumer gets information that is necessary to enable him/her to evaluate alternative products or brands. Information search is selective in that the consumer only retains information that is most in keeping with his/her wants and which is most likely to correspond with their views, beliefs, personality and attitudes (Cant et al., 2006: 197, Strydom et al., 2000:75).
The relationship between culture and information search are intertwined. Culture plays a very significant role in determining an individual’s source of information pertaining to food products and the selection of some aspects of information over others. Thus, an individual’s ways of processing information regarding food products is encouraged and reinforced through his/her development in a particular cultural context. Cultures differ in the strategies they employ to search and process information about food products. In a cultural context the strategies used to process information upon first encounter is determined by what information is preserved in memory and thus most readily accessed with retrieval cues at a later point in time (Gutchess, 2011:73).

If the consumer cannot hit a solution through a memory scan, he or she may undertake an external search in which he/she scans the environment to offer inputs to the consumer decision process. Examples of external sources of information include:

   a) **Personal sources:** opinions and attitudes of friends, relatives or opinion leaders and neighbours.

   b) **Commercial sources:** information provided by promotional aspects associated with the brand like advertising, personal selling or brochures, packaging, displays and dealers and salespersons

   c) **Experiential sources:** direct product trials such as handling, examining and using the product; and

   d) Policy applications to protect the consumer from deceptions by the marketer (Strydom *et al.*, 2000:75).

The stage of information search provides consumers with specific benefits and pulls them towards the purchase stage. Consumers may also embark on information search without a specific problem. This type of information search is stimulated for the sake of deriving pleasure in seeking information and also because such information may be useful in future (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:77).
Figure 8 illustrates the relationship between need recognition and the categories of information search (internal and external). The relative influence of the information sources varies with the product category and the buyer’s characteristics. Generally the consumer receives maximum information exposure about a product from market dominated or commercial sources; but the most effective exposures come from personal sources. In influencing the buying decision, each type of source may perform a somewhat different function. For instance, commercial information normally performs an informing function whereas personal sources perform a legitimizing and/evaluative function (Blackwell et al., 2006: 75).

3.3.1.3.3 Evaluating alternatives

Consumers are exposed to a broad range of products and services to select from on a daily basis. The product options are not only varied but are also complex and sophisticated. This makes decision-making one of the major challenges faced by contemporary consumers. At face value, most individuals claim to welcome the greater range of choices. However, a contradiction becomes evident when consumers must actually take time to make these choices; hence the need to evaluate the available options (Barker, 2008:113, Hoffman et al., 2005:197; Czinkota et al., 2000:161).
An individual’s cultural value system functions as a benchmark to evaluate different food products in the market. It is important to highlight that different cultures employ different evaluative criteria – the standards and the specifications used to compare different products and brands. Some attributes upon which alternatives are evaluated are salient in nature, while some are determinant. Customers think of salient attributes first and consider them most important. Beyond the salient attributes, consumers also consider hedonic attributes such as ambience, music, and entertainment (Cant et al., 2006: 201; Stephen and Beaton-Wells 2003: 92, McDaniel et al., 2008: 150).

The evaluation process of food product options and service normally takes place in three stages. In the first stage, consumers develop a set of attributes (aligned with his/her cultural value system) on which the purchase decision will be based. These attributes refer to the characteristics of the store and the quality, price, availability and assortment of its products. These attributes are often based on general information sources such as pre-existing knowledge, advertising, discussions with friends and relatives, magazines as well as online information sources (Shaw, 2001:90; Mullins et al., 2005: 114).

In the second stage, consumers’ evaluative characteristics are narrowed down to a more manageable number of attributes. This is done in order to avoid confusion as a result of many options or criteria chosen to evaluate the food product category or brand. However at this stage, the consumer might visit stores or browse the Internet to gather more specific information such as price ranges to narrow his/her list (Shaw, 2001:90, Mullins et al., 2005: 114).

In the final stage, the consumer directly compares the key attributes of the alternatives remaining on the “short list”. At this stage of the evaluation process, the consumer becomes very active and he/she applies much specificity in the search for information. In addition, he/she begins to ascertain actual prices through either store visits, browsing the Internet or embarks on preliminary negotiations when appropriate. This is when a decision is made to purchase or not to purchase the product (Lusch and Patrick, 2008: 94 Shaw, 2001:90, Mullins et al., 2005: 114).
3.3.1.3.4 Purchase decision

The consumer makes a purchase decision when he/she believes that the product’s benefits will satisfy his/her desired needs. The decision is based on the assumption that the alternatives generated have all been evaluated accurately and that the one chosen will best solve the consumer’s problem. The decision to purchase a product also encompasses a series of related decisions regarding features such as where and when to make the actual transaction, where and how the product is going to be delivered, and the method of payment. Thus, the decision to make a purchase is the beginning of an entirely new series of decisions that may be as time consuming and difficult as the initial one (Stanton, *et al.*, 2001:99; Danziger, 2004: 74; Strydom *et al.*, 2000:78).

Food purchase decisions are generally made when the product is perceived to satisfy the cultural expectations of the individual. It is worth noting that an individual’s cultural values may compel him or her to involve other people (mostly family members) in the food decision making process. This is to avoid the purchase of a food product that may conflict with the requirements of the individual’s cultural group (Falkenreck, 2009:154).

Equally important to note is the fact that new problems may emerge as a result of a decision that has been implemented. This is largely because the consumer is not rational or knowledgeable enough to always generate all alternatives, correctly evaluate them and implement the best possible decision (Fiore, 2004: 160-161, McDaniel *et al.*, 2008:150).

It is argued (Klaus, 2000:113; Fiore, 2004: 160-161) that a consumer may either be less or more involved in a purchase decision process. This is determined by the following factors:

- *a) Functional and financial importance:* The higher the price of a food product the more involved the consumer will be in the decision-making. The same applies for the functional value. If a food product is of a high cultural value, the consumer’s level of involvement in the purchase will also be high (Klaus, 2000:113).
b) **Perceived risk:** A consumer gets more involved in the purchase of a food product perceived to involve a high degree of risk. For instance, if considerable variations in product quality are believed to exist and there is, therefore, a good chance of getting a low quality product or one that does not align with the consumer’s cultural values and beliefs, the consumer tends to be more involved in the purchase (Klaus, 2000:113); and

c) **Sign value:** If the food product has a certain social significance based on cultural values. That is, other people infer something about the person consuming the product. The individual gets more involved in the purchase process (Klaus, 2000:113).

### 3.3.1.3.5 Post-purchase behaviour and decision

All purchase behaviour as a continuous process must entail consequences for the buyer. Culture also plays an important role in the post-purchase behaviour and decision of the consumer. Based on his cultural values, the individual examines the level of satisfaction obtained from consuming a food product. In other words, the consumer finds out whether the product solved his/her problem or satisfied the cultural needs (Lalita and Ajay Manrai, 1996:70)

A condition of satisfaction tends to prompt good purchase feelings in the minds of the consumer. The consumer’s satisfaction is a function of the closeness between the consumer’s product expectations and the product’s perceived performance. If the product’s performance falls short of the consumer’s expectations, the consumer is disappointed (Reddy and Naik, 1999: 221; Czinkota et al., 2000:163).

The larger the gap between the consumer’s expectations and product performance, the greater the level of dissatisfaction there will be. Some consumers magnify the gap when the product is not perfect and feel highly dissatisfied while others may minimise the gap and are less dissatisfied (Mullins et al., 2005: 115; Cant, 2010: 120; Kerin et al., 2006:122).

The level of dissatisfaction or satisfaction obtained from consuming a food product determines the actions or behaviour of the consumer after purchase. If satisfied with
the food product, the consumer will purchase the product again and spread positive messages about the product. On the other hand, if the consumer is not satisfied with the product, he/she may stop using the product, and spread negative information or may take some form of public action (Cant, 2010: 121).

Also, when a food product fails to meet consumers’ expectations and they do not want to acknowledge the fact that they made a wrong decision, they will try to correct these psychological inconsistencies by attempting to convince themselves that the original decision was correct and very judicious. This is called cognitive dissonance. Dissonance occurs because the person knows the purchased product has some disadvantages. In order to do so, they may rationalize their decision by putting forward logical reasons for decisions taken and may also turn to others for approval and reassurance. They might seek information that reinforces positive ideas about the purchase, avoid information that contradicts their decision, or revoke the original decision by returning the product (McDaniel et al., 2000: 147; Bearden et al., 1995: 123).

Figure 9: Post-purchase dissonance

Figure 9 presents post-purchase dissonance – from satisfaction to retention to repeat purchases. It illustrates that a satisfied customer is one who feels that he or she has
received value. The diagram also explains that an unsatisfied consumer switches brand, discontinues using the product and spreads unfavourable information about the product and the brand. Thus the post-purchase evaluation phase can be regarded as the beginning of a new decision-making process.

3.3.1.4 Summary of the chapter

The essence of studying the consumption behaviour of a target market is fundamental for the success of any organisation. It is equally vital for South Africa’s supermarket chains intending to invest in the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa. The consumption behaviour concept discussed in this chapter has been used to establish the food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. Research has revealed that the consumer behaviour concept yields positive results only if it is customised to the intending market. On this basis, the consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants has been established (see chapter 7).

It is important to recall that the consumer behaviour concept is a product of nine pre-existing theories advanced by scholars to explain consumer behaviour. The end product consists of two parts – the factors that influence consumer behaviour and the consumer decision-making process. The factors that influence consumer behaviour are grouped under two categories – individual and social – while the consumer decision-making process is made up of five stages. These include: problem recognition, information search, the evaluation of alternatives, purchase decision and post-purchase evaluation.

The purpose of the concept discussed in this chapter is to serve as a framework to establish a food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants to enable South Africa’s leading supermarket chains to cater for their indigenous food needs. However, the study will be incomplete without an examination of the dynamics of the supermarket industry and the leading
CHAPTER FOUR

SOUTH AFRICA’S MAJOR SUPERMARKET CHAINS

4.1 Introduction

Supermarkets are among the most powerful transnational corporate forces in the world today. They have a significant impact on the lives of increasing numbers of consumers and producers across the globe. Supermarkets have become the most essential establishments in the daily provision of foods for hundreds of millions of people (Burch, 2007:4).

In Africa, the South African supermarket industry has experienced the most frenetic pace of development. Growth was precipitated in the 1990s following the demise of the apartheid regime. Today, South Africa’s food retail supermarket chains control an ever-increasing market share of the food retail sector. For instance, South Africa’s townships, synonymous with poverty and violence for decades are emerging as the new market for supermarket chains hungry for more black shoppers (Ray et al., 2007:4; Apps, 2004).

South Africa’s major supermarket chains are perceived to sell their products at lower prices. In addition, they also stock quality and assorted products and are committed to service excellence (Apps, 2004). These are some of the advantages that sub-Saharan African immigrants seek to enjoy should South Africa’s leading supermarkets stock products from other sub-Saharan African countries.

This chapter explores the dynamics of the supermarket industry in South Africa with specific emphasis on the country’s four leading supermarket chains. The chapter is split into three sections. Section one examines the context of retailing and the origin of supermarkets in South Africa. Section two looks at how South Africa’s major leading supermarket chains have developed since creation. In section three, the researcher discusses the activities that stimulate growth and development in the South African supermarket industry and how these activities impact on the consumption behaviour of the South African market.
4.2 Section one: The context of retailing

In this section the researcher looks at the definition, characteristics and importance of retailing. The researcher has also looked at the emergence of supermarkets in South Africa.

4.2.1 Retailing defined

Retailing is a set of business activities that add value to the products and services sold to consumers for their personal or family use (Weitz and Levy, 2004: 7). In a similar opinion, Schroeder (2007:5) argues that retailing is the sale of goods and services to end users not for resale but for use and consumption by the purchaser.

Retail firms can be classified as product, service or product and service retail firms. A product or goods retail organisation specialises in the sale of merchandise while a service retailer provides services. A product and service retail organisation sells both merchandise and services to the final consumer. It is important to note that all retailers provide goods and services for their customers. However, the distinguishing factor is the emphasis placed on merchandise versus services (Weitz and Levy, 2004: 58; Betancourt, 2004:210).

For the purpose of this study, retailing is limited to the provision of food products by major supermarket retailers in South Africa. It is important to highlight that, to some extent, South Africa’s leading supermarket chains are also retail service providers (Annual reports of South African supermarket chains).

Like any other business activity, retailing is endowed with numerous characteristics. Therefore, in the following paragraph, the study highlights some of the fundamental characteristics of the retail industry.

4.2.2 Characteristics of retailing

In every country in the world, the retail sector is one of the largest and most important sectors in the economy. It is a social institution and a mechanism of economic
distribution. Over time, in these societies, different types of retailers have emerged ranging from street vendors to large corporations (Dawson et al., 1990: 6).

Retail activities can either be organised or unorganised. Organised retailing, also known as modern retailing, is an established or formal way of selling consumer products. It involves big expenses like higher labour costs, social security to employees, increased advertising and big premises evidenced in formats such as supermarkets, hypermarkets, convenience, warehouse, discount and department stores (Madaan, 2009:5).

On the other hand unorganised retailing or traditional retailing refers to low cost retailing. It comprises of smaller outlets, generally fragmented, owner managed, not driven by technology, and generally lacking in ambience. Unorganised retail structures are mostly mom and father shops, neighbourhood stores, general stores, shops, hand cart and pavement vendors (Madaan, 2009:6).

In retailing, the management of store operations can be central, decentralized or partly centralized and decentralized. Controlling store operations has been identified as one of the most crucial and difficult tasks in the retail industry. In a decentralized set-up, operational functions such as buying, advertising, pricing and merchandising are carried out at the store level; while in a centralized structure, these functions are coordinated at the head office. Centralization of retail operations is primarily for organisational control and for financial reasons. Retailers running highly centralized operations prefer to centralize almost all decisions at a central corporate level and leave their respective stores with only the responsibility of overseeing the sales and of taking care of the customers. Firms running a partially decentralized and centralized management system direct some of the operational activities at the corporate level, while other decisions are made at the store level (Lamba, 2008: 374).

The retail industry is one of the largest employers in most societies. The majority of the participants in the industry are self-employed while the rest are employed by small retail outlets and giant retail firms. Large retail firms are one of the largest employers in most countries, often of female and part-time labour. Over a large period of time in many countries, there has been a large feminization of the retail workforce highly evidenced in the food retailing industry. There is also a high level of gender
segregation in most retail firms as management positions are predominantly occupied by males (Matsunaga, 2000: 123).

Generally, the primary focus of the modern retail economy or firms is to maximize market share through the development of a particular retail format or formats. This common strategy has been a notable driver of change in most retail activities, especially in the food retailing sector. While some firms concentrate on a particular format, others invest in multiple formats to attract a larger share of the market (Madaan, 2009:6).

The characteristics of retailing attest that the retail sector has a profound significance in the economies of most countries in the world irrespective of the country’s level of development. Generally, in recent years, transformations have taken place in the industry across the globe, but the transformations in the food retailing landscape are profound, where, by its sheer size and importance, the developments have had the greatest impact on consumers (Schramm-Klein et al., 2007:64).

Undeniably, it is extremely hard to exclude South Africa from the transformations that have engulfed the food retail industry in the world. In fact, as noted earlier, South Africa is one of the countries in the world that has experienced the most profound growth and development in the food retailing sector. Therefore, in the following discussions, the researcher looks at the evolution of retailing in South Africa.

4.2.3 The evolution of modern food retailing in South Africa

In South Africa, though food retailing activities are carried out by both the formal and informal economies, the activities are largely concentrated in the formal economy. Informal retailers are those not formally registered with the Companies and Intellectual Property Registration Office (CIPRO) of the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) and are also not registered for Value Added Tax (VAT). They include: hawkers on commuter trains, door-to-door traders, street and pavement stalls as well as Spaza (tuckshops) owners (Madevu, 2006:3).

Formal retailing refers to companies that are registered with the Companies and Intellectual Property Registration Office (CIPRO) of the Department of Trade and
Industry (DTI). Formal registration is associated with a legal obligation to submit tax returns. The major players in the South African formal food retail economy include: specialty stores, convenience stores, supermarkets and hypermarkets (Madevu, 2006:3). For the purposes of this study, the researcher limits the discourse on food retailing in South Africa to the supermarket industry.

4.2.3.1 The supermarket – A historical perspective

A supermarket is a self-service store offering predominantly food products and a limited variety of non-food items such as health and beauty aids and general merchandise. A traditional supermarket occupies a large amount of floor space, usually on a single level, and is situated near a residential area in order to be convenient to consumers. Its basic appeal is the availability of a broad selection of goods under a single roof at relatively low prices (Burch et al., 2007:5).

Historically the concept of modern retailing originated in the United States and grew out of attempts by United States retailers to find new ways of selling goods. As urban population grew and society became more depersonalized, private investors saw the opportunity for establishing chains of uniform retail food stores with high standards of facilities, products, price and service. Hence, the concept of self-service retailing developed by American entrepreneur Clarence Saunders and his Piggly Wiggly stores (Ball et al., 2001: 234).

Saunders’s concept involved three innovative features. It was designed to allow customers to move freely throughout the store rather than to queue behind a counter; to facilitate consumer inspection and interaction with the items on sale and to ensure that sales are done at checkout – the point of store exit. Saunders’s first store was opened in 1916 in Memphis, Tennessee. He was awarded a number of patents for the ideas he incorporated into his stores. The stores were a financial success and Saunders began to offer franchises (Ball et al., 2001: 235).

Though Saunders founded the concept of self-service, it was Michael Cullen who started the first supermarket in New York. In addition to the concept of self-service he introduced the concept of bulk buying and low prices. Since then, other innovations such as free parking and extended shopping hours have been added to the concept.
Today, the supermarket concept forms the framework of food retailing in most societies in the world (Gulati, 2008:6).

4.2.3.2 The origin of supermarkets in South Africa

The supermarket concept reached the shores of South Africa in 1947 when CTC Bazaars created the first supermarket in Johannesburg. It is noteworthy that the traditional food retail system that dominated the United States before the emergence of supermarkets looked essentially the same as in South Africa. During this time in South Africa, retailing was largely concentrated in the hands of import houses, OK Bazaars (the first established retail company created in 1927) and other specialist retailers such as grocery, book and shoe stores. Import houses were situated in coastal towns and functioned both as wholesalers and retailers at the same time. In other words, import houses sold their products directly to consumers as well as to specialised small independent retailers. It is important to note that import houses did not specialise in any products. Each one offered the full range of products for which there was demand. The emergence of CTC Bazaars and its diversity of products formed the origin of large scale retail establishments in South Africa (Emongor, 2008: 41).

In the mid 1990s, a supermarket revolution indeed occurred in South Africa, highly stimulated by the demise of the apartheid regime. The industry is predominantly dominated by four retail chains – Shoprite Group Holdings Limited (also the owner of Checkers supermarket chain), Pick ‘n Pay Group Holdings Limited, Spar Group Holdings Limited and Woolworths Holdings Limited. These major supermarket chains have gone well beyond the initial middle class clientele to penetrate the food markets of the poor; competing with the informal food market in the townships valued at R20 and R30 billion a year (Apps, 2004).

These chains have also added “hypermarchets” that offer a broad selection of food and non-food products at low prices to middle and lower-middle class urban consumers. In addition, they also have convenience stores on transport routes and in dense urban areas. Others like Shoprite also operate “superettes” (small supermarkets) usually found in rural towns, former-homeland areas, and dense inner cities (Prichard et al., 2004: 20; Cant et al.,1998:25).
Contemporary South Africa has one of the most interesting and exciting retail landscapes in the world today. The food retailing industry is probably one of the most advanced and most competitive, dominated by the four major players. Though supermarkets represent fewer than 2% of all food retail outlets, a rough estimate of the share of supermarkets in total food retail in South Africa is around 60-70 percent (ILO: 2006: 27; Emongor, 2008: 44). According to Statistics South Africa (SSA), retail sales increased by 14.5 percent year on year to March 2007 (OGB: 2008: 137). Also, in 2009, South Africa’s retail market was valued at US$82.7 billion and it is forecast that the value will increase to US$118.7 billion by 2014 (Young, 2008).

As set out in paragraph 4.1, one of the aims of this chapter is to examine the evolution of the four major supermarket chains that dominate the food retailing industry in South Africa. In the following section, the researcher presents an overview of the evolution of South Africa’s major supermarket chains in the food industry.

4.3 Section two: South Africa’s major supermarket chains

As indicated earlier, the South African food retail sector is predominantly concentrated in the hands of four retail chains. These include: Shoprite Group Holdings Limited (also the owner of the Checkers supermarket chain), Pick ‘n Pay Group Holdings Limited, Spar Group Holdings Limited and Woolworths Holdings Limited. Prior to exploring the origin, growth, operations and developments of the different retail chains, the researcher finds it necessary to examine the classification of retail chains in South Africa.

4.3.1 Classification of South African supermarkets

There are various ways in which supermarkets are classified, namely size, product line, geographic location, form of ownership and method of operation. In South Africa, supermarkets are broadly classified according to ownership. These include: independent or voluntary chain stores, corporate chains, and franchises.
4.3.1.1 Voluntary chain

A voluntary chain store is an independent or single store that is owner-managed, but belongs to a retail group and relies on the group’s headquarters for guidance. These stores are grouped together through a wholesaler which does their buying thereby effecting economies of scale. There are certain guidelines which the retailer must adhere to as well as certain responsibilities with respect to buying procedures, advertisement and store cleanliness (Strydom et al., 2000: 369).

Management of these stores has direct contact with customers and can respond quickly to their needs. They are also very flexible, that is they are not bound by the bureaucracies inherent in large retail organisations, and can therefore react quickly to market changes and customer needs. In other words, they can tailor their offerings to customers’ needs (Prakash et al., 2005: 478; Burch, et al., 2007: 3).

In South Africa, Spar Group Holdings Ltd is the only example of a voluntary trading principle whereby the supermarkets have a high degree of independence though they rely on group headquarters for guidance (http://www.fastmoving.co.za/retailers/spar).

4.3.1.2 Corporate retail supermarket chains

Corporate chains are one of the most important developments in the South African retail sector. A corporate retail chain is a company operating multiple food retail supermarket units under a common ownership and usually has centralized decision-making for defining and implementing its strategy. Corporate chain stores are commonly controlled and carry out central buying and merchandising with similar product lines in each store. With the exception of Spar Group Holdings, all leading supermarket chains function under a corporate ownership. These include: Shoprite, Pick ‘n Pay and Woolworths (Prakash et al., 2005: 478; Burch, et al., 2007: 3).

Unlike independent or voluntary chain stores that provide merchandise compatible with local needs, often, all stores in a chain have the same merchandise and services. The number of supermarkets in a retail chain can range from two to over a thousand. They normally employ a large number of people (often more than 200) from the local community. A corporate chain’s management base is much broader than that of
independent retailers, with people who specialise in specific retail activities (Strydom et al., 2000: 369).

4.3.1.3 Franchising

Franchising is another very important form of retailing in South Africa. The franchise ownership format attempts to combine advantages of owner-managed businesses with efficiencies of centralized decision-making in chain store operations. Franchising is defined in South Africa as a “…business arrangement whereby a company or individual (the franchisor) grants an independent party (the franchisee) the right to sell the company’s products or services according to the guidelines set down by the franchisor. The franchisee uses the company’s name and goodwill, products and services, marketing procedures, expertise, systems and support facilities. In exchange, the franchisee pays the company an up-front fee or on going service management fees (or royalties) as stipulated in the franchise agreement” (Strydom et al., 2000: 423).

Among South Africa’s leading supermarket chains, Pick ‘n Pay operates the largest number of franchise stores. According to the company’s 2009 annual report, the group has 250 franchises and 152 corporate stores across the country (www.pnp.co.za). Unlike Pick ‘n Pay, Shoprite is predominantly comprised of corporate rather than franchise stores. According to the group’s 2009 annual report, the group’s structure consists of 1079 corporate chains and 270 franchises (in all its brands) in 17 countries, all integrated electronically to a central database and replenishment system (SGH, annual report, 2009:1).

Irrespective of the type of ownership structure, as indicated earlier, supermarket chains have basically established an immeasurable dominance on food retailing in South Africa. The impact of this is enormous, not only on the consumers but on the suppliers and agricultural producers as well. Therefore, for a broader understanding of the context of this study, it is imperative to examine the origin, growth and development of the major supermarket chains in South Africa.
4.3.2 The origin, growth and expansion of South Africa’s leading supermarket chains

Here, the author examines the four major supermarket chains in South Africa. These include: Shoprite Group Holdings Ltd, Pick ‘n Pay Group Holdings Ltd, Spar Group Holdings Ltd and Woolworths Holdings Ltd.

4.3.2.1 Shoprite Group Holdings Limited

Shoprite Group Holdings Limited is South Africa’s and Africa’s largest food retailer. It originated in 1979 with the purchase of a chain of eight Cape Town based supermarkets for 1million Rand. In 1983, the company opened its first branch – the Hartswater branch out of the Western Cape and by the end of the year, Shoprite was already running 21 branches in South Africa, realising a turn over of almost 600 percent over the four years (Banhegyi et al., 2009: 185; SHG annual report, 2009:1).

As a policy, Shoprite ensures that there is a mutually beneficial relationship between the organisation and the communities as well as its customers. The organisation’s drive to stimulate growth in its operations, the activities of its suppliers and the local communities has not only created thousands of job opportunities for South Africans but has also stimulated development in South Africa’s impoverished communities (SHG annual report, 2009:1-10).

It is important to stress that Shoprite is the group’s main brand and by far the biggest business unit. It is also the brand used predominantly outside the borders of South Africa spearheading the group’s growth into new markets. The Shoprite brand draws its customers from the middle to lower-income consumers in the Living Standards Measurement (LSM) four to seven. Its marketing strategy entails providing millions of customers with the lowest prices on basic foods (SHG annual report, 2009:1-10).

Checkers is the group’s second largest brand. The group took over Checkers in 1991 with the purchase of 170 stores. It focuses more strongly on fresh produce and offers a wider range of food choices to a more affluent clientele. Its target market is the higher-income groups in the Living Standards Measurement of seven to ten (Banhegyi et al., 2009: 185; SHG annual report, 2009:1-10).
Shoprite’s approach of reaching the poor has earned the organisation a foothold in South Africa’s food retail sector. Today the company operates 350 corporate supermarket stores split between the two major brands. These include: 257 Shoprite and 93 checkers stores. These stores are distributed expansively within the country as represented in the table below (Schenk et al., 2008:24; www.shopriteholdings.co.za).

Table 1: Regional distribution of Shoprite Group’s supermarket stores in South Africa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Shoprite</th>
<th>Checkers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Western Cape</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Cape</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free State</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gauteng</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mpumalanga</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Cape</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North West Province</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As illustrated in table 1, the organisation’s major representations are in Gauteng (126 stores) and the Western Cape (91 stores), followed by the Eastern Cape (53 stores) and Mpumalanga (27 stores). Its least represented areas are the Northwest Province (21 stores) and the Northern Cape (11 stores).

The company has also invested enormously in other African countries. As illustrated in table 2 below, the group is well represented in Namibia and Zambia (with 18 stores each), Madagascar (7 stores), Swaziland (6 stores), Botswana and Mozambique (5 stores each), Lesotho (4 stores), Angola and Tanzania (3 stores each), Ghana, Malawi, Nigeria and Uganda (2 stores each) and one store each in Mauritius and Zimbabwe (Lutchman et al., 2005: 553).
Table 2: Shoprite Group’s supermarket representation in other African countries
Source: Updated from Shoprite Holdings Limited annual report, 2009:2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Shoprite</th>
<th>Checkers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Angola</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesotho</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madagascar</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mauritius</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Namibia</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swaziland</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>75</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of revenue, Shoprite is phenomenally sustainable. Over the years, the group has realised an incredible growth in retail sales. For instance, in 2009, irrespective of the global economic meltdown, total group sales, which also include its international retail division, registered an increase of R59.3 billion from R47.7 billion in 2008. The group’s international business also did very well achieving a year on year turnover growth of 39.9% (SGH annual report 2009: 52).

Shoprite is not only expansively established, but financially sustainable as well. As a result, the organisation has earned a number of recognitions both in and out of South Africa. For instance, in January of 2009, the Shoprite brand was again voted South Africa’s No.1 supermarket by the Sunday Times Top Brand Survey. Also, in the January 2010 Deloitte report, Shoprite was listed as the largest retailer in South Africa and the 130th retailer globally. Also, in 2010, for the third year in a row, the Shoprite
brand was voted South Africa's No.1 supermarket in the 2010 Sunday Times Top Brand Survey (www.shopriteholdings.co.za).

4.3.2.2 Pick ‘n Pay Group Holdings Limited

The Pick ‘n Pay Group is the second largest South African retail chain and also one of Africa’s largest food, general merchandise and clothing retailers. Pick ‘n Pay originated in 1967 when Raymond Ackerman purchased four small shops called Pick ‘n Pay from Jack Goldin, who was a businessman in Cape Town. In 1975, the company made history in the South African retail sector when it opened the first hypermarket in South Africa in Boksburg, bringing the concept of “one stop-shopping” to South African consumers for the first time. This development marked the turning point in the growth and expansion of the Pick ‘n Pay Group (Prichard et al., 2005:24).

Like its immediate rival Shoprite Group Limited, Pick ‘n Pay places more emphasis on expansion in the previously under-stored market of South Africa (former homelands, rural areas, and townships) called “emerging markets” (Prichard et al., 2005:24).

The company’s expansion and growth strategy is predominantly franchising though it also operates a large number of corporate stores spanned all over South Africa and beyond. Its franchising strategy is to take advantage of new profit opportunities and move away from intense competition for the upper segments of the South African market (Fick, 2002:134; Godfrey, 2010:197). Today, the Pick ‘n Pay Group has a total number of 782 stores. Like Shoprite, the company has also invested in other retail brands such as Pick ‘n Pay clothing, Pick ‘n Pay liquor, Pick ‘n Pay pharmacy, Score and Boxer stores and hardware stores.
Table 3: The number of stores of the different brands in the Pick ‘n Pay Group.
Source: Updated from Pick ‘n Pay Holdings annual report 2010 (www.pnp.co.za)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pick ‘n Pay Retail Division</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hypermarkets</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supermarkets</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Franchise</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Franchise</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liquor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Franchise</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pharmacies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Score stores</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boxer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stores</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardware</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total stores</td>
<td>715</td>
<td>757</td>
<td>782</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 3, of the 782 stores that make up the Pick ‘n Pay Group in South Africa, 469 are supermarket stores of which 152 are corporate and 250 are franchise stores and 67 are Score stores. The group also owns 20 hypermarket stores, 32 clothing stores, 92 liquor stores, one pharmacy, and 83 Boxer stores.

The Pick ‘n Pay Group has also vigorously embarked on operations in other parts of Africa. The group is represented in Namibia (9 stores), Botswana (11 stores) and Zimbabwe (53 stores). In November 2010, the company decided to sell all its investments in Australia as a result of the economic downfall (Bleby, Business Day of November 18th 2010, page 11; Ray et al., 2007:74). In 2001 the group made a brief stop in Tanzania by opening four Score stores, which were later sold to the Shoprite Group. The group has announced plans to expand into Mozambique soon in continuation of its Southern African expansion (Ray, et al., 2007:74)

Financially, the Pick ‘n Pay Group is also very stable. Like the Shoprite Group, the Pick ‘n Pay Group has achieved incredible financial successes over the years since inception. For instance, in its first trading year (a year after it was founded) the company made a profit of R310,000 on a turnover of R5 million. Though it couldn’t make its anticipated profits in 2009 as a result of the global meltdown, nevertheless, the group’s total turnover increased from R42.474.3 billion in 2008 to R49.9 billion in
2009. Thus its trading profit increased from R1.517.3 billion in 2008 to R1.686.6 billion in 2009 (www.pnp.co.za; Banhegyi et al., 2009:100).

Like the Shoprite Group, the Pick ‘n Pay Group has also received enormous recognitions since inception. For instance, just two years after creation, the company was listed as one of Sunday Times Top 100 companies. Also, in 1984, Raymond Ackerman was named Cape Times Business man of the year (www.pnp.co.za).

4.3.2.3 The SPAR Group Holdings Limited

SPAR is an acronym of the Dutch sentence, ‘Door Eendrachtig Samenwerken Profiteren Allen Regelmatig’, meaning ‘we all benefit from joint cooperation’. The Spar Group is a Netherlands based organisation founded in 1932 by Adriaan Van Well. In 1947, Belgium became the first country to embrace the SPAR concept beyond the Netherlands. This was rapidly followed by a host of other European countries in the 1950s. The rapid growth of the company continued over the next 20 years with stores opening outside Europe (Spar Group annual report, 2006: 20; Pycraft, 2000:221).

In 1963, following the emergence of grocery retail chains in South Africa, a group of eight South African wholesalers were given the exclusive rights to the Spar name to service 500 small retailers. This was followed by a number of mergers and takeovers. Today, the Spar Group operates six distribution centres that supply food products and other household non-food items to 846 Spar stores across South Africa. It is important to highlight that all Spar stores are independently owned (part of a voluntary chain) but rely on the group’s headquarters for guidance. These stores tailor their offerings to the needs of the consumers in the area where they are located (Godfrey, 2010:197, Spar Group annual report, 2006: 20).

Like Shoprite and Pick ‘n Pay, the South African Spar Group has also expanded widely within the country and beyond. Below is a representation of the group’s 846 stores in the 6 distribution centres in the country.
Table 4: Geographic representation of the stores in the Spar Group in South Africa
Source: updated from Spar Group Limited annual report (2009: 5)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distribution Centre</th>
<th>Superspar</th>
<th>Spar</th>
<th>Kwikspar</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>South Rand</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Rand</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kwazulu Natal</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Cape</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Cape</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lowveld</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>462</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>846</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in table 4, the South Rand region has the highest concentration of Spar stores (232), Kwazulu Natal (162), North Rand (162), the Western Cape (157), the Eastern Cape (96) and Lowveld (37 stores).

In other parts of Africa, the group has also invested significantly in four countries. These includes: Botswana and Namibia with 30 stores each, Mozambique with 3 stores and Zambia with 8 stores.

Financially, the SPAR Group has also made triumphant successes over the years, especially between 2005 and 2009. For instance, the group’s total revenue increased from R13.737.483 billion in 2005 to R32.256.2 billion in 2009. According to Mike, the group’s Marketing Director, the group did exceedingly well in 2009. Total turnover increased by R5.2637 billion from 2008 resulting to a gross profit of R2.569.1 billion from R2.159.7 billion in 2008 (Interview with Mike Prentine, October 4th 2010). In the Group’s 2009 annual report, it is remarked that the Group’s financial success in 2009 can largely be attributed to extensive product development, with 240 products being introduced or repackaged. In many instances, packaging of the company’s products now includes detailed information on product ingredients and guidelines on recommended daily consumption; the objective being to help consumers to live a balanced and healthy lifestyle (Spar Group Limited annual report 2009: 9).

The last of the four major retailers in South Africa’s food retailing landscape is Woolworths Group Holdings Limited. Like the other three, Woolworths also plays a prominent role in food retailing and the development of the supermarket sector in
South Africa. In the following discussion, the researcher explores the dynamics in the evolution of Woolworths Group Holdings in the South African retail landscape.

### 4.3.2.4 Woolworths Holdings Limited

Woolworths Holdings Limited is an investment holding company founded in 1931 by Max Sonnenberg and his son Richard in Cape Town. At inception, the unfavourable nature of the economy at the time compelled many people to believe that the company was going to collapse. However, the difficult economic challenges were a mark of inspiration for Sonnenberg and his son as they were bent on ensuring the survival of the company. In 1934, Sonnenberg opened the company’s second branch in Durban. A year later the third and fourth branches were opened in Port Elizabeth and Johannesburg respectively. Today, Woolworths is a household name in the South African retail sector. The organisation is listed on the Johannesburg Stock Exchange and operates mainly through two subsidiaries, namely Woolworths (Proprietary) Limited and Woolworths Financial Services (Proprietary) Limited. Woolworths (Proprietary) Limited is a retail chain of stores offering a selected range of clothing, food and general merchandise, mainly under its own brand name. Woolworths Financial Services (Proprietary) Limited is operated jointly with ABSA and provides its customers with a credit offering (www.woolworths.co.za).

Woolworths’ core philosophy is underpinned by quality, offering customers consistently high quality merchandise at affordable prices and incorporating innovative developments across the business. Building lifetime relationships with customers remains critical to the organisation’s success. The organisation strives to understand the needs of its customers and to meet these needs with ever increasing consistency (Woolworths’ annual report 2010:16 & 21).

Woolworths Holdings is well represented in all the regions in South Africa, operating 402 corporate and franchise stores. Table 11 below is a representation of the group’s stores across South Africa.
Table 5: Geographical distribution of Woolworths Holdings’ stores in South Africa
Source: updated from www.woolworths.co.za

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Number of Stores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Western Cape</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Cape</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Cape</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free State and Vaal</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kwazulu Natal</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gauteng</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North West</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mpumalanga and Limpopo</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>402</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 5, the group’s largest representation is in Gauteng (191 stores), followed by the Western Cape (79 stores), Kwazulu Natal (52 stores), Mpumalanga and Limpopo (24 stores), the Eastern Cape (22 stores), Free State and Vaal (17 stores), North West (15 stores), and the Northern Cape (2 stores).

The group has also made tremendous investments abroad in the following countries: Botswana (12 stores), Kenya (5 stores), Mauritius (1 store), Middle East (8 stores), Mozambique (1 store), Namibia (4 stores), Nigeria (1 store), Swaziland (2 stores), Tanzania (1 store), Uganda (2 stores), Zambia (1 store), Zimbabwe (2) and Australia and New Zealand (82 stores) (www.woolworths.co.za).

Financially, Woolworths Holdings is very sustainable. Though its year on year turnover is relatively little compared to Shoprite, Pick ‘n Pay and Spar, for most of the years, except in 2009, the group’s total revenue increased by more than a billion Rand. Like the other three supermarket chains, in 2009, business activity was very slow as a result of the global economic meltdown. This greatly impacted on the company’s total revenue. In 2009, total revenue increased by just R169 million from 2008 (Woolworths Holdings Limited 2010 annual report. 2010: 6).

The four major supermarket chains explored in this chapter control the bulk (60-70 percent) of the South African food retail industry. Their massive spread within and beyond the borders of South Africa, as well as the financial stability enjoyed by these
companies are testimonies of this assertion. The growth and expansion of South Africa’s major supermarket chains has been attributed to many factors. In the following discussion, the researcher examines the factors that have led to the growth and expansion of the leading supermarket chains in South Africa’s food retail landscape.

4.4 Section three: Factors that influence the growth of South Africa’s major food retailing supermarkets.

The food retail sector in South Africa, like others across the globe has experienced profound changes and growth since the concept of supermarket reached the shores of South Africa. This has been influenced by numerous factors. In this section, the researcher examines the factors that influence the growth and expansion of South Africa’s leading supermarket chains. The researcher has also looked at how growth and development in South Africa’s supermarket industry impacts on the consumer behaviour of the South African market.

The factors that influence growth in the South Africa’s supermarket industry include the following:

4.4.1 Competition in the industry

The South African retail arena is highly competitive. Two forms of competition can be distinguished. These include competition between major supermarkets chains and independent retailers and competition between the different leading supermarket chains.

The desire by independent food retailers to hold price levels up through existing laws on retail price maintenance, offers supermarkets the opportunity to buy in large volumes in order to sell at lower prices. It has been found that, South Africa’s independent retailers lack the resources not only to buy huge volumes of merchandise, but also to install sophisticated technology and to hire expertise needed to satisfy consumers and efficiently run the business as major supermarkets (Bernstein, 1996: 127; HCCLGC, 2009:16; Gillespie, 2007:182).
Also, competition between South Africa’s major retailers is rife. There is an increasing drive to amass a larger share of the market, especially in the previously under-stored areas. Apart from creating new formats and stores, the increasing competition within the industry is also highly manifested in acquisitions, mergers and the creation of new brands (Pape, 2000:246).

4.4.2 Globalization

Large South African supermarket chains are breaking from the confines of national markets and a relatively limited consumption base toward investment in the operation of stores in other countries, especially in Africa (Reardon & Neven, 2008: 189). Internationalization has greatly contributed to the growth of South Africa’s major retail chains and the industry as a whole. For instance, Shoprite Group Limited is represented in 15 other African countries, Pick ‘n Pay Holdings Limited in three countries, Spar Group Limited in four countries and Woolworths Holding Limited in 13 countries.

In addition to foreign investments, these chains also import food products from locations where the products are produced to areas where it is required but cannot be produced (OECD, 2004:57).

4.4.3 Demographic factors

South Africa has one of the largest markets in Africa. Since the demise of apartheid, there has been a dramatic increase in the size of the country’s population, notably in the urban areas. Officially, the population of South Africa stands at 45 million people. This excludes the large number of immigrants who flood into the country daily (mostly from other parts of Africa) in search of greener pastures (Chimhete, 2010; Ross, 2005:3).

In addition, since 1994, there has also been a fundamental increase in the number of South Africans leaving the rural areas to settle in the cities and towns. Population increase in South Africa is also influenced by a high birth rate and growth in marriages; hence a significant increase in the number of household units. The increase in South Africa’s population has resulted in an increase in the demand for a greater
variety of food products and other consumer goods. Thus, the increasing population of South Africa provides a large catchment for the growth and development of the supermarket industry (Beinart, 2001: 257).

4.4.4 Socio-Economic factors

Economic growth plays a significant role in the growth and spread of food retail supermarket chains in South Africa. Economic factors such as increase in disposal income and growth in middle class income have significantly led to an increased demand for food products in South Africa. Major supermarket chains have responded to the increase in disposable incomes by expanding product assortments at lower prices (http://www.allafrica.com; Smit et al., 1996: 264).

In addition, there has been a tremendous increase in the number of working housewives which has led to an increased demand for convenience foods such as canned, chilled and frozen food products (Smit et al. 1996: 264).

4.4.5 Technological factors

Considerable advancements in technology have led to a tremendous growth in food retailing in South Africa. Prominent technological developments include a drastic increase in car ownership (increased shopping mobility) and an increase in the number of households with deep freezers, making it possible for supermarkets to expand their frozen food lines (Trail, 2006: 164).

Also, over the years, South Africa’s major retail supermarket chains have invested substantially in information technology. This contributes immensely to their growth. For instance, in 2009, Spar Group invested R25 million in upgrading the group’s information system. Also, in the same year, Shoprite Group embarked on a number of substantial investments in technology in order to increase levels of excellence in the core processes of planning, sourcing, supplying and selling (SHG, annual report, 2009:30; Spar Group annual report, 2009:10).
4.4.6 Market liberalization

The impact of market liberalization on the supermarket food retail business is profoundly evident in the growth and spread of supermarkets in South Africa. This implies that South Africa’s supermarket chains have been able to integrate within cognate areas, both horizontally and vertically, through mergers, takeovers, acquisitions and ‘strategic partnerships’ (IMF, 2008: 61). For instance in 2006, the Pick ‘n Pay Group acquired 100 per cent of the business of Fruit and Veg City.

In addition, major South African supermarkets have, with relative ease, branched out into product lines as diverse as finance and petrol, as part of a logically organised corporate strategy to increase dividends to share holders. For instance, in October 2008, Pick ‘n Pay signed a groundbreaking deal with British Petroleum (BP) to sell discounted fuel. Equally, South African supermarkets offer services such as money transfers, utility and traffic fine payments, basic insurance policies, bus tickets, flight tickets on all domestic airlines and tickets for major cultural and sporting events in South Africa (SHG, annual report, 2009: 25).

Also, South Africa’s major retailers now integrate manufacturing and retail operations through development of own brands in their structures. For instance, Pick ‘n Pay’s own brands offers the widest choice of products (about 1600 different items) in Pick ‘n Pay stores across almost all categories, from convenience food to fresh fruits and vegetables, cereal and biscuits (www.pnp.co.za).

4.4.7 Supply chain management

The growing competition within the supermarket industry in South Africa entails that there is an effective and efficient supply chain management system to compete effectively on cost and quality in order to ensure profitability (Wilkinson et al., 2007:114). The respective procurement managers of South Africa’s major supermarket chains exert enormous amounts of effort and skills to ensure that their suppliers meet the organisational standards and most importantly customer expectations. This involves careful planning, implementation and control of the organisation’s supply chain to ensure that supermarkets provide the right food products to its consumers;
based on the right quantities delivered at the right place, at the right time and at minimal cost (Mantrala and Krafft, 2007:73).

In addition, South Africa’s supermarkets have become personally responsible for warehousing and transportation of their stocks by operating independent warehouses or regional distribution centres as well as own transportation fleet. For instance, in 2009, Shoprite Group increased its transportation fleet of trucks and trailers to more than 860 moving units. Also, the company’s investment in expert based route planning and scheduling solutions continues to deliver further benefits, adding efficiency in the execution of night deliveries and primary transport (SGH annual report, 2009: 31).

4.4.8 The retail marketing strategy

South Africa’s leading supermarkets invest enormously in marketing campaigns and strategies. These also significantly contribute to their growth and development. The marketing strategies of South Africa’s leading supermarket chains focus on the following areas:

(a) Type of merchandise and service offered.

\(c\) Store design and layout.

\(d\) The nature of service.

\(e\) Merchandise pricing.

\(f\) Advertising and promotional programs; and

\(g\) Store location.

4.4.8.1 Type of merchandise and service offered

Offering the right product, the right quantity, at the right time and place are incredible elements in a retail marketing strategy. A product is considered the right product if it contains the four product elements – functional, aesthetic, service and psychological benefits (Varley, 2006:10; Weitz and Levy 2004:23).
South Africa’s major supermarket chains are consistently improving their product offerings. As stated in Woolworths’s annual report, “we work closely with suppliers to introduce new and innovative products, which have real practical benefits for our customers” (WHL annual report: 2010:20).

In the same opinion, the Chief Executive Officer for Shoprite Group Holdings, J.W. Basson, remarks that “we believe that consumers will continue to demand the best value for their rand; hence we respond to consumers needs by providing more choices” (SGH, 2009:18).

### 4.4.8.2 Store design and layout

The store design and layout of a supermarket store plays a significant role in a retail marketing strategy. The layout and design creates the right shopping atmosphere for the target market shoppers (Lamba, 2002:381).

Through careful design of the floor, shelf position and in-store location, South Africa’s supermarkets make the best use of available space and also manipulate traffic flow within the store to maximize exposure to merchandise. For instance, Woolworths maintains that “our stores are looking modern and customers are telling us that it is easier to shop” (WHL 2010:14).

Shoprite Group maintains that the company’s accelerating move to freshness and the integration of specialist departments also impact on store lay-out and ambience (Shoprite Group annual report, 2009:32).

In the same vein, Pick ‘n Pay’s store format features a modern external design to attract attention and encourage trial. Pick ‘n Pay stores are designed to create a sense of space and cleanliness which shoppers appreciate (Pick ‘n Pay’s Annual Report, 2009).

### 4.4.8.3 The nature of service (the right service)

Providing service to customers is an important method for creating an advantage over competition. Customer service is a series of activities designed to enhance the level of
customer satisfaction. That is, a feeling that the product or service has met the expectations of the consumer. It is an integral part of a company’s value proposition. It plays an important role in an organisation’s ability to generate income and revenue (ICR, 2007: 5; Brink and Berndt, 2004:37).

Customer service features such as delivery and installation, transactional and informational assistance, credit and layaway, parking, complaint resolution, parcelling and operating store hours are all complementary services that enhance the customer’s experience at South Africa’s leading supermarkets.

For instance, at Shoprite, staff and management are continually trained to enforce the group's consumer policies geared at ensuring a satisfying and convenient shopping experience. Also, the Shoprite Group encourages its customers to give feedback on every shopping experience by completing a questionnaire (SGH annual report 2009:34).

In order to fortify its goal to offer fresh and quality food products, Pick ‘n Pay rewards its customers with a free fresh product if a customer finds an expired product on the shelf in any Pick ‘n Pay store (Gerber and Du Plessis 2008:104).

4.4.8.4 Merchandise pricing (the right price)

A successful retail strategy ensures that the prices of products are low enough to generate sales but high enough to cover costs and make fair profit (Mills, 2002:120). According to Shoprite Group, the right price is one that is satisfactory to the consumer not only before the sale, but after the sale as well. The company’s guiding mission is to be the consumers’ preferred shopping destination, by retailing food and non-food products at the lowest prices.

Pick ‘n Pay Group remarks that it will continue to fight relentlessly to ensure that the prices of its products are as low as possible. Pick ‘n Pay maintains that its “deliberate” policy to keep prices low affected its margins for the year 2009, but the group insists that it remains determined to negotiate with suppliers over cost increases (Florence de Vries 17-06-2009; Business Report).
In the same vein, Woolworths continually reviews its pricing strategy in order to provide more products to its consumers at competitive prices. According to the group’s 2010 report, the effective management of the company’s pricing structure has provided more choices to a greater number of customers and has also made customers to feel more confident than in the previous years (WHL annual report 2010: 21).

4.4.8.5 Advertising and promotional programs (the right appeal)

This ensures that the right message is communicated to the consumers through the right media. In making the right appeals, the message should contain the right content, presented in the right manner, directed to the right audience (e.g. mass market or target market or audience) and through the best medium of communication (Christensen and Flemming, 2007: 247; Weir, 1993:201).

South Africa’s supermarket chains advertise regularly in newspapers, magazines, television, radio, telephone, direct mail, window displays, outdoor signs, in-store demonstrations, and through personal sales representatives (Petersen and Scheepers, 2008:86).

According to Moerdyk (2009), Shoprite Group is way ahead of its competitors in terms of advertisement. He maintains that the group’s television adverts are simple, stunning and puts out a powerful message; actually what consumers want to hear. According to the group’s CEO, since creation, “lowest prices” has always been the framework of the group’s promotional communications (SHG, annual report 2009:11).

Equally, Mike Prentine (Marketing Director for Spar Group) remarks that through innovative advertising and promotional campaigns the company’s brand image, products and pricing has reached a large number of customers.

Also, Woolworths’ ongoing engagement with the media has been an important aspect of managing the company’s corporate reputation, as well as raising awareness of key sustainability issues (http://www.woolworthholdings.co.za).
4.4.8.6 Store location (the right place)

For a retailer, the right marketplace is the area containing enough people to enable the retailer to satisfy consumer needs at a profit. It is often deemed that store location is the prime consideration when consumers consider choosing a store (Ver Ploeg, 2010:83). For instance, the guiding mission of Shoprite Group is “to be the consumers’ preferred shopping destination, by retailing food and non-food products at the lowest prices from conveniently located outlets in an environment that is conducive for shopping”. The group argues that new store opportunities are directly related to population shifts and developments in new growth areas (www.shoprite.co.za).

South Africa’s supermarkets are positioned in areas that are accessible to the public. These areas include: Central Business Districts (CBD), free standing locations, and shopping centres. It is necessary to mention that South Africa’s supermarket chains are also well represented in shopping malls across the country. This is because South Africa’s malls are a huge force of attraction to local shoppers and tourists visiting the country (Armstrong and Fitzpatrick, 2006:248, Reid et al., 2003: 238).

It is hard to imagine that the increasing growth and development of South Africa’s major retail organisations do not impact the consumer behaviour of the South African market. In the discussions below, the author examines the impact of South Africa’s major chains on the consumption behaviour of the South African market.

4.4.9. Impact of supermarkets on the consumer in South Africa

Retailing is an activity linking consumers to goods and services in local markets. One of the measures of success for supermarket food retailers is the extent to which they can generate consumer interest and hence consumer satisfaction. This explains the rapid transformation in the food retailing industry in South Africa and in the world at large (Nijhof, 2006:87).

Driven by the rapidly growing market and the increasing demand for fresh and quality food products, which are virtually stimulated by changing cultural food patterns, South Africa’s major retail supermarkets have been compelled to swing their
structural and operational policies towards consumers. This has amounted to enormous transformations in the industry, which have profoundly impacted on the consumption behaviour of the larger South African market (Nijhof, 2006:87). Major changes in the South African supermarket industry that have largely impacted the consumption behaviour of the South African market include:

(a) One-stop shopping.

h) Self-service.

i) Lower prices.

j) Safe and quality food.

k) Health benefits.

l) Product assortment; and

m) Proximity.

4.4.9.1 One-stop shopping

The impact of supermarket chains on South African consumers can be traced to the emergence of the supermarket concept in South Africa. Since inception in South Africa, supermarkets have drastically changed the way people shop for food. Most people no longer stop at numerous specialty stores to purchase goods. This is because South Africa’s leading supermarket chains strive to stock large varieties of products under one roof (Strydom et al., 2009:378).

4.4.9.2 Self-service

Unlike specialty stores where customers queue in front of the counter to be attended to by a clerk, today’s South African consumers prefer shopping in supermarkets. This is because supermarkets offer the convenience to walk freely among the aisles, placing their selected merchandise from the shelves into shopping carts (trolleys) or baskets (self-service) and make payments for their chosen products at check-out points (Emongor, 2008: 44; Strydom et al., 2009:378).
4.4.9.3 Lower prices

Unlike independent retailers, South Africa’s supermarkets offer lower prices to their customers because they buy stocks in bulk. As a result, even the poorest in the community can afford to buy from the supermarket. For instance, Shoprite Group maintains that between 2008 and 2009, the group subsidised prices by approximately R456 million. The company’s philosophy of lowest prices has earned the organisation over 16 million shoppers in South Africa (SGH annual report 2009:10; www.shopriteholdings.co.za).

4.4.9.4 Safe and quality foods

In addition to lower prices, South Africa’s supermarket chains strive to ensure that consumers benefit from safe and quality foods. According to the Chief Executive Officer for Woolworths Holdings Limited, South African supermarkets follow much stricter quality requirements than traditional markets in sourcing and preserving food products, and this has been one of the main attractions for consumers. Therefore, only producers or suppliers who can meet the supermarkets’ very stringent conditions regarding quality, quantity and most importantly price, can participate in the supply chain (WHL annual report 2010:20).

4.4.9.5 Health benefits

One of the most important and intriguing impacts of South African supermarkets on the South African consumer is their influence on organic farming. South African supermarket chains such as Woolworths, Pick ‘n Pay and Shoprite have comfortably positioned themselves as front runners of organic lifestyle in South Africa. These supermarkets have recognised the relationship between production of food and the environment and the necessity to adopt better environmental practices in their suppliers’ agricultural systems to provide South Africa with food security and to protect its natural ecosystem (Barrow, 2006: 7).

In the absence of supermarkets, the rapid development of organic farming and the organic market over the last ten years in South Africa simply would not have happened. The support of supermarkets like Woolworths Holdings of organic
products has resulted in increased market opportunities for many organic producers in South Africa. Also, through product labels, promotional advertisements and interaction with sales representatives, Woolworths’ customers have the opportunity to be educated on food products, which are conducive to a healthy lifestyle (Barrow, 2006: 7, Hattam et al., 2002: 88).

4.4.9.6 Product assortment

The basic appeal of supermarkets is the availability of a broad selection of foods under a single roof at relatively low prices. South Africa’s supermarkets relentlessly source sufficient quantities of products, at the right prices, so that customers can find the same products on the shelves every week. Also, new products are constantly developed to ensure that the shelves are permanently stocked with both repeat and new offerings, thereby offering their customers new food experiences. While some of the foods may not be considered the best ethical or nutritional examples, this approach enables supermarkets to find new sources of supply and new ways to support producers. On the other hand, this practice energises consumers to experiment with new products. As a result, consumers relatively benefit from exposure to a variety of new and different products (Stamoulis et al., 2008: 195).

4.4.9.7 Proximity

The quest for increased market share, especially in the previously underscored areas in South Africa, compels supermarket chains to move closer to their consumers. Today, South Africa’s major supermarkets, especially Shoprite, are represented in every community in South Africa. According to Shoprite Group, their policy of meeting the customer is one of the reasons why approximately 16 million South African consumers are loyal to their brands. Shoprite argues that moving closer to the consumer enables the consumer to reduce buying cost (SHG 2009).
4.5 Critical analysis of sources

The absence of published scholarly works on South Africa’s major supermarkets compelled this study to rely on unpublished sources such as the websites and annual reports of South Africa’s major supermarket chains. Though data obtained from these sources played a phenomenal role in partly realizing the purpose of this study the sources are not the most credible for providing information for scholarly works such as a doctoral thesis. This is because information contained in these mediums is designed for multiple purposes with certain goals (most of which are not academic) with not well argued opinions since they do not rely on multiple sources to put forth an argument about a topic. As a result, gaps or loopholes are inevitable. This researcher argues that for the content of a source to be reliable, it has to earn reputation for being honest, truthful, unbiased and informative. Below is an analysis of the loopholes discovered in the literature extracted from the websites and annual reports of the supermarket chains in South Africa.

a) Shoprite Group Ltd

According to Shoprite Group’s 2009 Annual report, its marketing strategy entails providing millions of customers with the lowest prices in South Africa. The researcher is tempted to question whether this is not a ploy to win more customers or whether in actual fact the prices of the products stocked by Shoprite stores are lower than other supermarket chains in South Africa. In this researcher’s observation the prices are not as low as the organisation’s marketing campaigns claim. The researcher’s observations depict that Shoprite’s prices are to a large extent similar to those of other supermarkets. Also, this researcher thinks that such claims should be supported by findings of a study that surveyed whether Shoprite’s customers perceive its prices to be lower than other chains. In addition Shoprite maintains that its customer population in South Africa is 16 million. Also, the researcher believes that the claim should have been supported by information about a research conducted to arrive at such conclusion.

Also, the organisation maintains that despite the global economic recession in 2009, total group sales which include the organisation’s international retail division registered an increase of R59.3 billion from 47.7 billion in 2008. In this researcher’s
view, Shoprite group is made up of several brands. Thus, this author believes that the organisation would have presented a detailed breakdown of the revenue generated from its respective brands including its operations abroad. This will give its audiences a clearer picture of the performance of the different divisions of the company.

Again, on the company’s website, it is mentioned that the organisation has won many recognitions such as the number one supermarket by Sunday times. Also, it is mentioned that according to the January 2010 Deloitte report, Shoprite was listed as the largest retailer in South Africa and the 130th globally. In this researcher’s view, it is important for the public to know the criteria that was used as the benchmark for the awards. Also, the organisation reports that in 2010, for the third time in a row, the Shoprite brand was voted South Africa’s number one supermarket by the Sunday Times Top Brand Survey. However, this may be viewed as a marketing initiative as there is no mention of how the election was conducted, what criteria was used as the yardstick for voting, the sample population and number of people who voted. Thus, according to the researcher, it is difficult to ascertain the credibility of such data without supporting facts.

Also, in the company’s annual report, the organisation maintains that it responds to its consumers’ needs by providing more choices. In this researcher’s opinion, there is no indication of the measures taken by the organisation to determine the needs of its consumers. More so, if the organisation is committed to catering for the needs of its customers as it claims, then the specific food needs of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market should be catered for since immigrants also constitute a significant fraction of its clientele base.

In addition, Shoprite maintains that it encourages its customers to give feedback on every shopping experience by completing a questionnaire. In this researcher’s opinion this is not true. This researcher has never been given a questionnaire for shopping at Shoprite. Also, what happens to the findings of the surveys? Why is the outcome of the surveys not published on the company’s website or its annual report? Is the public not entitled to know what people think of the organisation based on information from the surveys? In this researcher’s opinion, this seems like a marketing ploy to give consumers the impression that the organisation is customer service oriented.
b) Pick ‘n Pay Group Ltd

On Pick ‘n Pays website, the company claims to operate the largest number of franchise stores in South Africa. But, there is no indication of the measure used by the company to arrive at such conclusion.

Also, it is indicated in the 2009 annual report that in 2001, its investments in Tanzania were sold to Shoprite. In this researcher’s opinion, it is necessary for the public to know why the investments were sold and for what price.

Again, on the company’s website it is reported that total profit increased from R1.517.3 billion in 2008 to 1.686.6 in 2009. However, no mention is made of how the different divisions or brands of the organisation contributed to the profit realized.

Also, it is reported that 2 years after inception, Pick ‘n Pay was listed as one of Sunday Times Top 100 companies and in 1984, Raymond Ackermans was named Cape Times Business Man of the year. This researcher believes that it is important for the public to know the criteria used for the award and how the organisation performed to merit the award. Also, there is no information on the criteria that was followed to make Raymond Akermans Cape Times Business Man of the year.

In addition, Pick ‘n Pay reports that its own brands offers the widest choice of products (about 1600 different items) in Pick ‘n Pay stores across all categories from convenience food to fresh fruits and vegetables and cereal and biscuits. This researcher believes that this is an exaggeration. The researcher’s observations depict that own brand products in Pick ‘n Pay’s stores are much less than 1600 different items. Also, not all the categories of the products in Pick ‘n Pay’s stores are branded with the company’s logo.

c) Spar Group Ltd

In the organisation’s annual report it is reported that the Group’s total revenue increased from R13,737.483 billion in 2005 to R32.256.2 billion in 2009. Spar Group like the other supermarket chains is made up of different brands. Therefore, it would
have been better to have a breakdown of the total profit according to the respective brands.

Also, the organisation claims that its successes could be attributed to excessive product development with 240 products being introduced and repackaged. This researcher believes that it would have been necessary for the organisation to provide a list of the products developed. Also, mention should have been made of how the new products were developed, for which market and what measure was used to determine the needs of the market.

Furthermore, Spa Group maintains that in many instances packaging of its products now includes detailed information on product ingredients and guidelines of recommended daily consumption, the objective being to help consumers to live a balanced and healthy lifestyle. In this researcher’s opinion, this is a marketing initiative to give the public the impression that the organisation is oriented towards ensuring that its customers lead a healthy lifestyle. This researcher is a loyal patron of the SuperSpar in his community and according to his observations, this information is far from true. The researcher finds nothing new in Spar’s packaging and labelling. Labels on Spar’s products are labels from the manufacturers or suppliers and are not different from the labels of same products in other supermarkets.

In addition, the Spar Group argues that its stores tailor their offerings to the needs of the consumers in the area where the store is located. Again, this researcher does not believe that this is true. According to the researcher’s observation Spar stocks similar products in all its stores in Cape Town. For instance, SuperSpar is one of the major supermarkets in Maitland, the strongest hold of sub-Saharan African immigrants in Cape Town but not even a single product from sub-Saharan Africa is found in the store.

d) Woolworths Group Ltd

According to Woolworth, its core philosophy is underpinned by quality and offering its customers consistently high quality merchandise at affordable prices. In this researcher’s point of view, Woolworths may offer quality products on a consistent basis but certainly not affordable prices. Public opinion as well as the researcher’s
observation holds that Woolworths is the most expensive of South Africa’s major supermarket chains.

The organisation also highlights that it works closely with its suppliers to produce new and innovative products which have real practical benefits for its customers. This researcher believes that it is necessary for Woolworths to include in its reports a list of its suppliers, the innovations on its products and the benefits enjoyed by customers.

Woolworths also maintains that the effective management of the company’s pricing structure has provided more choices to a greater number of customers and has also made customers to feel more confident than in the previous years. In this researcher’s opinion it is necessary to present how effective the company has managed its pricing policy, by what number has its customers increased and how confident are the organisation’s customers today compared to the past?

Furthermore the organisation also reported that its ongoing engagement with the media has been an important aspect of managing its reputation as well as rising awareness of its key sustainability issues. This researcher believes that these measures may in part be responsible for the reputation that the company has built over the years but it is the opinion of this researcher that Woolworths should have included in its report detailed information on its media types, the key sustainability issues that it strives to advance and what achievements have been made so far.

4.6 Summary of chapter

In this chapter, the researcher explores the insights of food retailing in South Africa with particular emphasis on the four leading South African supermarket chains in the food retailing industry. The discussions were split into five broad sections. In section one; the researcher looked at retailing and its characteristics. The researcher has also discussed the origin of the supermarket concept and the emergence of the concept in South Africa. It should be recalled that the supermarket industry started in the United States, and prior to its emergence in South Africa, retailing was concentrated in the hands of import houses and specialist stores. However, today, South Africa enjoys a sophisticated supermarket industry with four prominent chains leading the sector.
In the second section, the researcher discusses the dynamics of the four leading supermarket chains in South Africa. It is important to highlight that since creation, these organisations have not only developed expansively within the borders of South Africa, but also in other parts of the continent and beyond. It is equally worthy to mention that since the fall of apartheid, growth and development of the four supermarket chains have largely been concentrated in the previously under-stored areas in South Africa. These areas are also known as emerging markets, synonymous with violence and poverty during the apartheid era. As a result, these organisations have enjoyed profound financial growth and stability since inception. They have also earned significant recognitions both in and out of South Africa for enormously contributing to the development of South Africa’s retail sector and the continent at large.

However, growth and development within South Africa’s leading supermarket industry has been influenced by a number of factors. These factors have been discussed in section three of this chapter. An overview of the factors include: intensive competition between supermarkets and independent retailers, as well as competition among leading supermarket chains in the food retail industry; globalization, demography, technological, social, and economic developments, market liberalization, supply chain management and the organisations’ marketing strategies.

Nevertheless, it is difficult not to imagine that the profound growth and development of South Africa’s major supermarkets impacts on the consumption behaviour of the South African market. Notable changes in the consumption behaviour of South African consumers caused by the activities of major supermarkets include: the convenience of one-stop shopping, self-service, lower prices, safe and quality products, health benefits, product assortments and store proximity.

Finally, in the last section the author has critically examined the literature obtained from websites and annual reports of the four supermarket chains in South Africa.

The purpose of this study could not be realised without developing a comprehensive methodological framework. Therefore, in the following chapter, the researcher looks at the methods used in acquiring data for the research prior to discussing the findings in chapter six.
CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

A research methodology is an indispensable research criterion in that it defines the activity of a specific research, its procedural methods, strategies for progress measurement, and criteria for research success in relation to specific research aims (De Vaus, 2003: 4).

The methodological approach described in this chapter in all intents and purposes presents the specific tools used to acquire and measure data that enabled this researcher to realise the purpose of the research – to establish a food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa in order for South Africa’s major supermarkets to establish marketing strategies to fulfil their indigenous food needs.

It is worth emphasising that methodological rigour was one of the touchstones of this research. This researcher was committed to ensure representativity, reliability and confidentiality in the acquisition of data. In this respect, the researcher consulted a range of standard texts (De Vaus, 2003, Kumar, 2005 and Bryman and Bell, 2007) on scientific research methods.

This chapter has been structured into five sections. In section one, the researcher highlights the activities leading to the conceptualization of the study. Section two is an examination of the methods used in the collection of the data and the ethical considerations of the study. In section three, the researcher has tested the validity and reliability of the data. In section four the researcher discusses the methods used in analysing the findings of the study and in section five the researcher has discussed the limitations of the study.

5.2 Section one: Conceptualization of the study

Conceptualizing a research study looks at developing the research idea and how the study will be conducted (Robertson and Bayens, 2010: 3). The researcher and his
coordinators spent an enormous amount of effort and time to establish the concept of the study in order to ensure that it makes a significant contribution to the study of immigrant consumer behaviour. Numerous meetings were held to discuss the research, from drafting of the study proposal to the submission of the final report for examination. One of the most important stages in the conceptualization process was the definition of the scope of the study which is discussed in the following paragraph.

5.2.1 The scope of study

The scope of this research was limited to the Western Cape Province of South Africa, with the notion that the findings will represent the views and opinions of the larger sub-Saharan African immigrant population in South Africa. It is necessary to remark that the Western Cape Province of South Africa harbours the second largest sub-Saharan African immigrant population in South Africa, after Gauteng Province. In addition, the head offices of the four leading supermarket chains discussed in the previous chapter are found in the Western Cape. Thus, the researcher did not only benefit from access to information from a large and diverse population of sub-Saharan African immigrants, but also from executives of South Africa’s major supermarket chains.

Adopting the Western Cape as the case study for the research was very helpful in terms of the realisation of the aims of the study. In fact, the case study approach enabled the researcher to enjoy the following advantages:

(a) The researcher had an in-depth study of the research problem.

(b) He was capable of creating full descriptions and rich understandings of social contexts that have relevance and resonance across social sites.

(c) Due to its critical mode, as expressed in action research, the approach enabled the research participants to play a pro-active role in the study. That is, it enabled the participants to make a contribution in shaping the policies that affect their social environment and to determine the norms and values that direct their social practices.
(d) By adopting a case study approach, the author benefited from valuable research strategies and insights in the sense that it is a methodologically flexible approach permitting the selection of the methods used to collect and analyse data with the complexity of the case and its context in mind. According Putman et al. (2004:48), typically the case study researcher utilises mixed methods with multiple sources of data to capture this complexity; and

(e) The study entails a highly contextualized and complex phenomenon of interest with multiple variables unsuitable for control, thereby making a case study approach suitable.

Therefore, using the Western Cape Province as the case study of this research has enabled the researcher to effectively realise the aims of the study and, above all, ensured a comprehensive presentation of the main arguments.

In addition to establishing the case study, it was equally important for the researcher to define the sample population of the study which represents the subject of the next paragraph.

5.2.2 The sample population

A sample is a representative subject chosen from a population for investigation. In other words, samples are elements selected with the intention of finding out something about the total population from which they are taken (Christensen and Burke, 2010: 218). It has been revealed by Russell (2006: 584) that the quality of the sample plays a significant role in defining the quality of a study. In this regard, the researcher exerted time and effort to ensure that the participants were interested and willing to be part of the study. The aim was to ensure reliability and a deeper understanding of the data.

A total number of 409 immigrants from an estimated population of 5 million sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa took part in the study. An online sample size calculator by Creative Research Systems was used to ensure that the sample
population was a representation of the estimated sub-Saharan African immigrant population in South Africa (http://www.surveysystem.com).

The participants hailed from 26 sub-Saharan African countries; who are now residents of the Western Cape Province of South Africa. From Central Africa, participants came from the Democratic Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Burundi and Cameroon. From East Africa, respondents came from Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Eritrea, Ethiopia and Somalia. From Southern Africa, the study got participants from Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Participants from West Africa came from Cote d'Ivoire, Gabon, Ghana, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone and Togo (see chapter 1, paragraph 1.7.2).

5.2.2.1 Sampling methods

Two sampling methods were used in the study, namely random and snowball sampling. Random sampling ensured that every sub-Saharan African immigrant resident in the Western Cape Province had an equal opportunity to take part in the research. By snowball sampling, immigrants recommended someone from their country or from any other sub-Saharan African country who could also participate in the study. It is important to note that the majority of the respondents were reached through snowball sampling. These respondents were either contacted physically, by telephone or by email.

5.2.2.2 The sampling criteria

Irrespective of country of origin, all the participants in the study had to fulfil the following sampling criteria:

(a) The participant had to be an immigrant from any sub-Saharan African country except South Africa.

(b) He/she had to be older than 18 years.

(c) He/she had to be mentally sound in order to consent to participation.
(d) He/she needed to show interest and willingness to participate in the study; and

(e) Participation was not limited to gender or racial background.

5.3 Section two: Data collection

In this study, two types of data collection sources were used, namely, secondary and primary.

5.3.1 Secondary data

Secondary data is data that has been collected by someone other than the researcher or user and made readily available from other sources (Lancaster & Crowther 2008: 91). According to Bougie & Sekaran (2009: 69), in order to maintain objectivity in marketing studies it is essential for the researcher to have sufficient knowledge of existing literature in the area. With this in mind, the author made substantial use of secondary data in the area of research. Contemporary literature relating to the study came from the following sources:

a) Published books: Books were sourced from the libraries of universities in Cape Town but mainly from the library of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology. A significant number of books were also accessed online through google scholar.

b) Articles in journals: All the articles used in the study were obtained from the library of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology’s online database.

c) Newspaper reports: Newspapers were also obtained from the library.

d) Information on websites: So many websites were used to obtain information about concepts discussed in the research. These websites were accessed through google search engine. The websites of the major supermarket chains in South Africa were also very useful.
e) *The annual report.* The annual reports of the four major supermarket chains discussed in the study were obtained from their websites. The reports were very helpful in providing insights about the chains

f) *Theses.* Theses were also very helpful in the study obtained from the University’s collection.

This researcher can not overemphasise the contributions of secondary sources towards the realisation of the purpose of the study. The wealth of secondary data reviewed in this research enabled the researcher to benefit from the following:

(a) The researcher was able to establish a definitive background of the study.

(b) He could also identify the research problem and more specifically define the research objectives.

(c) A review of existing data enabled the researcher to define and develop an approach to realise the purpose of the research.

(d) The researcher was also able to define the methodological approach for obtaining primary data for the research; and

(e) Finally, information obtained from secondary sources profoundly assisted the author in analysing and interpreting the findings obtained from primary sources.

Therefore, it is worth mentioning that the immigrant food consumption behaviour model established in this research is a combination of data derived from secondary and primary sources.

### 5.3.2 Primary data

Primary data entails the collection of original data ranging from more scientifically rigorous approaches such as randomized control trials to less rigorous ones such as case studies. In market research, primary data entails getting original data directly about a product and market. Primary data collected for the first time is used for solving the particular problem under investigation (McDaniel *et al.*, 2000: 269).
Two methods were used to acquire primary data for this study, namely, interviews and a questionnaire survey.

5.3.2.1 Interviews

An interview seeks to describe and explain the meanings of central themes in the life world of the subjects. The main task in interviewing is to understand the meaning of what the interviewees say. Interviews allow people to convey to others a situation from their own perspective and in their own words (King and Horrocks, 2009: 42). According to Lincoln and Denzin (2005:869) research interviews are based on the conversation of everyday life; that is, conversations with structure and purpose that are defined and controlled by the researcher. In the opinion of Skinner and Edwards (2009: 109) interviews are particularly useful for getting the story behind a participant’s experiences.

In the realisation of the purpose of this study, interviews were conducted with three sets of participants, namely, sub-Saharan Africa immigrants, representatives of leading retail chains in South Africa and ethnic entrepreneurs.

5.3.2.1.1 Interviews with sub-Saharan African immigrants

A total of 173 immigrants from 26 sub-Saharan African countries were interviewed in the study. The essence was to achieve the following aims of the study:

(a) To establish a deeper understanding of the food (local and indigenous) consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

(b) To examine the extent to which supermarket chains and ethnic food retailers and restaurants fulfil the culinary requirements of the sub-Saharan African immigrant population in South Africa.

(c) To examine whether sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa would prefer to buy their indigenous foods from major South African retailers, should they invest in the market.
(d) To establish some of the home-grown staple foods that sub-Saharan African immigrants would like to find in major South Africa’s supermarkets; and

(e) To establish the perceptions of sub-Saharan African immigrants about ethnic food retailers.

At the interviews, the researcher used a prepared list of semi structured questions carefully designed to achieve the aims listed above. The majority of the interviewees were residents of renowned immigrant communities in the Western Cape Province such as Bellville, Parow, Maitland, Brooklyn, Table View, Mowbray, Rosebank, Rondebosch, De Doorns, Khayelitsha, Gugulethu, Hout Bay and central Cape Town.

The interviews took place at the immigrants’ homes, their shops, shopping malls, ethnic retail shops and restaurants, traffic intersections (where immigrants gather every morning seeking employment or begging from motorists) train and taxi stations, and the Refugee Reception Centre in Maitland (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2; Appendix C).

Interviews with sub-Saharan African immigrants took about an hour. Prior to every interview, the researcher spent between 2 to 5 minutes to explain the purpose of the study. It is important to mention that a number of immigrants (mostly those without legal permits) were initially scared to take part in the study for fear of being victimised. In this instance, the author further explained that the study was to fulfil the requirement for a doctorate degree in Marketing Management. In certain cases, the researcher also presented his student card to strengthen his argument. However, though the researcher enjoyed an overwhelming degree of participation, some of the participants requested not to be identified in the final report. Of course the researcher adhered to their request. As a mark of honesty, none of the participants’ (those who want to be anonymous) identities have been mentioned in any part of this thesis.

Guided by the prepared semi structured interview questions, the researcher tried to develop an in-depth understanding of the local and indigenous food consumption behaviour of the interviewees. The questions were designed in a way that encouraged the respondents to develop their thinking and to present more insights to further
support their opinions and perspectives. In some cases, questions and themes that were not clearly understood were explained in greater detail by the researcher.

The mid point of the interviews appeared more like a conversation. The discussions went deeper and the researcher could figure a greater sense of interest expressed by the respondent. At this point, many of the interviewees asked whether South Africa’s supermarket chains commissioned the study. In fact, at this stage, interviewees who were initially scared to take part in study for security reasons became very comfortable. Their perception of the study changed to that of making a contribution to enhance their wellbeing in South Africa. The researcher was asked questions such as: *Why are South Africa’s major supermarkets not selling foodstuffs from other African countries? Is this study going to enable them to stock foodstuffs from our countries?*

These questions filled the researcher’s mind with joy as he benefited from a deeper insight of how sub-Saharan African immigrants feel about the absence of foodstuffs from their countries of origin in South African supermarkets. The questions also gave the researcher a sense of how these immigrants would feel should South Africa’s leading supermarket chains start selling products from other parts of sub-Saharan Africa.

The interviews ended with the researcher asking the respondents to state their overall feelings about South Africa’s major supermarkets and ethnic entrepreneurs. Many of the respondents commended the researcher for the initiative and looked forward to seeing food products from their countries in South Africa’s major supermarkets. The researcher remarked that the decision to stock indigenous food products from other African countries is the sole responsibility of the supermarket chains. However, the researcher added that, for South Africa’s leading supermarket chains interested in investing in the sub-Saharan African immigrant market, this study could serve as an important resource in facilitating the process.

Throughout the interviews, the researcher gave short summaries for confirmation or elaboration of the facts presented by the respondents. This was to facilitate the job of analysing the data. In the data analysis stage this researcher did a small number of follow-ups to verify certain matters and to fill a number of gaps, or confirm with one person, something that had been said by another. He contacted some of the
participants several times for clarifications on some of the terms and information provided by the respondents.

5.3.2.1.2 Interviews with major supermarket chains

With the exception of Pick ’n Pay Group Holdings Ltd, interviews were held with representatives of Shoprite Group Holdings Ltd, Woolworths Group Holdings Ltd and Spar Group Holdings Ltd. The interviews were aimed at achieving the following:

(a) To identify the perceptions of South Africa’s major retailers about the sub-Saharan African immigrant market.

(b) To know why South Africa’s major retailers do not stock food products from other sub-Saharan African countries; and

(c) To establish whether South Africa’s major retailers will cater for the indigenous food needs of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market if a food consumption behaviour model of the market is established.

Interviews with representatives of South Africa’s leading supermarkets lasted between one and two hours. Prior to the interviews, letters were sent to the organisations requesting a meeting with the respective CEOs. Unfortunately, due to their busy schedules at the time of the study, none of the CEOs was available for an interview with the researcher. However, representatives were designated by the respective organisations to be interviewed by the researcher. At the time of the writing of this report, there was still no response from Pick ‘n Pay with regards to taking part in the study, despite numerous attempts made by the researcher. It is important to highlight that the conclusions pertaining to the findings obtained from South Africa’s leading supermarkets excludes contributions from Pick ‘n Pay Group Holdings Ltd.

A pre-designed questionnaire was also used to gather information from all the representatives of the supermarket chains. The questions were designed to uncover the perceptions of the supermarket chains pertaining to the sub-Saharan African immigrant market; why sub-Saharan African indigenous food products are not found in South Africa’s major supermarkets and whether these organisations will consider tailoring their marketing campaigns and strategies to cater for the indigenous food
needs of sub-Saharan African immigrants, should this study creates a model of the food consumption behaviour of South Africa’s sub-Saharan African immigrants.

Notably, all the participants acknowledged the growing potential of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa and with the exception of Woolworths, these organisations have committed to cater for the indigenous food needs of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market, should the immigrants’ food consumption behaviour model is established (see chapter 6).

5.3.2.1.3 Interviews with ethnic entrepreneurs

The study would have been partly complete without obtaining information from ethnic entrepreneurs. Nine ethnic entrepreneurs were interviewed in the study. The aims of the interviews were as follows:

(a) To explore the entrepreneurs’ perceptions of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market.

(b) To examine the factors that motivated them to trade in indigenous African foodstuffs in South Africa.

(c) To explore the dynamics of trading in indigenous African foodstuffs.

(d) To have a deeper understanding of the indigenous food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants from the perspective of the entrepreneurs; and

(e) To examine the challenges encountered by ethnic entrepreneurs in the indigenous foods industry.

The interview process with ethnic entrepreneurs lasted for just an hour. Telephonic appointments were made with some of the proprietors. Others were contacted physically to schedule an appointment for an interview. Like the rest of the interviews, the researcher was guided by a list of pre-interview questions carefully designed to fulfil the aims of the research.
It is important to remark that the researcher received an enormous amount of cooperation from most of the interviewees. However, few entrepreneurs declined to participate while others simply did not respect appointments made with the researcher. In some instances where the proprietor could not make the appointment, the researcher informally asked either the sales person or the manager of the shop a few questions pertaining to the study.

Some of the respondents were particularly concerned about revealing the details of their operations for fear of the fact that the information may be leaked to their competitors. In this case, the researcher promised to keep the discussion as confidential as possible.

Overall, information obtained from ethnic retailers played a profound role in formulating the food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa (see Appendix D; chapter 6 paragraph 6.4).

5.3.3 The questionnaire

A questionnaire is a structured technique for collecting primary data in a survey. It is a series of written or verbal questions for which the respondent provides answers. A well designed questionnaire motivates the respondent to provide complete and accurate information. In formulating a questionnaire, each question should have a specific purpose or should not be included in the questionnaire. The goal of the questions is to obtain the required information. This is not to say that all questions must directly ask for the desired data. In some cases questions can be used to establish a relationship with the respondent especially when sensitive information is being sought (Christensen and Burke 2010:163; Denscombe, 2007:153).

In this study, 400 questionnaires were administered to immigrants from 26 sub-Saharan African countries. Of the 400 administered questionnaires, 236 came back completed; a response rate of 59%.
5.3.3.1 The questionnaire design

In designing the questionnaire, the questions were carefully formulated to achieve the same aims as the interviews conducted with the 173 sub-Saharan African immigrants (see paragraph 5.3.2.1.1). A draft of the questionnaire was sent to the researcher’s supervisors for examination before they were administered. Changes were made in the questionnaire based on the supervisors’ suggestions and recommendations. In this way the questionnaire was refined and could thereafter be used for the purpose of the study. Also, in order to be assured that the respondents were not going to have any problems responding to the questions, the questionnaire was pre-tested by seven immigrants from seven sub-Saharan African countries. Again, a few changes were made to the questionnaire based on the suggestions of some of the immigrants.

The questionnaire comprised of 27 simple and clear questions; the majority of which were closed with multiple choices to facilitate response and analysis. The questionnaire was structured into three parts. The first part examined the demographic or biographic characteristics of the immigrants. The second part looked at the consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants with regards to local foods while part three dealt with the indigenous foods consumption behaviour of the respondents.

Fifteen research assistants from 15 sub-Saharan African countries were recruited from the University of Cape Town and the Cape Peninsula University of Technology to administer the questionnaire. Prior to embarking on the project, the researcher explained the details of the questions to the employees at a meeting, which took place at the main library of the Cape Town campus of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT). The researcher also took part in administering the questionnaires although the bulk of them was administered by students. In situations were a respondent could not fill out the questionnaire due to inability to write in English, the researcher and the students filled out the questionnaire on the respondent’s behalf. The questionnaire was divided into three parts. Part one dealt with the demography of the respondents, part two examined their local foods consumption behaviour while part three looked at the immigrants’ indigenous foods consumption behaviour.
5.3.3.1 Part one: Biographical data

The first seven questions in the questionnaire looked at the demographic features of the respondents. The questions were designed to examine the influence of the respondent’s demographic characteristics in their food consumption behaviour. The demographic attributes explored were as follows: country of origin, gender, marital status, level of education, occupation, respondents’ reasons for leaving their countries of origin and the respondents’ duration of residency in South Africa.

5.3.3.2 Part two: Consumption of South African foodstuffs

The questions in this category ranged from Q8 to Q16. In Q8 respondents were asked to choose their preferred supermarket(s) from a list of five supermarkets (Shoprite, Pick ‘n Pay, Checkers, Spar and Woolworths). In Q9, they were asked to state the number of weekly visits to their preferred supermarket(s). Respondents had the following options to choose from: one time, two times, three times or four and more times. In Q10, respondents were asked to indicate the factors that influence their choice of foods. On a five point Likert Scale (strongly agree, agree, unable to judge, disagree or strongly disagree) respondents were asked to indicate how factors such as quality, taste, product assortment, product availability, product similarity, culture, price, dietary needs and location of the shop influence their food consumption behaviour.

In Q11, respondents were asked to state the level of similarity between home and South African food products. The selection criteria were: very similar, similar, somewhat similar or not at all. Also, in Q12, respondents were asked to report on the extent to which South Africa’s supermarkets satisfy their expectations of food products. Respondents were asked to choose from the following: all, a lot, some, just a little or not at all. Also, in Q13 the researcher attempted to find out whether respondents felt worried not finding foodstuffs from their countries in South Africa’s supermarkets. Respondents were asked to state whether they felt very worried, worried, unable to judge, not very worried or not worried.

In Q14, respondents were asked to state the extent to which they have modified their food needs to suit local availability in South Africa. Respondents had the following
options to choose from: very large extent, large extent, small extent, very small extent or not at all. In Q15 respondents were asked to indicate the amount spent on local food monthly. They had to choose one of the following: R500-R999; R1000-R1999; R2000-R2999 or R3000 and more. Finally, in Q16, respondents were asked to state their overall experience at South Africa’s supermarkets. They had to indicate whether their experience was excellent, good, average or poor.

It is noteworthy that the responses of the questions in this part of the questionnaire gave the researcher an insightful knowledge and understanding of the perceptions, attitudes and the general consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants pertaining to local foods.

5.3.3.1.3 Part three: Indigenous food consumption in South Africa

Questions in this section of the questionnaire ranged from Q17 to Q27. The questions aimed at exploring the indigenous food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. Salient information such as the benefits derived from consuming the products, their monthly spend, sources of acquisition, frequency of consumption and factors that influence the consumption of indigenous foods were deduced from the questions. Above all, the questions portrayed a detailed account of the respondents’ indigenous foods consumption behaviour and their perceptions of ethnic entrepreneurs.

In Q17 respondents were asked whether, in South Africa, they also consume food products from their countries of origin by ticking either Yes or No. In Q18, they were asked to indicate their source or sources of indigenous foodstuffs in South Africa. By answering either Yes or No to the following options (a) friends and/or relatives visiting South Africa (b) immigrant or ethnic food retailers and (c) immigrant restaurants. Also, in Q19, sub-Saharan African immigrants were asked to state their experiences at immigrant retail shops and restaurants. Immigrants had to measure their experiences based on the following criteria: product quality, level of service and product assortment and availability. They had to say whether their experiences were excellent, good, average or poor.
In Q20, respondents were asked to remark on the prices of foods sold at immigrant retail shops and restaurants. Respondents were expected to state whether the prices were very affordable, affordable, unable to judge, not very affordable or not affordable. In Q21, immigrants were also asked to remark on their monthly spend on indigenous food products in South Africa. Respondents had to choose one of following: R500-R999; R1000-R1999; R2000-R2999 or R3000 and more. In Q22, immigrants were also asked to state whether visits to ethnic retail shops and restaurants makes them feel like they are visiting their home country. Respondents had to indicate either Yes or No. In Q23, respondents were asked to mention whether they will buy from supermarkets should they sell products from their home countries. In answering this question, they were expected to either say Yes or No. In Q24 (the only open ended question) immigrants were asked to state some of the food products from their countries that they would like to see in South Africa’s major supermarkets.

In Q25, respondents were asked to remark on the importance of friends and relatives as sources of information about indigenous foods in South Africa. They had to choose from the following: very important, important, slightly important or not important. In Q26, respondents were asked to remark whether they would try another shop in case their preferred supermarket or ethnic retail shop does not fulfil their expectations. They had to tick either Yes or No. Finally, in Q27, sub-Saharan African immigrants had to indicate whether their South African partners, friends, boy/girlfriends and colleagues play a role in influencing their food consumption patterns. Again, they had to tick either Yes or No (See appendix B for the questionnaire).
5.3.4 Ethics considerations

The successful completion of a research project does not only require expertise and diligence but also requires honesty and integrity. This is done to recognise and protect the rights of human subjects. The researcher ensured that the rights to self-determination, anonymity, confidentiality and the consent of all the participants were observed prior, during and after the project.

The process of ensuring an ethically credible research process began with the acquisition of an ethics clearance certificate from the Higher Degrees Committee (HDC) of the university. That is, after going through the research proposal and ensuring the submission of the necessary documents for the protection of the rights of the participants in the course of the study, the Higher Degrees Committee (HDC) cleared the researcher of any possible ethical violations in the research process.
Secondly, prior to meeting with representatives of leading South Africa’s supermarket chains, the researcher wrote a letter (co-signed by his supervisor and the Head of Research in the Faculty of Business, Prof. André Slabbert) to the organisations, requesting authorisation to meet with the CEOs.

In addition, all the interviews commenced with a detailed explanation of the purpose of the study. Respondents were informed of their rights to voluntarily consent or decline to participate, and to withdraw participation at any time without penalty.

Finally, the researcher promised to respect the views of respondents who did not want to be identified in the study as well as those who did not want their opinions to be disclosed to anyone.

5.4 Section three: Validity and reliability of the study

The principles of validity and reliability are fundamental cornerstones of every research project. Together, they are the core of what is accepted as scientific proof by scientists and philosophers alike (Cohen et al., 2007: 133).

5.4.1 Reliability

This relates to the consistency of your measurement, or the degree to which an instrument measures the same way each time it is used under the same conditions with the same subjects. The idea behind reliability is that any significant results must be more than a once-off finding and be inherently repeatable (Babbie, 2010: 328). Other researchers must be able to perform exactly the same experiment, under the same conditions, and generate the same results. This will reinforce the findings and ensure that the wider scientific community will accept the findings (Walker, 2011:1).

In this study a number of steps were taken to ensure the reliability of the findings. First, a rich collection of secondary literature was reviewed to define the problem, background, aims and conceptual or theoretical foundation of the study. The literature review gave the researcher an insight of the methodological and theoretical lapses of existing studies in the subject. This served as a guide in designing the methodological approach of the research.
Secondly, similar questions were asked to sub-Saharan African immigrants at the interviews and in the questionnaire survey. This was to ensure accuracy and consistency in the findings.

Also, in the process of establishing the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, the researcher looked at the immigrants’ local and indigenous food consumption patterns. The researcher resisted limiting the study to just one of the food types (local or indigenous) since both food types mutually affect the food consumption pattern of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

In addition, the size of the sample was scientifically established by Creative Research Systems’ (CRS) online sample size calculator. This was to ensure a credible representation of the views and opinions of the larger sub-Saharan African immigrant population in South Africa.

Finally, all the participants in the study passed the selection criteria. This was to ensure accuracy of the data obtained from the participants (see paragraph 5.2.2.2).

5.4.2 Validity

Research is valid only if it actually studies what it is set out to study and only if the findings are verifiable. Validity relates to the strength of the author’s conclusions, inferences or propositions. It entails the establishment of accurate operational measurements for the research’s core concept (Cohen et al., 2007: 133). This is done by establishing a chain of evidence throughout the data collection process; by verifying key information through the use of multiple sources of information; and by presenting informants with a draft of the study for review (Munhall, 2010:390).

The primary test of the validity of this study is the fact that the research was approved by the Higher Degrees Committee of the university as a suitable project for the award of a doctorate degree in Marketing Management in the sense that it will make a significant contribution to scientific knowledge.
Secondly, the study has achieved the purpose for which it was intended, which is the creation of a food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. In the process of realising the purpose of the study, the researcher included all the parties involved in the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan immigrants in South Africa. In other words, leading South African supermarket chains and ethnic entrepreneurs contributed enormously in realising the project.

Furthermore, the researcher has applied the universal consumer behaviour concept to establish a definitive food consumption behaviour model specific of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. Thus, instead of making sweeping assumptions based on global food consumption practices, South Africa’s leading supermarket chains and other establishments interested in the sub-Saharan African immigrant market may use this document as a platform for accurate decisions pertaining to the sub-Saharan African immigrant market.

Also, apart from scientifically (Creative Research Systems’ online sample size calculator) ensuring that the sampled population was a representation of the general immigrant population in South Africa, this researcher also ensured that participants were chosen from all the sub-Saharan African countries represented in South Africa. This implies that, the food consumption model established in this research is a combination of the consumption behaviour of all the sub-Saharan African immigrant groups in South Africa (and not just a few).

In addition, the questions for the interviews and questionnaire survey were carefully designed to ensure that the answers were aligned to the purpose of the study. Also, prior to rolling out the questionnaire, the questions were carefully reviewed by the researcher’s supervisors and tested by seven immigrants from seven sub-Saharan African countries. This was to ensure that respondents did not have any problems responding to the questions in order to ensure accuracy, validity and reliability of the data.

Also, the researcher and his assistants are immigrants from sub-Saharan Africa. The team was overwhelmingly passionate about the study and strove to use it as a platform to improve the standards of living of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.
In this regard, the team ensured that information obtained from the participants largely contributed to the realisation of the purpose of the study.

5.4.3 The sampling error

A research sampling error is a measure of the precision of the data. In other words it is the difference between the sample measure and the corresponding population measure (McNabb, 2008:131).

In this study it wasn’t practical to obtain information from every sub-Saharan African immigrant in South Africa. Instead, the researcher sampled a relatively small number of immigrants and inferences have been drawn about the entire population from their responses. It is therefore imperative to establish the degree of error based on the responses of the sample population. That is, how close to the actual population value the researcher’s estimate is likely to be if data from the entire sub-Saharan African immigrant population in South Africa was examined.

In doing this, the researcher made use of the online sample calculator by Creative Research Systems (www.Surveysystem.com) to find the level of precision in the existing sample.

The following information was established:

(a) The confidence level: this is the amount of uncertainty that a researcher can tolerate. It tells the researcher how sure he can be. The confidence level of this study is 95%.

(b) Response distribution: this is an estimation of the expected response for each question asked to the sample. In this study, the value of the response distribution is 50%.

Therefore, with a sample of 409 immigrants chosen from an estimated population of five million sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, the confidence interval or margin of error was found to be 4.85%. This implies that if the entire sub-Saharan African immigrant population took part in the survey, instead of the sampled population, the researcher is 95% convinced that the findings of this study represent
the opinions and views of 45%-55% of the entire sub-Saharan African immigrant population in South Africa.

It is considered a good practice to account for the degree of precision when presenting any analytical results derived from a sample. This is because the larger the margin of error, the less faith one should have that the reported results from the sampled population are close to reality.

5.5 Section four: Data analysis

In the previous sections, the author has discussed the methods used in the study to collect data. However, studies (Skilling and Sivia 2006: 148; Romano and Carpineto 2004: xi) argue that data alone cannot give the author answers to the research problem. According to Skilling and Sivia (2006: 148), in order to see patterns and trends in the data, they must be analysed and interpreted. Guerrero (2010: 56) adds that data analysis helps the researcher to determine the best course of action, and his/her decision is based on the interpretation of the information. In this section this researcher discusses how qualitative and quantitative data obtained from the interviews and the questionnaire survey were analysed.

5.5.1 Qualitative data analysis

A qualitative study is an inquiry process of understanding a social or human problem, based on building a complex, holistic picture, formed with words and reporting detailed views of the informants. Qualitative research methods evaluate selected topics in depth and in detail (Rossman and Marchall, 2010:2). Qualitative studies gain insight into people’s attitudes, behaviours, value systems, concerns, motivations, aspirations, culture and lifestyles. They are used to inform business decisions, policy formation, communication and research. Focus groups, in-depth interviews, content analysis, ethnography, evaluation and semiotics are among the many formal approaches that are used in qualitative studies, but qualitative research also involves the analysis of any unstructured material, including feedback forms, reports and media clips (Silverman, 2009: 268-387).

Qualitative research has many focal points, which include:
(a) **What people say**: that is, the knowledge they have and what they understand. It basically looks at the conscious mind.

(b) **What people mean, need or desire**: this implies the emotional drivers – conscious and unconscious and researching the psyche.

(c) **What people do**: this looks at the actions they take, and what they see themselves doing as well as researching meaningful behaviour; and-

(d) **The culture within which people (and brands) live**: This implies cultural forces and meaning systems. Researching shared meanings, norms and codes (Stake, 2010: 37).

In this study, qualitative data was analysed using John Seidel’s (1998) *noticing, collecting and thinking* method. A salient feature of Seidel’s model is that it is progressive and recursive in that it is a cycle that keeps repeating, and when the author thinks of one thing, new things are noticed, collected and given deeper thought.

**a) Noticing**

At the noticing stage, the researcher took note and wrote down salient points made by respondents during the interviews. At the end of every interview, the data was entered on the computer according to themes, incidents and topics. By doing this, the researcher produced a record of the things he had noticed.

**b) Collecting**

At the collection stage, the researcher sorted and sifted the facts already broken down into manageable pieces. In other words each appropriate line or section of the data was marked and coded in the margin.

**d) Thinking**

Finally, at the thinking stage, the researcher examined the data that has been collected with three goals in mind:

(a) To make sense out of each collection.
(b) To look for patterns and relationships within and across the collections; and

(c) To make general discoveries about the phenomena that the researcher is researching.

The aim of this process is to assemble or reconstruct the data into a meaningful or comprehensible fashion (see chapter 6).

5.5.2 Quantitative data analysis

Quantitative research refers to the systematic empirical investigation of properties and phenomena and their relationships. In a quantitative research, the aim is to develop mathematical models, theories and/or hypothesis pertaining to phenomena. In other words, it aims at determining the relationship between one thing (an independent variable) and another (a dependent or outcome variable) in a population (Hoy, 2009:16). According to Creswell (2003: 119), a quantitative research measures how people feel, think or act in a particular way. Creswell (2003: 119) argues that this type of research produces information only on the particular cases studied, and any more general conclusions are only hypothesis.

In this research, the vehicles used for collecting quantitative information were interviews and a structured questionnaire survey. The data was analysed using frequencies, percentages and chi square to test the differences of the variables. The data analyses involved five stages. In stage one, the researcher created a workbook that contained the worksheets of the analysis. The database was titled and columns were created and given labels. The first column was labelled as the ID number – where the number of each question was computed. In stage two, the researcher coded the data, that is, every response was given a number. In stage three, the researcher entered the responses on the spreadsheet. The ID number was usually entered first, followed by the code of the selected response. The researcher carefully computed the data to ensure accuracy of the findings. In stage four, the researcher calculated the frequencies and percentages of the different categories, which were then interpreted to give meaning to the data. In the final step, the researcher has represented the frequencies and percentages in this report in a tabular form. Bar charts have also been
used to visually highlight relationships and trends in the different categories (See Appendix A).

5.5.3 Test of significance

A test of significance is used to tell the researcher whether or not differences exist between the variables used in the study. In this study, the chi square method was used to determine the differences in the categories used in obtaining data for the study.

The chi square formula is \[ X^2 = \frac{(O-E)^2}{E} \]

The calculation involves the following steps:

(a) Have a clear null hypothesis.

(b) Establish a predetermined alpha (P) level (in this study the author used \( P=0.05 \)).

(c) Determine the degrees of freedom; and

(d) Use the degrees of freedom to find the critical value in the chi square distribution table.

If the \( X^2 \) statistic exceeds the critical value in the table for a 0.05 probability level, the null hypothesis of equal distribution was rejected, implying that there is a significant difference between the variables examined. Equally, if the \( X^2 \) statistic is less than the critical value, the researcher accepted the null hypothesis of equal distribution. This implies that there was no difference in the variables examined (see chapter 6).

5.5.4 Section five: Limitations of the study

It is practically impossible to avoid shortcomings in a study of this nature. In the course of the research, the researcher faced a number of challenges, which, if carefully considered by future researchers they can be avoided or mitigated.

Primarily, some of the immigrants were not interested in the study and either decided to participate partly or not at all. Information from those who did not show enough
interest was not considered as part of the study. Again, this was to ensure that the data was valid and reliable.

In addition, it was not easy to find respondents from some of the countries covered. The researcher and his assistants relied to a great extent on recommendations (snowballing) from interviewees.

Also, some of the respondents had difficulty understanding and writing the English language. The researcher ensured that the questions were explained clearly to the respondents. In some cases the researcher made use of an interpreter. Also, the researcher and his assistants filled out the questionnaire for those who could not write English properly.

More so, some ethnic entrepreneurs failed to commit to confirmed appointments for an interview. In some cases, the researcher used the opportunity to ask the retailer’s manager or sales person a few questions pertaining to the study though some of them declined to take part without authorisation from their bosses.

Furthermore, the researcher wrote letters to all the major supermarket chains requesting appointments for interviews with the CEOs. To the researcher’s dismay, none of the CEOs was available to meet with the researcher. However, these organisations assigned representatives to meet with the researcher. It is also important to highlight that Pick ’n Pay did not participate at all, despite several attempts made by the researcher requesting their participation in the study.

5.6 Summary of chapter

In this chapter, the researcher has discussed the methodological approach used in acquiring, interpreting and analysing the findings that established the food consumption behaviour model of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa. The methodological process has been discussed in five sections. The first section examined the stages involved in conceptualizing the study. In this light, discussions with the researcher’s supervisors prior, during and in the writing stages of the thesis played a tremendously important role in defining the context of the study.
In the second section of the chapter, the researcher has discussed the methods used in acquiring data for the study. Two types of data mutually contributed to the realisation of the purpose of this study – primary and secondary. Secondary data acquisition looked at a review of a wealth of existing literature in the area of the study. It greatly assisted the researcher in defining the problem, background, aims and methodology of the research.

Primary data was obtained from interviews and a questionnaire survey. Interviews were conducted with sub-Saharan African immigrants, representatives of major South African supermarket chains and ethnic entrepreneurs. The questionnaire survey was limited to sub-Saharan African immigrants administered predominantly by research assistants. The questionnaire was split into three broad sections. Section one dealt with the immigrants’ demographic profile, section two looked at their local food consumption behaviour and section three examined the immigrants’ indigenous food consumption behaviour. Also, in section two, the researcher has examined the ethical guidelines of the research.

In section three, the researcher has tested the validity and reliability of the study as well as the margin of error in the sampled population.

In section four, the researcher explains the methods used in analysing the findings of the study. The researcher has shown that qualitative data was analysed using John Seidel’s noticing, collecting and thinking method while quantitative data was analysed with the use of frequencies and percentages. The differences in the variables were tested by a chi square method. Finally, in section five, the limitations of the study have been explored. In the next chapter the researcher has presented a detailed analysis of the findings of the research.
CHAPTER SIX
DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter the researcher presents the findings of the study. As reported in chapter five the findings are a product of interviews and a questionnaire survey with sub-Saharan African immigrants. It also includes interviews with representatives of leading supermarket chains, as well as ethnic entrepreneurs.

Also as indicated in chapter five (paragraph 5.5) the findings in this study have been analysed using John Seidel’s *noticing, collecting and thinking* method (qualitative data) and Microsoft Excel (Frequencies and percentages of quantitative data).

In this study the researcher has used a chi square statistic method to test the differences between the variables established in the analyses. This has been done by testing the hypothesis. The hypothesis is called a null hypothesis.

**The null hypothesis:** This implies that there is no difference between the sample observations or that the sample observations result purely from chance.

**Conclusions:**

a) **Accepting the null hypothesis:** if the $X^2$ statistic is less than the critical value (table value) the researcher will accept the null hypothesis of equal distribution. This implies that there is no difference in the variables examined.

b) **Rejecting the null hypothesis:** If the $X^2$ statistic is greater than the critical value (table value) the researcher rejects the null hypothesis of equal distribution implying that there is a significant difference between the variables examined (see Appendix A for details of the chi square statistic).

In the analyses, the researcher has systematically presented the questions (interview and questionnaire) then an explanation (in frequencies and percentages) of the
respondents’ feedback. This is followed by a test of the differences in the variables reviewed.

For a deeper and clearer understanding of the findings of the study, the researcher has structured the chapter into three sections. Section one is an analysis of the responses (interviews and questionnaire survey) of the sub-Saharan African immigrants who participated in the study. Section two discusses the feedback of the interviews with representatives of South Africa’s major retail chains and section three looks at the responses of the interviews conducted with ethnic entrepreneurs in the Western Cape Province.

6.2 Section one: Analysis of the responses of sub-Saharan African immigrants.

In this section the researcher analyses the findings of interviews and a questionnaire survey of 409 sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa who participated in the study. The findings have been examined in three parts. These include:

(e) The demographic profile of the respondents.

(f) The respondents’ experiences and perceptions of South Africa’s major supermarkets; and

(g) The respondents’ experiences and perceptions of sub-Saharan ethnic entrepreneurs.

6.2.1 The demographic profile of the respondents

With regards to the impact of the demographic composition of the sub-Saharan African immigrant population in South Africa, the researcher examined the following variables: country of origin, gender, marital status, occupation, reason(s) for emigration, highest level of education and duration of residency in South Africa.

Question 1. Which African country do you come from?

The 409 immigrants who participated in this study hailed from 26 sub-Saharan African countries. According to a regional representation, 27% (n=111) of the respondents came from Southern African (Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe); 26% (n=107) of them came from Central African
(Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Gabon, Rwanda and DRC); 24% (n=100) of the respondents came from West Africa (Ghana, Ivory Coast, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone and Togo); and 21% (n=91) of them came from East Africa (Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, Tanzania, Uganda and Eritrea).

**Table 6: Regional representation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Southern Africa</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Africa</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Africa</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Africa</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 11: Regional representation**

**Test of significance**

**Null hypothesis:** Sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa come from the same region.

**The Test:** The chi square test ($X^2 = 2.27$, df=3, $p = 0.5 < p < 0.10$) of the differences in regional participation of the immigrants in the study unveiled that there was no significant difference in the number of participants from the four regions.

**Conclusion:** Therefore the hypothesis is accepted. There was a fairly equal representation of participants from all the regions in sub-Saharan Africa.
Question 2. What gender are you?

In this study 58% (n=237) of the immigrants were males and 42% (n=172) of them were females.

Table 7: Gender representation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 12: Gender representation

Test of significance

Null hypothesis: There is an equal representation of sub-Saharan African males and females in South Africa

The Test: According to the chi square test ($X^2 = 10.34$, df=1, $p=0.01 < p<0.001$) there was a significant difference in the gender representation of the respondents. This is because the chi square value ($X^2 = 10.34$) is greater than the critical value (3.841) for 0.05 probability level.

Conclusion: Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected, since more males took part in the study than females.
**Question 3. What is your marital status?**

According to the findings, 28% \( (n=144) \) of the respondents were married, 59% \( (n=243) \) of them were singles, and 13% \( (n=52) \) of them were cohabitants.

**Table 8: Marital status of the respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cohabitants</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 13: Marital status of the respondents**

**Test of significance**

**Null hypothesis:** There is an equal representation of married, single and cohabiting immigrants from sub-Saharan Africa in South Africa

**The Test:** The chi square test \( (X^2=136.09, df=2, p= p>0.05) \) uncovered a significant difference in the marital status of the immigrant respondent population. This is because the result of the test or the chi square value \( (X^2 = 136.09) \) is greater than the critical value \( (5.991) \) for 0.05 probability level.

**Conclusion:** Therefore, the researcher rejects the hypothesis. In the study single respondents were more than married and cohabiting ones.
**Question 4. What is your highest level of education?**

The study uncovered that 38% (n=156) of the participants had finished high school education, 28% (n=115) of them had a college qualification, 23% (n=96) of them had a Bachelor’s degree and 10% (n=42) of the respondents had a Master’s degree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College qualification</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Figure 14: Respondents’ level of education](image)

**Test of significance**

**Null hypothesis:** Sub Saharan African immigrants in South Africa have the same academic qualification.

**The Test:** As shown in the frequency percentage representation, the chi square test ($X^2 = 65.72$, df=3, $p>0.05$) confirms a significant difference in the educational level of the respondents. This is so because the result of the test ($X^2 = 65.72$) is greater than the critical value (7.815) for 0.05 probability level.

**Conclusion:** The difference in representation implies that the hypothesis is rejected. Thus, according to the findings, the majority of the respondents (62%) had attained a post high school education. This also implies that the majority of the respondent population is well educated.
Question 5. What is your occupation?

In terms of employment, 5% (n=21) of the respondents were professionals, 31% (n=31) of them were business people, 17% (n=71) of the participants were students, 25% (n=101) of them were skilled workers, while 22% (n=91) of them were unskilled workers.

Table 10: Respondents' occupation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professionals</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Businessmen</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skilled workers</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unskilled workers</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 15: Respondents' occupation

Test of significance

Null hypothesis: In South Africa, sub-Saharan immigrants perform the same job.

The Test: According to the test result \([(X^2 = 74.97, df=4, p=p>0.05) = (X^2 = 74.97)]\) there was a significant difference in the occupational status of the respondents. This means that the value of \(X^2\) was found to be more than the critical value (9.488) for 0.05 probability level.

Conclusion: Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected. According to the study, most of the respondents were businessmen.
**Question 6. Please state the reason(s) for leaving your country of origin?**

According to 22% (n=88) of the respondents, migration to South Africa was for studies, 65% (n=265) of them came for greener pastures (economic reasons), 4% (n=7) of the respondents moved to South Africa for employment purposes, while 9% (n=39) of them immigrated due to political instability in their countries.

**Table 11: Respondents’ reasons for immigration**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason for immigration</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Studies</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greener pastures</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil unrest</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 16: Reason for immigration**

Most respondents in the study came to South Africa for greener pastures. For instance a Malawian remarked;

“I work as a barman at a hotel. What I earn which includes the tips I get from guests enables me to look after my family and relatives back home. Before coming to South Africa I was unemployed for two years after leaving school”.

Also, many respondents remarked that they came to South Africa to study. For instance a Zambian immigrant said;
“I have come to South Africa to study. I am doing a BTech degree in Tourism at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology. Many of us come here to study because the South African educational system is more superior to ours.”

A few remarked that they moved to South Africa for employment purposes. For example a Cameroonian immigrant working as a Lecturer at the University of the Western Cape said;

“Working in South Africa is one of the best things that has ever happened in my life. I was very fortunate to get this job. The salary is more than what I earned back home. Plus the university gives you all the support you need to advance in your career”

Back home, you get very little research assistance from the university.

Political instability was also reported by a few respondents as the reason for relocating to South Africa. For instance an immigrant from the Democratic Republic of Congo said;

“I would have been dead by now if I did not leave my country. The conflict was unbearable. My brother and two of my friends lost their lives in the war. I feel much safer in South Africa and I have succeeded to bring over two of my younger sisters.”

Test of significance

Null hypothesis: The respondents had the same cause for immigrating to South Africa.

The Test: According to the chi square test \((X^2=371.69, df=4, p=p>0.05)\), the respondents significantly varied in their reasons for moving to South Africa as the value of the chi square \((X^2 = 371.69)\) is greater than the critical value \((7.815)\) for 0.05 probability level.

Conclusion: Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected. Though most respondents came for economic reasons, others came for studies, employment and safety.
Question 7. How long have you lived in South Africa?

Pertaining to the respondents’ duration of stay in South Africa, the study found that 5% (n=21) of the participants had lived in South Africa for less than a year, 16% (n=65) of them had lived in South Africa for one year, 20% (n=81) of the respondents had lived in the country for two years, while 59% (n=242) of the participants had been living in South Africa for three or more years.

Table 12: Duration of residency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than a year</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One year</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two years</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three or more years</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 17: Duration of residency

Test of significance

Null hypothesis: Sub-Saharan African immigrants have lived in South Africa for less than two years.

The Test: According to the chi square test ($X^2=315.14$, df=4, p=p>0.05) the respondents also significantly differed in their duration of residency in South Africa as the value of the test ($X^2=315.14$) is more than the critical value (9.488) for 0.05 probability level.

Conclusion: Therefore, the study rejects the hypothesis. The majority (59%) of the respondents have lived in South Africa for more than three years.
6.2.2. The respondents’ experiences and perceptions of South Africa’s major supermarkets

In this section, the researcher analyses the findings of the respondents’ experiences and perceptions of South Africa’s major supermarket chains. In other words the section explores the respondents’ consumption behaviour of local food products (food products stocked by South Africa’s major supermarket chains). The categories include: the respondents’ preferred supermarket; the number of weekly visits to their preferred supermarket; factors that influence their choice of food products; the level of similarity between local and indigenous products; the level of satisfaction obtained from local products; the respondents’ perception of the absence of indigenous food products in South Africa’s major supermarkets; the extent to which they have modified their food needs to comply with local availability; the respondents’ monthly food spend on local foods and their overall impression of South Africa’s leading supermarket chains.

Question 8. Which of the following supermarkets is your preferred supermarket? (You may tick more than one) (a) Shoprite (b) Pick ‘n Pay (c) Checkers (d) Woolworths or (e) Spar

According to the research findings, the preferred supermarket of 53% (n=216) of the respondents is Shoprite; 18% (n=75) of them prefer to shop at Pick ‘n Pay stores; 13% (n=55) of the respondents prefer to do their groceries at Checkers (second major brand of Shoprite Group) (See chapter four, paragraph 4.3.2.1); 9% (n=40) of them shop at Spar stores while 7% (n=31) of the respondents prefer Woolworths as their supermarket of choice.

Table 13: Preferred supermarket

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supermarket</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shoprite</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pick ‘n Pay</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Checkers</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spar</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woolworths</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Most sub-Saharan African immigrants prefer to shop at Shoprite stores. According to the majority of the interviewees, Shoprite is preferable because its products are relatively cheaper and somehow similar to those back home. For example an immigrant from Ghana remarked;

“I do most of my groceries at Shoprite because I find the prices cheaper than Pick ‘n Pay which is also not far from where I live. Also, Shoprite sells food items that are a bit similar to those we eat back home. An example is Okra.”

Others remarked that Shoprite is their preferred shop because it is relatively close to where they live. For instance, an immigrant from Eritrea said;

“I live in Guguletu and Shoprite is the only major supermarket in the area. Shopping at Shoprite enables me to save time, transport money and the inconvenience of travelling to other supermarkets.”

Though the majority of the interviewees prefer shopping at Shoprite, a good number of them are also patrons of Pick ‘n Pay. For instance, an immigrant from the DRC remarked that he shops at Pick ‘n Pay because he feels that the products stocked by Pink ‘n Pay are relatively better in quality than other supermarkets in the area. Also, a respondent from Botswana argued that she prefers Pick ‘n Pay to other supermarkets because the products are more organic and fresher than other stores.
Checkers (second major brand of the Shoprite Group) is the third supermarket chain preferred by sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. According to a Cameroonian respondent:

“Checkers stocks quality food items more than any other supermarket I have visited. Also, their products are always fresh. I have shopped at Checkers since I came to South Africa and I have never had a problem with what I buy.”

Also, a Burundian argued that he will always buy at Checkers because their stocks are organic.

Also, the fourth preferred supermarket chain by sub-Saharan African immigrants is Spar. Most patrons of Spar remarked that there is a Spar shop where they live; hence it is their preferred supermarket. For instance a Ugandan said;

“I live in Kuils River, SuperSpar is the only supermarket where I live; hence I always buy my products from there. I also like the shop because they always have variety, their foods are always fresh especially fruits and vegetables and the employees are friendly and always willing to assist.” Also, an immigrant from Rwanda argued that;

“Spar stocks quality and organic foods and their prices are not as high as Pick ‘n Pay’s where I shop if I do not find what I need in my preferred Spar shop. I also prefer to shop at Spar because they always mark down their prices especially towards the end of the month.”

The last of the respondents’ preferred supermarket chain is Woolworths. Its patrons admire the fact that its products are organic and are of good quality. For instance a Ugandan reported that;

“I don’t think there is a supermarket in South Africa that sells fresh and quality organic food products as Woolworths. Most people say the supermarket is expensive but I feel it is affordable considering the quality of the stocks.”

An important finding in this study is that many of the respondents admire Woolworths because the brand is very health conscious but refrain from making it their preferred
shop because it is more expensive than the other supermarkets. For instance a Tanzanian student at the University of the Western Cape said:

“If I could afford, I would make Woolworths the shop for all my food items irrespective of the fact that it is located very far from where I live.”

**Test of significance**

**Null hypothesis:** Sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa prefer Pick’n Pay to other supermarket chains

**The Test:** According to the test results ($X^2=282.43$, df=4, $p=p>0.05$) there was a significant difference in the respondents’ choice of South Africa’s major supermarket chains. This is because the value of the chi square test ($X^2=282.43$) is greater than the critical value (11.070) for 0.05 probability level.

**Conclusion:** Therefore, the study rejects null hypothesis. According to the study most of the respondents shop at Shoprite stores.

**Question 9. How Many times do you visit your preferred supermarket weekly?**

The findings depict that 29% (n=120) of the respondents visit their preferred supermarket once a week, 51% (n=209) of them do so twice a week, 13% (n=55) of respondents go to the supermarket three times a week, while 7% (n=25) of them do their grocery shopping four or more times a week.

**Table 14: Weekly visits to the supermarket**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Weekly Visits to supermarkets</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One time</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two Times</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>51%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three Times</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four or more times</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 19: Weekly visits to supermarket

The interviews revealed that most respondents who shop once a week are singles. For instance, a Namibian student remarked;

“I buy just what will be enough for me for the week. Besides I am always very busy with studies; hence there is no time to always go to the shop. Also I hate standing in a queue for a long time so I try as much as possible to get everything I would need for the week when I visit the shop.”

Also, many respondents whose preferred shops are far from where they live also shop once a week. For instance, a respondent from Botswana said;

“I buy most of my food products at Woolworths. It is not far from where I live, I make just one trip a week and I always ensure that everything I need for the week is bought.”

The majority of the interviewees visit their preferred shops twice a week. They shop at the beginning and towards the end of the week or when they run short of something. Most of the respondents were single males and ladies with smaller families. For instance an Angolan lady said;

“I always shop at Shoprite. I go to the shop twice a week since my family is made up of only three people; me and my husband and our daughter who is 6 years old. At my first visit, which is normally at the beginning of the week, I buy most of what the family will need. I only visit the shop again towards the end of the week to buy what will be needed to take us to the end of the week.”
Many respondents also shop three or more times a week. The majority of the respondents were immigrants with bigger families and those who are on casual employment. For instance a respondent from Mozambique reported;

*I visit my preferred supermarket three or more times a week because I have got a big family. I always run to the shop to get things for the kids*”.

Also, a respondent from the DRC remarked that he works as a parking guide without a fixed and regular salary. He relies on tips from motorists, thus he visits his preferred supermarket more than three times a week since his visits are determined by what he gets from his clients.

**Test of significance**

**Null hypothesis**: Sub-Saharan African immigrants visit their preferred supermarket the same number of times weekly.

**The Test**: The chi square test ($X^2 = 194.72$, df= 3, $p=p>0.05$) found a significant difference in the number of visits made to the supermarkets by the respondents. The difference stems from the fact that the value of the chi square test ($X^2 = 194.72$) is greater than the critical value (7.815) for 0.05 probability level.

**Conclusion**: Thus, the study rejects the hypothesis. The study found that the majority (69%) of the respondents visit their preferred supermarkets twice or more times a week.

**Question 10. The following factors influence my choice of local food products:**

**a) Price**

According to 92% (n=376) of the respondents, price is a significant factor that influences their choice of local foods, while only 8% (n=33) of them remarked that the prices of food products do not influence their purchase decisions.
Table 15: The influence of price

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>376</td>
<td>92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 20: The influence of price

Price plays a very significant role in the food and shop preferences of the majority of the respondents in this study. Most interviewees remarked that same products are sold at different prices at different supermarkets in South Africa. As a result, they would prefer to buy where the prices are affordable. These explain why the majority of the respondents shop at Shoprite and not at Woolworth, Checkers, Spar and Pick ‘n Pay. According to these respondents, Shoprite is perceived to be cheaper than its competitors. For instance a Senegalese lady said;

“I shop at Shoprite all the time because the prices are lower than other supermarkets”.

Also an Ivorian lady also remarked:

“I always make sure that I check the prices of the supermarkets in my area before doing my groceries since the prices always differ. Also, some of the supermarkets sell products at discount prices at certain times of the month. This practice gives me a lot of savings on my monthly budget for food”

Not many of the respondents declared that the prices of products do not influence their choice of foods and supermarket. These respondents argued that they buy what they feel will satisfy their needs irrespective of the price and where it is sold. For instance a Zimbabwean said;
“Price plays a minimal role in my choice of foods. What matters is the quality and freshness of the food. If a food product meets my expectations I will buy it if I have the money”.

Test of significance

Null hypothesis: Price does not determine the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

The Test: The chi square test ($X^2=287.66$, df=1, p=p>0.05) uncovered that there was a significant difference in the influence of price in the purchase behaviour of the participants. This is because the value of the test result ($X^2 = 287.66$) is greater than the critical value (3.841) for 0.05 probability level.

Conclusion: Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected. The study found that, for the majority (99%) of the respondents, price is an important factor in their food consumption behaviour in the sense that most immigrants prefer to buy their food products where the prices are low.

b) Similarity of products to those in your home country

In the study, 72% (n=298) of the respondents remarked that when shopping at their preferred supermarkets, the decision of what to buy and what not to buy is determined by the level of similarity between local and indigenous products. According to 8% (n=31) of the respondents, they could not judge whether the level of similarity between local and home products is a factor that determines their choice of food products, while 20% (n=80) of them argued that similarity between home and local products is not a factor that influences their food consumption behaviour.

Table 16: Similarity of food products

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unable to judge</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Most of the interviewees reported that they evaluate their food preferences at South African supermarkets on the basis of similarity between local products and those back home. These respondents prefer to consume the same or similar food products to those eaten back home because they are not used to South African foods, hence, very little satisfaction will be derived from consuming them. For instance a Somalian remarked that he finds it extremely difficult to eat strange food. As a result, he strives to ensure that what he buys is similar or somehow similar to what he is used to eating. A respondent from Lesotho also shared the same opinion. The respondent said;

*I am so used to home food and enjoy it a lot more than what is predominantly sold here. So I try to get what is similar or somewhat similar.*

A small number of interviewees remarked that they can not determine whether the level of similarity between home and local products is a factor that determines their food preference since their food preferences are often determined by what can satisfy their needs. For instance an immigrant from Niger remarked that he goes for food products that will give him the satisfaction he wants. These include similar and unfamiliar foods. According to him, at times he goes for something similar or somehow similar and there are times that he goes for unfamiliar food products. Thus according to this respondent the level of similarity does not count much in his choice of foods.

However, others declared that the choice of food products on the basis of similarity to those back home is not a factor that determines their food consumption behaviour. According to the majority of this group of respondents, local food products equally
satisfy their food needs as much as home products. For example a Zimbabwean respondent said;

“We eat basically the same foods like South Africans. In fact the majority of what we eat in Zimbabwe comes from South Africa. Thus when shopping in South Africa the level of similarity does not count in my choice of foods.” Equally a respondent from the DRC said;

“I have lived in this country for seven years and I have become very familiar with the food. South African foods now give me the same satisfaction as food back home so the level of similarity is not important to me when doing groceries.”

**Test of significance**

**Null hypothesis**: Sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa do not check the similarity of indigenous to home foods before making a purchase.

**The Test**: According to the chi square test ($X^2 = 287.66$, df=2, $p=p>0.05$) there was a significant difference in the impact of the similarity between home and local products on the food consumption behaviour of the respondents. This is because the chi square calculations indicated a higher chi square value ($X^2 = 296.37$) than the critical value (5.991) for 0.05 probability level.

**Conclusion**: Therefore, the study rejects the hypothesis. According to the findings, for 72% of the respondents, the level of similarity between indigenous and local food products is a factor that influences their food consumption behaviour in South Africa.

**c) Perceived quality**

The study found that quality plays a significant role in the food consumption behaviour of 99% (n=403) of the respondents. However, 1% (n=6) of the respondents were unable to judge whether the quality of local food products is a factor that influences their food consumption behaviour.
Table 17: Quality of food

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>403</td>
<td>99%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unable to judge</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents in this study place an enormous amount of importance on the quality of food products. It is the major factor influencing the food consumption behaviour of almost all the respondents. At the interviews, the researcher uncovered that patrons of all the supermarkets use ‘quality’ as a benchmark to determine their choice of where to shop and what food products to buy. Interviewees looked at the quality of their choice of food products in various angles. These include cultural richness, taste, price, health, assortment and similarity to those back home. For instance a Ghanaian respondent said;

“The quality of food displayed on the shelves of my preferred supermarket highly determines whether I will buy the product or not. Firstly, the food has to be organic, culturally good and affordable”. In the same light, a respondent from Cameroon reported that;

“I always do my groceries at Pick ‘n Pay because the stocks are of good quality. That is, they are fresh, tasty and somehow similar to those back home”. 
Test of significance

Null hypothesis: Quality does not influence the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

The Test: The chi square test revealed a significant difference in the influence of quality on the food consumption behaviour of the respondents. According to the test results ($X^2=385.36$, df=1, $p=p>0.05$) the value ($X^2 =385.36$) of the chi square is higher than the critical value (3.841) for 0.05 probability level.

Conclusion: The study rejects the hypothesis in the sense that perceived quality influences the food consumption behaviour of 99% the respondents.

d) Dietary needs

According to 59% (n=234) of the respondents, the nutritional benefits acquired from consuming food products play a significant role in their food consumption behaviour. According to 14% (n=57) of them, they could not judge whether nutritional elements in food products play a role in their consumption behaviour, while 29% (n=118) of them argued that nutrition is not a factor that determines their choice of local foods.

Table 18: Health reasons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unable to judge</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The nutritional elements of food products also account for one of the factors that determine the food consumption behaviour of most of the interviewees in this study. Patrons of Woolworths, Pick ‘n Pay and Checkers perceive products sold by these supermarkets as nutritionally rich as those consumed back home. These respondents argued that products consumed back home are rich in nutrients because they are organically cultivated. For instance an immigrant from Nigerian said;

“My health comes first in whatever I do in life. That is why I always make sure that the food I eat is healthy. There are so many diseases in the world today caused by the many unhealthy foods stocked by supermarkets. So one has to be extremely careful when making food choices.”

Others could not judge whether dietary needs determine their choice of food products. These respondents consume both healthy and unhealthy food products with no specific preference given to any. For instance a Zambian lady recounted that;

“I eat both healthy and unhealthy foods depending on the situation. Often I do not care to differentiate between what is healthy or unhealthy when shopping as most often the choice of what I buy is determined by what I can afford at the time”

However, a good number of the interviewees stated clearly that nutritional elements do not count in their choice of food products. For instance an immigrant from Togo remarked;
“I eat everything regardless of whether it is healthy or not. But I predominantly eat unhealthy foods because organic foods are not even tasty but very expensive. So it is not a factor that determines my choice of foods during shopping.

However, this study uncovered that some of the respondents who fail to consider nutritional elements as a factor that determines their food choices and where to shop do so because they can not afford healthy products and not because they are ignorant of the benefits of consuming the products. For instance an immigrant from Sierra Leone said;

“Back home we eat mostly organic foods. I would love to eat same or similar products here in South Africa but they are too expensive and my little income can not afford them”

Test of significance

Null hypothesis: Sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa do not consider the nutritional values of foods prior to making a purchase.

The Test: The chi square test ($X^2=135.71$, df=2, $p=p>0.05$) also revealed a significant difference in the impact of nutrition on the food consumption behaviour of the respondents as the value of the chi square test ($X^2=135.71$) is greater than the critical value (5.991) for 0.05 probability level.

Conclusion: Therefore, the study rejects the hypothesis. According to the findings, nutrition is a factor that influences the food consumption behaviour of 59% of the participants in the study.

e) Location of the shop

According to 79% (n=325) of the respondents, proximity is a factor that influences their choice of supermarkets; 4% (n=18) of them could not determine the influence of proximity on their food consumption behaviour and choice of supermarkets while according to 17% (n=66) of the respondents, the location of the shop is not a factor that influences their choice of supermarkets or their food consumption behaviour.
Table 19: Location of the shop

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unable to judge</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 24: Location of the shop

Most interviewees reported that they would like to buy from a shop not far from where they live. This is because it saves time, travelling cost and the inconvenience of travelling to distant places to shop. For instance, an immigrant from Eritrea said:

“Shoprite is my preferred supermarket, not only because its products are cheaper and relatively similar to indigenous once but also because there is a Shoprite store in my community and it caters for all my food needs.”

For those who could not determine whether proximity is a factor that determines their choice of supermarket, the researcher found that these respondents shop within and out of their communities depending on how favourable the circumstance is. For instance a Malawian lady remarked that at times she does her shopping at distant supermarkets when she is informed that the products are selling at discount prices.

Also, the majority of those who reported that location is not a factor that determines their choice of supermarket are those who own a car and also like shopping out of their communities. For instance an immigrant from Gabon said:

“I often shop out of where I live because I like to take a drive out for shopping. However, when I do not feel like driving out, I do my groceries where I live.”
Equally a Senegalese respondent declared that he does his groceries anywhere in the city. The most important thing is for him to get what he feels will satisfy his needs.

**Test of significance**

**Null hypothesis:** Sub-Saharan African immigrants’ preferred shop is not determined by nearness of the shop to their home.

**The Test:** The chi square test also uncovered a significant difference in the impact of proximity on the food consumption behaviour of the respondents. This is because the chi square test ($X^2=400.9$, df=2, $p=p>0.05$) depicted a greater value ($X^2= 400.9$) than the critical value (5.991) for 0.05 probability level.

**Conclusion:** The study rejects the hypothesis. For the majority (79%) of the participants, proximity is a factor that determines their choice of supermarket and food consumption behaviour.

**f) Culture**

The food consumption behaviour of 82% (n=334) of the respondents in this study is influenced by their cultural values. The study also found that 3% (n=13) of the respondents were unable to measure the influence of culture on their food choices while according to 15% (n=62) of them, cultural values do not influence their food choices.

**Table 20: The influence of culture**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unable to judge</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 25: The influence of culture

The cultural values of food products play a significant role in the food preferences of the majority of the interviewees. These respondents declared that their culture determines what and what not to eat, how to prepare and eat different food products and where and when to eat them. For instance a Nigerian respondent declared that the consumption of food products based on cultural reasons yields an enormous amount of satisfaction especially when such foods are eaten during special rituals and events. Equally a Kenyan reported that;

“Culture is a very important decision making element regarding my food choices. I strive to ensure that the food choices I make in South Africa are in line with what my culture permits. It gives me a sense of pride and identity and a feeling of home.”

However, a few respondents highlighted that culture does not determine their choice of food products. These respondents argue that they enjoy eating any food irrespective of its cultural origin. What matters for the majority of these respondents is the satisfaction derived from eating what they choose as food. For instance a respondent from Ethiopia said;

“My choice of food should taste well and not whether it is in line with my cultural values.”
**Test of significance**

**Null hypothesis:** Culture does not influence the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan Africa immigrants in South Africa.

**The Test:** According to the chi square test ($X^2=435.5$, df= 2, $p=p>0.05$) there was a significant difference in the amount of cultural influence on the food consumption behaviour of the respondents as the chi square value ($X^2= 435.5$) is greater than the critical value (5.991) for 0.05 probability level.

**Conclusion:** Thus, the study rejects the hypothesis. For the majority (82%) of the sub-Saharan African immigrants who participated in the study, culture is a factor that influences their local food consumption behaviour.

**g) Taste**

The taste of local food products is a factor that influences the food choices of 96% (n=392) of the participants in this study. However, 4% (n=10) of the respondents were unable to determine the impact of taste on their choices of local foods in South Africa’s major supermarkets.

**Table 21: The taste of the product**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>96%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unable to judge</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 26: The taste of the product**
The majority of the respondents in this study could not resist emphasizing the influence of taste on their choice of food products. Most interviewed respondents argued that taste plays a fundamental role in their food choices because they are not familiar with most of South Africa’s foods. For instance an immigrant from Burundi said;

“Taste is a very important benchmark determining the level of satisfaction derived from foods in South Africa; hence my choice of foods. This is because I am not used to most of what is sold. What normally happens is that I try a food product once either out of curiosity or based on a recommendation from a trusted friend. If I find the taste satisfactory, I definitely make it part of my food choices. I will refrain from buying the product again if it does not taste well.”

Interviewees did not limit the importance of taste as a factor that influences their food choices to local products. A significant number of the respondents argued that taste is also used as a factor to determine the quality of food products sold at ethnic shops. For instance a Cameroonian lady said;

“At times products such as garri, palm oil, groundnuts and egusi sold by ethnic entrepreneurs do not taste well when prepared. So I normally taste them in the shop prior to purchase

**Test of significance**

**Null hypothesis:** The food choices of sub-Saharan African immigrants are not determined by taste.

**The Test:** The chi square test ($X^2 = 343.82$, df=1, $p=p>0.05$) found that there was a significant difference in the impact of taste on the consumption behaviour of the respondents. According to the test, the value of the chi square test ($X^2 = 343.82$) is greater than the critical value (3.841) for 0.05 probability level.

**Conclusion:** Thus, the hypothesis is rejected. In this study, taste determines the food consumption behaviour of 96% of the respondents.
**Question 11. In your opinion, are food products in your preferred supermarket similar to those in your country of origin?**

In the study, 21% (n=89) of the respondents remarked that the food products in South Africa are similar to those in their home countries. According to 53% (n=211) of the respondents, there is some degree of similarity between home and local food products and for 26% (n=109) of them there is no similarity between products stocked by South Africa’s major supermarket chains and those in their countries of origin.

**Table 22: The similarity of product**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Similar</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some what similar</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 27: The similarity products**

According to the majority of the interviewees, some degree of similarity exists between food products back home and those stocked in South African supermarkets. Respondents looked at similarity in cultural terms, taste, quality and the nutritional richness of some of the products stocked by supermarkets chains. For instance a respondent from Nigeria said;

“I see some degree of similarity between what we eat back home and food products in South Africa. Firstly, some of the products are fresh and healthy. Back home we eat mainly fresh and organically cultivated foods. Also products such as mealie meal, rice, corn, beans, meat, fish and chicken are somewhat culturally similar to those
back home though I will go for those from home if given the opportunity. This is because I believe that products back home taste better than South African foods.”

Respondents who argued that products stocked by South African supermarkets are similar to those back home were mostly from Southern African countries like Zimbabwe, Botswana and Namibia. For instance, a Zimbabwean recounted that most of the foods eaten in South Africa are also found in Zimbabwe. Also, according to a Namibian;

“South Africa’s major supermarket chains are well represented in Namibia. The shops basically stock products from South Africa hence there is a high degree of similarity between products in Namibia and those found in South Africa’s major supermarkets.”

Though most interviewees reported that food products in South Africa are to some extent similar to those back home, many of them also declared that there is no similarity between products sold in South Africa’s supermarkets and those consumed back home. These respondents argued that most products in South Africa except for universally consumed ones such as beans, rice, chicken, fish and meat are very dissimilar to those consumed in their countries of origin. For instance a Kenyan immigrant said;

“In South Africa I eat very strange foods with just no similarity to what I am used to eating in my country. That is why I always ask my relatives to send my favourite foods whenever there is someone coming to South Africa from my country. I also give money to Kenyans who travel home for holiday to buy certain foods for me.”

Test of significance

Null hypothesis: Food products in sub-Saharan African countries are similar to those in South Africa.

The Test: According to the chi square test ($X^2 = 62.8, df=2, p=p>0.05$) there was a significant difference in the respondents’ perception of the degree of similarity
between local and indigenous products. This is because the value of the chi square test ($X^2 = 62.8$) is greater than the critical value (5.991) for 0.05 probability level.

**Conclusion:** Therefore, the study rejects the hypothesis. Thus for most (79%) of the respondents, there is only some degree of similarity between food products in South Africa and those in their home countries.

**Question 12. In your opinion, do you feel your preferred supermarket satisfies the benefits you desire from your choice of food products?**

According to the findings, leading South African supermarket chains satisfy all the expectations of 24% (n=98) of the respondents. However, according to 70% (n=286) of them, major South African supermarkets fulfil just some of their expectations, while 6% (n=25) of the respondents maintained that South Africa’s leading supermarkets are unable to meet any of the expectations of their food choices.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Most</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 28: Satisfaction derived from South African foods**

Most respondents in these study felt that South Africa’s leading supermarkets satisfy some of their food needs. This is because most of the products are somehow similar to their indigenous products. For instance a Cameroonian said:
“I feel that to some extent South Africa’s major supermarkets satisfy my culinary needs. This is because I enjoy some of the products especially those that have some similarity with products in my country. I also enjoy some of the products that I was never familiar with. However, I feel that my needs can only be fully satisfied by my indigenous foods because I was brought up eating them.”

Many respondents also remarked that South Africa’s supermarket chains satisfy all their food needs and desires. These respondents remarked that they feel happy with what is stocked in the shops. For instance a Zambian reported that;

“I have no problem with what South Africa’s supermarkets offer since the same foods are sold back home. Thus I feel that all my food needs are catered for”.

However, a few respondents (6%) predominantly from West and Central African countries declared that their needs are not satisfied by South Africa’s leading supermarket chains. These respondents find products sold in South Africa’s retail supermarkets to be relatively unfamiliar. For instance a Gabonese immigrant said;

“I wonder when South Africa’s supermarkets will start stocking foods from other African countries. During shopping I struggle to find what will satisfy my needs and often I end up not feeling satisfied. My friends in Canada and America often tell me that they buy food from my country in supermarkets. Why can South Africa’s supermarket chains not copy from these countries?”

Test of significance

Null hypothesis: South Africa’s supermarkets satisfy the needs and desires of sub Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

The Test: According to the chi square test ($X^2=266.01$, df=2, p=p>0.05) the findings depict a significant difference in the amount of benefits derived from consuming local food products. This is because the value of the chi square test ($X^2=266.01$) is greater than the critical value (5.991) for 0.05 probability level.
Conclusion: Therefore, the study rejects the hypothesis. For the majority (70%) of the respondents, leading South African supermarket chains fulfil only some of their expectations of consuming food products.

**Question 13. Do you feel worried because you don’t find food products from your country of origin in South African supermarkets?**

The absence of indigenous food products in South Africa’s major supermarkets was a major concern for 67% (n=273) of the respondents. According to 1% (n=4) of them, they could not determine whether it is a factor to worry about or not. However, 32% (n=132) of the respondents remarked that they were not worried about the absence of foodstuffs from their countries of origin in South Africa’s major supermarkets.

**Table 24: How immigrants feel about the absence of indigenous foods in supermarkets**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Worried</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unable to judge</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not worried</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 29: How immigrants feel about the absence of indigenous foods in supermarkets.**

According to the majority of the respondents in this study the absence of food products from their countries of origin in South Africa’s major supermarkets is a factor to worry about. Most interviewees declared that the absence of indigenous products in South Africa’s supermarkets constantly reminds them that they are aliens and stimulates the desire to go back home. For instance a respondent from Ethiopia reported that;
“I pray for the day that I will get into a supermarket and fill my basket with products from my home country. I cannot express the amount of joy that will fill my heart.”

Equally, many of them remarked that the absence of indigenous products in South Africa’s supermarkets is not something to worry about. These respondents argued that though they would like to see and buy products from their countries in South Africa’s major retail outlets, they do not feel worried about the absence of these products in South Africa’s major supermarkets. For instance a Malawian argued that;

“Finding products from my country in South Africa’s supermarkets is something that I feel anyone from Malawi will be glad with. But the absence of the products is not something that I should be concerned about because stocking the products is a decision that can only be made by the supermarkets and not us. More so I have got more pressing things in this country to worry about than indigenous foods.”

These interviewees equally remarked that to some extent they are satisfied with the offerings of South Africa’s major supermarket. For instance an immigrant from Niger pointed out that;

“I feel I get some satisfaction from South Africa’s foods. Thus I do not need to be worried about not finding my home foods in South Africa’s supermarkets.”

**Test of significance**

**Null hypothesis:** Sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa are not concerned about the absence of indigenous foods in South Africa’s major supermarkets.

**The Test:** According to the chi square test ($X^2=202.93$, df=2, $p=p>0.05$) there was a significant difference in the respondents’ perceptions of the absence of foodstuffs from their countries of origin in South Africa’s major supermarkets. This is because the value of the chi square test ($X^2=202.93$) is more than the critical value (5.991) for 0.05 probability level.
**Conclusion:** Therefore the study rejects the hypothesis. In the study, 67% of the respondents feel worried about the absence of indigenous foods in South Africa’s leading supermarkets.

**Question 14. To what extent have you modified your food needs to suit or match what is available in South African supermarkets?**

As a measure of adaptation, the study found that 67% (n=273) of the respondents have largely modified their food needs to match local availability, while 22% (n=90) of them have done so in a small extent. The study also found that 11% (n=46) of the participants have not modified their food choices to match available products in South Africa’s major supermarkets.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Large extent</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small extent</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Figure 30: Modification of food needs to match local availability](image)

Most respondents in this study have largely modified their food needs to suit local availability. According to the majority of the interviewees, this is a necessary measure in order to derive a certain degree of satisfaction from South Africa’s foods since most of them are strange. An Ivorian said;
“In South Africa you have to adapt to the food products since there are no alternatives. However, I feel I am gradually enjoying the foods because the more I eat them, the more I get used to them.”

Others argued that that modification of their food needs has only taken place in a limited extent. These respondents consume more of indigenous foods obtained from ethnic retailers than South African products. Many of these respondents come from West and Central African countries. For example a Nigeria pointed out that;

“I buy more of my foods from ethnic shops especially those owned by Nigerians and very little from South Africa’s supermarkets. That’s why just a small part of my food consumption behaviour has been regulated to suit available products in South Africa’s supermarkets.”

On the other hand, a few interviewees argued that they have never modified their food consumption behaviour to match local availability. These respondents strongly adhere to indigenous products. They are fervent patrons of immigrant entrepreneurs. For example a Somalian immigrant pointed out that he eats mainly products from home since there are so many retailers of indigenous food products in his community. According to this respondent, eating mainly indigenous foods gives him an enormous amount of satisfaction and makes him to have a feeling of home.

**Test of significance**

**Null hypothesis**: Sub-Saharan African immigrants have not modified their food needs to match available products in supermarkets in South Africa.

**The Test**: The chi square test results ($X^2=215.3$, df=2, $p=p>0.05$) argue that there was a significant difference in the respondents’ level of adaptation to South African food consumption behaviour. This implies that the value ($X^2=215.3$) of the chi square test is more than the critical value (5.991) for 0.05 probability level.

**Conclusion**: Therefore, the test results depict that the hypothesis is rejected. According to the findings, 89% of the respondents have made modifications in their
food choices to comply with available products in South Africa’s leading supermarkets.

**Question 15. What is your monthly food spend on local foods?**

According to the findings, 14% (n=57) of the respondents spend between R500 and R999 monthly, 68% (n=279) of them spend between R1000 and R1999 every month; 14% (n= 57) of them spend between R2000 and R2999 monthly on local groceries while 4% (n=16) of the respondents spend R3000 or more on local foods every month.

**Table 26: Respondents’ monthly spend on local food**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R500-R999</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R1000-1999</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2000-2999</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R3000-R3999</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 31: Respondents’ monthly spend on local food**

Most respondents in this study spend between R1000 and R1999 on food products stocked in South Africa’s supermarkets. These respondents were mostly those with small families. However, for the majority of the respondents, their monthly budget is not usually enough to cater for their needs since food is relatively expensive in South Africa. For instance a Tanzanian respondent declared;
“My monthly food budget is usually not enough. Food in this country is very expensive. Everything is bought from the supermarket. For a similar budget in my country, you will buy twice and even more of what you get in South Africa.”

A few interviewees remarked that they spend between R500 and R999. They were mostly singles. For instance a Kenyan remarked that his monthly food budget caters for him and his girlfriend. However, he said;

“I normally spend more than the estimated budget when we eat out many times during the month.”

Those who spend more than R2000 were predominantly large families. They also spend more on indigenous foods since one of the primary responsibilities of African wives is to enhance the cultural heritage of their country of birth. For example an immigrant from Mozambique said;

“For a family of four (two kids and two adults) we spend more than R2000 monthly. It is hard to believe that food is so expensive in this country. In order to minimize cost, I normally buy from Shoprite and Spar because they usually sell at discount prices”.

**Test of significance**

**Null hypothesis**: Sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa spend less than R1000 on local foods monthly.

**The Test**: According to the chi square test (X²=346.3, df=3, p=p>0.05) there was a significant difference in the immigrants’ monthly spend on local food products. This implies that the value (X² =346.3) of the chi square test is greater than the critical value (5.991) for 0.05 probability level.

**Conclusion**: Therefore, the study rejects the hypothesis. According to the study, most (68%) of the respondents spend between R1000 and R1999 monthly on local food products.
**Question 16. Overall, how would you rate your experience at your preferred supermarket?**

The overall experience of 28% (n=116) of the respondents is excellent; 54% (n=219) of them reported that their overall experience of South Africa’s major supermarkets is good; 17% (n=68) of them pointed out that they enjoy an average experience at South Africa’s major supermarkets while 1%(n=6) of the respondents reported that their experience of South Africa’s major retail chains is poor.

**Table 27: Respondents' overall supermarket experience**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Bar chart showing respondents' overall supermarket experience]

**Figure 32: Respondents' overall supermarket experience**

The majority of the respondents in this study enjoy a good experience shopping at South Africa’s supermarkets. According to many of the interviews, factors such as convenience, customer service, availability, assortment and quality of stocks, proximity and price greatly enhances their experience at South Africa’s major retail shops. For instance a Ghanaian respondent said;

“I have so much respect for South Africa’s major supermarkets. The stores are well designed, they look beautiful, the flow is good though at times there are long queues}
when it is busy. Also the products are very well displayed and information about them is readily available, there is variety, the quality of the goods is excellent and the prices are affordable. I feel I enjoy shopping in South Africa’s super markets and wish that we had shops of such standards back home.”

Similar factors were reported by those who declared that their experience at South Africa’s major supermarkets was excellent. The majority of these respondents reported that they enjoy the elaborate display of stocks, the flow in the shops, availability of information about various products, quality of products, and customer service. For instance a Zimbabwean remarked;

“I like everything about South Africa’s supermarkets. Unlike many supermarkets in Zimbabwe, there is always stock. You are presented with an enormous display of different products to choose from.”

A few respondents reported that their experience was average. According to these respondents, their experience would be better if South Africa’s major supermarkets stock food products from their countries. For instance a respondent from the DRC said;

I enjoy everything about South Africa’s supermarkets but hate the fact that there is no section where you can find food from other African countries in the shops. As a result, my experience is always average.

A similar opinion was advanced by those who felt that their experience at South Africa’s major supermarkets is poor. For instance an Angolan reported that he will never have a great experience at a South African supermarket if he does not find products from his country.

**Test of significance**

**Null hypothesis:** Sub-Saharan African immigrants overall experience of South Africa’s major supermarket chains is poor.
**The Test:** The chi square test ($X^2=237.23$, df=3, p=p>0.05) found a significant difference in the respondents’ experiences of South Africa’s major supermarkets as the value of the chi square ($X^2 = 237.23$) is more than the critical value (7.815) for 0.05 probability level.

**Conclusion:** Thus, the study rejects the hypothesis. In the study, 82% of the respondents enjoy their experience at South Africa’s major supermarkets.

**6.2.3 Respondents’ experiences and perceptions of ethnic entrepreneurs**

Here the researcher analyses the findings of the respondents’ experiences and perceptions of ethnic entrepreneurs. In other words the researcher has examined the indigenous food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants. The categories examined were as follows: whether respondents also eat indigenous foods in South Africa; sources of indigenous foods; respondents’ experiences at ethnic retail shops and restaurants; their monthly spend on indigenous foods; how respondents feel when visiting ethnic enterprises; whether respondents would buy indigenous foods from supermarkets, should they sell them; ethnic products that respondents would like supermarkets to sell; the role of friends and relatives in information sharing, the influence of relationships with South Africans on their food consumption behaviour and the respondents’ post-purchase behaviour.

**Question 17. In South Africa, do you also eat food from your country of origin?**

According to the findings, 71% (n=289) of the respondents eat indigenous foods in South Africa and 29% (n=120) of them do not.

**Table 28: Eating indigenous foods in South Africa**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The majority of the respondents in this study also eat food from their countries of origin in South Africa. For instance a Rwandan remarked;

“I feel so elated that I eat food from my country in South Africa. I cannot thank ethnic retailers enough for importing food from Rwanda to South Africa. It makes me think about home and always remember how the family gathers to eat certain foods back home.” Also, a Nigerian immigrant reported that;

“The consumption of indigenous foods in South Africa is something that every Nigerian should be proud of. It stimulates the interest I have in my culture and also gives me a sense of pride and identity.”

Equally a Cameroonian declared that eating indigenous foods strengthens adherence to his cultural heritage, gives him a feeling of home and an incredible amount of satisfaction in his choice of foods.

On the other hand, others reported that they do not eat indigenous foods in South Africa. Some of the respondents argued that they are comfortable with stocks at South Africa’s major supermarkets. For instance a Namibian remarked that what he eats in Namibia is equally what he consumes in South Africa. A similar argument was advanced by a few Zimbabweans. Also, a Zambian reported that;

“I feel I am satisfied with what I get from the supermarkets. Thus I do not need to search for home foods in South Africa.”
Others maintained that they can not afford indigenous foods in South Africa. For example, an Ethiopian said:

“I would like to eat food from my country in South Africa but my income cannot afford them because they are expensive so I rely on what supermarkets offer.”

Also others argued that they would like to buy products from their countries in South Africa but they are not aware of where to find the shops. For instance a Malawian asked the researcher;

“Where are the shops? I would gladly buy foods from my country if I know where they are sold.”

**Test of significance**

**Null hypothesis:** Sub Saharan African immigrants in South Africa do not eat indigenous foods in South Africa.

**The Test:** The difference in the number of respondents who do and do not eat indigenous foods in South Africa was confirmed by the chi square test ($X^2=69.84$, df=1, p=p>0.05). According to the test results, the value of chi square statistic ($X^2 = 3.841$) is greater then the critical value (3.841) for 0.05 probability level.

**Conclusion:** Therefore, the researcher rejects the hypothesis. In this study 71% of the respondents also eat food products from their countries in South Africa.

**Question 18. If yes, how often**

According to the findings 12% (n=26) of the respondents eat indigenous foods daily, 8% (n=17) of them do so once a week, 55% (n=226) of the respondents consume indigenous products 2-3 times a week, 8% (n=17) of them eat food from their countries once a month, 5% (n=12) eat indigenous foods when they feel like, 7% (n=15) of them have the opportunity to do so only at ethnic functions while 5%(n=12) of the respondents eat indigenous foods only when visiting a friend.
Table: 29 Frequency of indigenous food consumption

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency Type</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Daily</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once a week</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once a month</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-3 times a week</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When they feel like</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At ethnic functions</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At a friends place</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure: 34 Frequency of indigenous food consumption

The majority (55%) of the respondents eat indigenous foods in South Africa two to three times a week. For instance a Nigerian immigrant said;

“I ensure that I eat food from my country at least 2 times a week but often it is three times. I would love to eat it daily but I can not afford.”

According to the study 12% of the respondents eat indigenous foods daily. For example, a Cameroonian respondent remarked;

“I manage a family of four (2 adults and 2 kids). We mainly eat food from our country. We get most it from home since buying from ethnic retailers is relatively expensive.”

Also 8% of the respondents reported that they eat indigenous foods once a week. For instance a Kenyan reported;
“I eat food from my country only once a week. Though the foods are expensive, I would like to eat them twice or thrice a week if there were many choices to choose from at the ethnic retail shops.”

In addition, 8% of the respondents eat indigenous foods from their countries once a month. For instance a Burundian remarked;

“I mainly eat local foods from the supermarkets. I do not often eat food from my country. I do so only once a month. The reason is because local foods are two times cheaper than indigenous foods in South Africa.”

Also, 5% of the respondents maintained that they eat indigenous foods only when they feel like. For instance a Malawian said:

“I eat indigenous foods only when I feel like eating it. I do not have a specific number of times that I eat indigenous foods. I decide to eat it once or week or twice in a week. There are weeks that I do not eat anything indigenous at all.”

For 7% of the respondents, indigenous foods are eaten only during ethnic gatherings. For example a respondent from the DRC said;

“I like attending ethnic functions because it is the only opportunity I have to eat food from home. I eat mainly local foods. Indigenous foods are too costly.”

Also, 5% of the respondents maintained that they eat indigenous foods only when they visit some one from their country. For instance an Ivorian remarked;

“I eat mainly local foods. At times I eat indigenous food when I visit a friend from my home country.”

**Test of significance**

**Null hypothesis:** Sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa eat indigenous foods once a week.
The Test: The chi square test ($X^2=1174.56$ df=6, p=p>0.05) found a significant difference in the respondents’ frequency of indigenous foods consumption as the value of the chi square ($X^2 = 1174.56$) is more than the critical value (11.070) for 0.05 probability level.

Conclusion: Therefore, the study rejects the hypothesis. The majority (55%) of the respondents eat indigenous foods in South Africa two to three times a week.

Question 19. In South Africa, where do you get food from your country?

The study uncovered that 54% (n=220) of the respondents obtain their indigenous foods from ethnic retailers; 52% (n=214) of them reported that they buy indigenous foods from ethnic restaurants, while according to 55% (n=226) of the respondents, their indigenous foods are obtained from friends and relatives coming to South Africa.

Table 30: Sources of immigrants’ indigenous foods in South Africa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Immigrant retailers</th>
<th>Immigrant restaurants</th>
<th>Friends and relatives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>409</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 35: Sources of immigrants' indigenous foods in South Africa

Most respondents in the study obtain their food products from three main sources. These includes: ethnic retailers, ethnic restaurants and friends and relatives visiting South Africa. Many respondents also indicated that immigrant associations such as...
cultural groups are also important sources of indigenous foods. It is also important to highlight that all the sources of indigenous foods are equally important to all immigrant consumers of indigenous foods in South Africa. However, there is a slight increase in the number of those who acquire their food products from friends and relatives visiting South Africa. This is due to the high volume of immigrants from other sub-Saharan African countries. For example, an immigrant from Nigeria remarked:

“My main sources of indigenous foods are ethnic food retailers and restaurants. I buy from ethnic food retailers more than I eat at immigrant restaurants. This is because I like cooking my own food from scratch. I eat out at ethnic restaurants when I do not have the time to prepare my own food or when I am meeting a friend at any of the restaurants.”

An example of an immigrant who predominantly buys from immigrant restaurants is a respondent from Cameroon. He said;

“I work as a motor mechanic from Monday to Saturday every week. I leave the house very early in the morning and only get back home at night. I basically have no time to prepare my own food; hence I rely so much on ethnic restaurants for food. I would really love to prepare my own food on Sundays but on Sundays I do cleaning and laundry. There are also Sundays that my clients call me out to fix their vehicles when they have a problem.”

An example of a respondent whose major source of indigenous foods is friends and relatives is an immigrant from the DRC. He remarked;

“Friends and relatives coming to South Africa are my major source of indigenous foods. My relatives back home normally prepare a package of some of my very special food items and send them through anyone they come across coming to South Africa. Also, I often give some money to my friends who visit the DRC for holiday to buy food for me. The last time I went home was an enormous opportunity for me to bring back food to South Africa. I got enough food that sustained me for almost three months.”
**Test of significance**

**Null hypothesis:** Sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa obtain indigenous foods from the same sources.

**The Test:** According to the chi square test ($X^2=3$, df=2, $p=p<0.05$) there was no difference in the respondents’ choice of the three sources of indigenous foods in South Africa. This is because the value of the chi square statistic ($X^2=3$) is lesser than the critical value (5.991) for 0.05 probability level.

**Conclusion:** Therefore, the study accepts the hypothesis. The study found that the three different sources of indigenous foods are equally important to sub-Saharan African immigrants who consume indigenous foods in South Africa.

**Question 20. Please rate your experience at immigrant retail shops and restaurants on the following criteria:**

**a) Product quality**

According to the findings 5% (n=13) of the respondents remarked that the quality of products obtained from ethnic entrepreneurs is excellent; 41% (n=90) of them argued that ethnic entrepreneurs stock good quality products; 46% (n=102) of the respondents indicated that the products are of average quality while according to 7% (n=15) of the respondents, products stocked by ethnic entrepreneurs are of poor quality.

### Table 31: Quality of products at ethnic retail shops and restaurants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A few respondents maintained that the products found in ethnic retail shops are of excellent quality. These respondents admire the taste, smell and freshness of the products. For instance a Ghanaian respondent remarked;

“I greatly enjoy the quality of products obtained from my preferred ethnic shop. The products are fresh and they taste very well. I can not remember buying a product from my preferred ethnic shop that I did not derive the intended satisfaction. I hope that the owner continues to maintain the same standards.”

Also, a number of respondents declared that the goods stocked by ethnic retailers are good but at times have problems such as bad smell and taste. For instance a Burundian remarked that;

“Though I enjoy buying from immigrant retailers, at times some of their products are questionable. What I do not understand is that even when they know that the product is bad they still leave them on the shelves and when you point it out to them they pretend as if they did not know about the state of the product”.

According to the majority of the respondents, products stocked by ethnic retailers are of average quality. The majority of the interviewees reported that often, the products are bad, with unbearable smell and taste. For example a Nigerian immigrant remarked;
"It would be nice if immigrant retailers invest more in the preservation of their stocks as their stocks are questionable at times. At times I do not feel like eating home food because my previous experience was not satisfactory."

Also a few respondents reported that products stocked by ethnic retailers are of poor quality. According to these respondents, the products are never perishable, they are often decomposed (especially smoked fish) thereby making the taste and smell to be uncomfortable. For instance, a respondent from the DRC commented;

"There is always something wrong with products stocked by ethnic retailers where I live. It is very annoying when you feel like having a delicious home meal and you end up not satisfying your expectations because the food was bad. I like buying from ethnic retailers but they should work on the quality of their stocks."

**Test of significance**

**Null hypothesis:** Sub-Saharan African immigrants are happy with the quality of stocks at ethnic retail shops.

**The Test:** According to the chi square test ($X^2=123.59$, df=3, $p=p>0.05$) there was a significant difference in the respondents’ perception of the quality of products stocked by ethnic entrepreneurs as the value of the chi square test ($X^2=123.59$) is greater than the critical value (7.815) for 0.05 probability level.

**Conclusion:** Therefore, the study rejects the hypothesis. The study founds that, 53% of the respondents are not happy with the quality of products stocked by ethnic retailers.

**b) Level of service**

In the study, 5% ($n=12$) of the respondents remarked that service standards at ethnic restaurants and retail shops are excellent; 25% ($n=115$) of them reported that the service levels are good; according to 52% ($n=115$) of them, the service standards of ethnic entrepreneurs are average; while 17% ($n=38$) of the respondents highlighted that the standards of service are poor.
Table 32: Level of service at immigrant retail shops and restaurant

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 37: Level of service at immigrant retail shops

A few interviewees find the service standards at ethnic retail shops and restaurants to be excellent. These respondents maintained that they have never had any service related issues at any of the shops they have visited. For instance a Zambian remarked that at his preferred ethnic shop, the employees and the owners are very receptive and always willing to help.

Equally, many of the respondents argued that service standards at ethnic retail shops are good. For example a Somalian reported that the general service standards at his preferred ethnic shops are good. However, he reported that there were times when he was not happy with the service levels of the shops.

The majority of the respondents maintained that service standards at ethnic retail shops are average. Most respondents remarked that the service standards at most ethnic retail shops are inconsistent. Customer service complaints reported by many of the respondents include rudeness of the owners and employees, lack of attention to detail, unwillingness to help and unfriendliness of the staff. For instance a Malawian remarked;
“On certain days the employees and even the owners of these ethnic shops treat you as their only customer. There are also days that they behave as if you are not needed.”

Also, a few respondents maintained that the level of service at ethnic retail shops is poor. These respondents equally mentioned that the owners and employees are unfriendly and impolite in the manner in which they attend to customers. For instance a Zimbabwean acknowledged that he would never buy from any ethnic shop owned by a Nigerian because he was so badly treated by a Nigerian proprietor of an ethnic shop where he lives.

**Test of significance**

**Null hypothesis:** Sub-Saharan African immigrants appreciate the level of service at ethnic enterprises.

**The Test:** The chi square test ($X^2=104.32$, df=3, $p=p>0.05$) uncovered that there was a significant difference in the respondents’ perception of service levels at ethnic enterprises. This is because the value of the chi square test ($X^2=104.32$) is more than the critical value (7.815) for 0.05 probability level.

**Conclusion:** Therefore, the study rejects the hypothesis. According to the study only 31% of the respondents are happy with the standard of service at ethnic retail shops and restaurants.

c) **Product assortment**

According to 7% (n=15) of the respondents, ethnic entrepreneurs stock an excellent variety of products; 31% (n= 69) of them argued that ethnic entrepreneurs have a good variety of stocks; 47% (n=104) of the respondents remarked that product assortment at ethnic retail shops and restaurants is average, while 15% (n=32) of the respondents argued that there is a poor variety of stocks at ethnic retail shops and restaurants.
Table 33: Product assortment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 38: Product assortment

Respondents at the interviews were also very concerned about the variety of products stocked at ethnic retail shops. According to a few of them, ethnic retailers stock an excellent variety of products. For instance a Tanzanian said;

“There is an excellent display of different products where I normally get my ethnic food items. I will always visit the shop because I feel my needs and desires are well catered for.”

Many of the respondents remarked that the variety of stocks supplied by ethnic retailers is good. For instance an immigrant from the DRC pointed out;

“Often, I find what I need and even new products at my preferred ethnic shop.”

However, the majority of them maintained that ethnic retailers stock an average variety of goods. For instance an immigrant from Niger pointed out that same
products are often found on the shelves. New products are rarely stocked and even the ones that are often demanded are not available at times.

In the same light, a few respondents declared that stocks at ethnic retail shops are very poor. For instance a Togolese immigrant remarked that his preferred foods are often absent from the shops. He also adds that ethnic entrepreneurs in South Africa sell very few products from his country of origin.

**Test of significance**

**Null hypothesis:** Sub-Saharan African immigrants are happy with the variety of products at ethnic retail shops.

**The Test:** The chi square test (\(X^2=85.91\), df=3, \(p=p>0.05\)) revealed that there was a significant difference in the respondents’ perception of product assortment at ethnic retail shops and restaurants. This is argued on the basis that the value of the chi square test (\(X^2=85.91\)) is greater than the critical value (7.815) for 0.05 probability level.

**Conclusion:** Therefore the study rejects the hypothesis. According to 52% of the respondents, there is need to improve the variety of stocks at ethnic retail shops and restaurants.

**Question 21. Do you feel that the prices of products at immigrant retail shops and restaurants are affordable?**

According to 10% (n=22) of the respondents, the prices of products stocked by ethnic entrepreneurs are affordable; 12% (n=26) of them were unable to judge on the affordability of the prices of goods stocked by ethnic entrepreneurs; while 78% (n=172) of the respondents argued that products stocked by ethnic entrepreneurs are very expensive.
Table 34: Affordability of products at immigrant retail shops and restaurants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unable to judge</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 39: Affordability of products at immigrant retail shops and restaurants

The majority of the respondents were also greatly concerned about the prices of indigenous products at ethnic retail shops. According to a few of them, the products are affordable. For instance a Nigerian respondent remarked;

“I have no problem with the prices of indigenous products. I feel they are affordable considering the costs incurred by the retailers to get the goods to South Africa.”

Others could not determine whether the goods are expensive or not since they eat more of local than indigenous foods. For instance a Ghanaian reported that;

“It is a bit difficult to measure whether the prices are affordable or not since I eat mostly South African foods. Ethnic shops are relatively far from where I live. As a result I eat indigenous foods only just a few times in a month.”

However, most respondents maintained that the stocks at ethnic retail shops are very expensive. For example an immigrant from Sierra Leone argued that;
“It is hard to imagine why African foods are so expensive in South Africa. The irony is that African immigrants in countries like Canada and America buy indigenous foods much cheaper than us in South Africa. One understands that there is cost involved in sourcing and shipping the products to South Africa but that does not mean the goods are supposed to be as expensive as they are.” Equally a Kenyan remarked that;

“Because of the high cost of indigenous foods in South Africa, I try not to miss any opportunity to get food from home through friends and relatives coming to South Africa.”

Test of significance

Null hypothesis: Sub-Saharan African immigrants find the prices of stocks at ethnic retail shops to be affordable.

The Test: The chi square test ($X^2=199.24$, df=2, $p=p>0.05$) uncovered that the respondents significantly differed in their views on the affordability of products stocked by ethnic entrepreneurs. This is because the value of the test ($X^2=199.24$) is more than the critical value (5.991) for 0.05 probability level.

Conclusion: Thus, the study rejects the hypothesis. According to 78% of the respondents, the prices of products stocked by ethnic retail shops are not affordable.

Question 22. What do you spend on indigenous foods monthly?

According to the findings, 71% (n=157) of the respondents spend between R500 and R999 monthly, while 29% (n=63) of them spend between R1000 and R1999 monthly on home grown foods.
Table 35: Respondents’ monthly spend on indigenous foods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R500-999</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R1000-1999</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 40: Respondents’ monthly spend on indigenous foods

Most respondents spend between R500 and R999 on indigenous foods. The respondents were mostly singles and smaller families. The majority of them remarked that their expenses may increase with improvement in stock, price, quality and service standards. For instance a Rwandan pointed out that;

“Though indigenous foods are relatively expensive, one can sacrifice more than what he currently spends on them if the stocks and quality of the products are better and most importantly the prices reduced a bit.”

Others reported that their monthly cost on indigenous foods is between R1000 and R1999. The study found that these were mostly individuals with larger families and respondents who eat more indigenous foods or live mainly on them. For instance a Cameroonian lady pointed out that her primary responsibility is to enhance her cultural heritage and one of the ways is by ensuring that the family especially her kids know and learn about traditional foods. She added that;

*Our three children were born here; it is our responsibility as parents to teach them what our parents taught us so that when they become adults they too will teach their children.*
**Test of significance**

**Null hypothesis:** Sub-Saharan African immigrants spend less than R500 on indigenous foods monthly

**The Test:** According to the chi square test ($X^2 = 40.16$, df=1, $p > 0.05$), there was a significant difference in the respondents’ monthly spend on indigenous foods. This can be explained by the fact that the value of the test ($X^2 = 40.16$) is greater than the critical value (3.841) for 0.05 probability level.

**Conclusion:** Therefore, the study rejects the hypothesis. This study found that the majority (71%) of the respondents spend between R500 and R999 monthly on indigenous foods.

**Question 23. At an immigrant retail shop or restaurant I feel like I am in my country.**

The study found that 84% (n=190) of the respondents metaphorically feel at home when visiting ethnic enterprises while 14% of them do not have the same feeling. In other words, they do not feel like they are in their home country at ethnic shops.

**Table 36: How respondents feel at immigrant retail shops and restaurants**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>220</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 41: How respondents feel at immigrant retail shops and restaurants**
The majority of the interviewees reported that they derive a feeling of home at ethnic retail shops. According to the respondents, ethnic retail shops provide not only indigenous food products but also non-food goods from home that are not stocked in South Africa’s retail shops. For instance a Nigerian respondent pointed out that he likes visiting ethnic food retail shops and restaurants primarily because it is an opportunity for him to meet friends from his village and to know about events happening in his country. Equally an Ethiopian immigrant maintained that;

“A visit to an ethnic food retail shop or restaurant gives you a feeling of a similar environment back home. This is because the product types, the layout of the shop, the presentation of the stocks and the music played in the shops makes you feel as if you are in a similar environment back home.” Also, an immigrant from the DRC maintained that;

“In addition to a feeling of home derived from visiting ethnic retail shops and restaurants, you also acquire knowledge of events or information about your country, about your cultural association in South Africa and about other immigrants from your country”.

On the other hand, a few respondents argued that they do not derive a home feeling at ethnic retail shops and restaurants. For example a Somalian reported that events back home such as the civil war, terrorism, unemployment, lack of road infrastructure, inadequate and inefficient hospitals, lack of electricity and good drinking water and corrupt government officials do not encourage him to think about his country. Other Somalians pointed out that despite the problems faced back home they still have some feelings about their country but not when visiting an ethnic retail shop.

Test of significance

**Null hypothesis**: Sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa do not have a feeling of home at ethnic retail shops.

**The Test**: The chi square test ($X^2= 116.36$, df=1, $p=p>0.05$) revealed a significant difference in the respondents’ perception of home feeling when visiting ethnic retail
shops and restaurants. This is because the value of the chi square test ($X^2 = 116.36$) is greater than the critical value (3.841) for 0.05 probability level.

**Conclusion:** Thus the study rejects the hypothesis. In the study, the majority (84%) of the respondents have a home feeling when visiting ethnic enterprises.

**Question 24. Will you buy from supermarkets should they sell food products from your country of origin?**

The study found that 83% (n=339) of the respondents would buy their indigenous foods from South Africa’s leading supermarkets, should they stock them; 7% (n=28) of them could not judge whether they would buy from supermarkets or not if supermarkets invest in indigenous foods from their countries of origin, while 10% (n=42) of the respondents remarked that they will continue to buy their indigenous foodstuffs from ethnic entrepreneurs.

**Table 37: Buying indigenous foods from supermarkets**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>339</td>
<td>83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unable to judge</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 42: Buying indigenous foods from supermarkets**
The majority of the respondents in this study would buy from South Africa’s major supermarkets if their indigenous foods are stocked by the supermarkets. For instance an immigrant from Gabon declared that supermarkets will definitely sell cheaper, they will obviously stock a wider range of products and the quality of their stocks will be much better. Equally an immigrant from Zambia argued that;

“In addition to a better variety and quality of products that one will enjoy if supermarkets stock indigenous foods, the prices will be affordable and you will have the opportunity to be served by employees who are friendly and always willing to assist in a more convenient environment to shop”

A few maintained that it was impossible to judge whether they will prefer supermarkets to immigrant retailers. For instance a Malawian argued that;

“At this stage it is difficult to know whether the prices, quality and variety of products that supermarkets will offer will be better than the offerings of immigrant retailers.”

On the other hand, a few respondents maintained that they will remain loyal to indigenous retailers even if South African retailers commit to stock products from their home countries. For instance a Senegalese lady highlighted that her brother is an ethnic retailer. She will always buy from him because she wants his business to grow. She also added that her brother will always give her food on credit if she runs out of money, a benefit you cannot enjoy from any of the supermarket chains. Also, an Ivorian maintains that he will continue to buy from ethnic retailers because buying from them gives him the opportunity to also get non food products from home. He added he can also order a special product from home through the retailers and at ethnic retailers he meets new people from home and also obtains information about events back home as well as the immigrant community.

Test of significance

Null hypothesis: Sub-Saharan African immigrants will not buy their indigenous foods from supermarkets if they stock them.
The Test: The chi square test ($X^2 = 452.63$, df=2, p=p>0.05) revealed a significant difference in the opinions of the respondents pertaining to patronising supermarkets should they stock indigenous foods. Of course, this is because the value of the chi square test ($X^2 = 452.63$) is greater than the critical value (5.991) for 0.05 probability level.

Conclusion: Therefore, the study rejects the hypothesis. The study found that 83% of the respondents will buy their indigenous foods from supermarkets should South Africa’s leading supermarkets invest in the products.

Question 25. Please state some of the products from your country that you would want South African major supermarkets to sell.

Below is a regional representation of the food products that the respondents in this study would like to find in South Africa’s leading supermarkets.

Table 38: Preferred indigenous foods of immigrants from East Africa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Main staples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Maize, potatoes, beans and Nyama Choma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>Coconut, beans, cabbage, maize, cassava, groundnuts, beef, mutton, milk, millet, sorghum, fish, green banana, plantain and spinach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td>Maize, sorghum, rice, lamb, camel’s milk, pasta, millet, beans, vegetables, beef, chicken and green banana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>Sorghum, millet, maize, beans, groundnuts, green bananas, sweet potatoes, yams, cassava, millet, fish, beef and chicken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>Maize, green banana, plantains, sweet potatoes, millet, sorghum, beans, groundnuts, rice and wheat, Cassava, and Sweet Potatoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>Plantains, cassava, beans, sweet potatoes, sorghum, maize, millet, peas, groundnuts, rice, green banana, cabbage, fish, chicken and beef</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eritrea</td>
<td>Sorghum, wheat, lentils, fava beans, barley, maize, beef and chicken</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 39: Preferred indigenous foods of immigrants from West Africa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Main staples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>Plantain, cassava, yam, okra and other vegetables, beans, rice, meat, fish, groundnuts, green banana, cocoyam, sweet potato, hot pepper, maize, Garri, eru, palm oil and egusi,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ivory Coast</td>
<td>Palm oil, maize, millet, yam, green banana, groundnuts, watermelon, vegetables, rice, plantains, cassava, cocoyam, fish, chicken, Garri, eru, and meat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niger</td>
<td>Rice, cassava, beans, millet, green banana, yam, okra and other vegetables, chicken, fish, maize, meat and cocoyam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>Cassava, plantains, green banana, yam, beans, millet, fish, meat, okra, cocoyam and other vegetables, rice, sorghum, groundnuts, bitter herbs, cray fish, hot pepper, Garri, eru, and egusi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>Rice, maize, millet, sorghum, groundnuts, beans, milk, cassava, lamb beef and green banana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
<td>Rice, meat, fish, maize, sorghum, yam, plantains, cocoyam, certain varieties of vegetables (such as okra) and cassava</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Togo</td>
<td>Rice, millet, sorghum, cassava, yam, maize, plantains, green banana, fish, meat, chicken, vegetables and groundnuts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 40: Preferred indigenous foods of immigrants from Central Africa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Main staples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Angola</td>
<td>Maize, millet, sorghum, Cassava, Cocoyam, yam, vegetables, meat, fish, chicken, plantains, green banana, beans and rice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>Plantains, beans, sweet potatoes, cassava, green banana, groundnut, fish, chicken, meat, game, maize and rice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cameroon</td>
<td>Cassava, Cocoyam, sweet potatoes, yam, beans, green banana, vegetables such as okra and eru, palm oil, maize, Garri, Game, better herbs, fish, plantains, eru, chicken, egusi, and cray fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gabon</td>
<td>Cassava, plantains, yams, okra, beans, rice, meat, game, fish, peanut, cocoyam, maize, sweet potato, palm oil and maize, bitter herbs, eru, egusi, and cray fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>Beans, cassava, plantains, maize, sweet potato, sorghum, millet, green banana, rice, yams and cabbage, meat, fish, palm oil and Eru, chicken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>Cassava, fish, palm oil, green banana, rice, plantains, cocoyam, yam, maize, peanut, vegetables such as okra, game, beans sweet potato, meat, Bitter herbs, eru hot pepper, egusi, garri, and cray fish</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 41: Preferred indigenous foods of immigrants from Southern Africa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Main staples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>Millet, sorghum, mutton, meat, chicken, mopanwe worms, beans, peanuts, rice, maize, masele, potato and vegetables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesotho</td>
<td>Potato, cabbage, celery, rice, maize, sorghum, beans, spinach and pumpkins</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>Maize, beans, cassava, potato, sorghum, rice, wheat, fish, meat and chicken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>Maize, sweet potato, Green banana, rice, beans, cassava, coconuts, fish, meat, chicken and cassava</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Namibia</td>
<td>Millet, sorghum, meat, fish, biltong and potjiekos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>Maize, cassava, wheat, and okra, rice, beans, fish, chicken, meat, cray fish and hot pepper,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>Maize, sweet potato, groundnuts, meat, dried fish, rice, chicken, and cabbage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is important to note that the majority of the respondents in this study would buy indigenous foods from South Africa’s major retailers should they sell them. Thus, at the interviews, respondents were asked to state the preferred food items that they would like to find in South Africa’s major retail shops. The tables above illustrate the preferred food types according to regions.

Most immigrants from East Africa remarked that their preferred food products include maize, beans, rice, potatoes, cassava, groundnuts, green banana, plantain, cabbage, millet, sorghum, potatoes, fish, beef, chicken and wheat. From West Africa, the majority of the respondents would like South African supermarkets to stock products such as plantain, cassava, yam, cocoyam, sweet potatoes, maize, green banana, okra, millet, rice, beans, sorghum, fish, meat, chicken and groundnuts. Also, the majority of the respondents from Central Africa prefer products such as cassava, maize, millet, cocoyam, yam, assorted vegetables, chicken, okra, meat, rice, beans and potatoes while respondents from Southern African countries would like to see maize, millet, sorghum, cassava, potatoes, wheat, chicken, meat, fish, beans, and peanuts in South Africa’s major supermarkets.
**Question 26.** Friends, relatives and neighbours from my country play a very important role in providing information about immigrant shops and restaurants and their products.

The study found that all the respondents (n=220) who also consume indigenous foods from their countries of origin in South Africa consider friends, relatives and neighbours from their countries as very important sources of information pertaining to indigenous foods, ethnic entrepreneurs and other issues relating to their welfare in South Africa. For instance an immigrant from Mozambique revealed that;

“Every interaction with someone from my country is an opportunity to share information about events back home, in South Africa and to learn something new. We commit ourselves to ensure that information about any of our members such as illness, death, celebrations and opportunities to get food from home is disseminated through the fastest speed. We predominantly spread information by word-of-mouth. However other means such as cell phones, our cultural gatherings and the internet are also utilized.”

**Question 27. Generally when a product does not satisfy my expectations I switch to another shop.**

The findings reveal that 63% (n=256) of the respondents will move to other shops if a shop does not fulfil their expectations, while 37% (n=153) of them feel that the retailer should be given another chance.

### Table 42: Post-purchase behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 43: Post-purchase behaviour

According to the majority of the interviewees, they will buy from someone else if their expectations are not met. For instance a Burundian reported that;

“Moving to another shop when you expectations are not met gives you an opportunity to enjoy better products and to evaluate the prices and variety of stocks of other shops.” Equally, a Rwandan argues that;

“A shop owner’s responsibility is to ensure that his clients are happy because without them he will not be in business. If he fails to meet the expectations of his clients then he does not deserve to be in business. That is why I move to a place where the owner wants to be in business by ensuring that his clients are happy”

On the contrary others maintained that they will not switch immediately to another shop. They would prefer to give the shop sometime to improve on things. For instance a Nigerian argued that he would complain to the owner of the shop if his expectations are not met and if the situation does not improve he is compelled to switch to another shop.

Test of significance

Null hypothesis: Sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa do not move to other shops when their expectations are not met.
The Test: The chi square test (\(X^2 = 25.94, \text{df}=1, p=p>0.05\)) found a significant difference in the post-purchase reaction of the respondents. This is because the chi square value (\(X^2 = 25.94\)) is greater than the critical value (3.841) for 0.05 probability level.

Conclusion: Thus, the study rejects the hypothesis. The majority (63%) of the respondents will switch shops when their expectations are not met.

Question 28. My South African friend or partner impacts my food consumption behaviour by encouraging me to eat traditional South African foods.

According to the findings, though many sub-Saharan African immigrants have established relationships with local South Africans, only 24% (\(n=99\)) of the respondents feel that these relationships affect their food consumption patterns. For 76% (\(n=310\)) of the respondents, the relationships are not an influence in their food consumption behaviour.

Table 43: The influence of a social relationship with a South Africa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>310</td>
<td>76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 44: the influence of a social relationship with a South African

Most interviewed respondents maintained that relationships with South Africans do not impact their food consumption behaviour. For instance an immigrant from the DRC reported that;
“Though some modifications in my food choices have taken place, these modifications are not as a result of my relationships with South Africans but due to the fact that I am obliged to align by needs to meet local availability. Despite the changes, I still feel committed to my cultural foodways.”

Equally a few respondents maintained that their foodways have been greatly affected by relationships with South Africans. These were mainly respondents who are married to South Africans. For example an Angolan immigrant reported that his relationship with his South African wife has drastically changed his foodways to South African since his wife only prepares South African foods.

**Test of significance**

**Null hypothesis:** Relationships with South Africans affect the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

**The Test:** The chi square test ($X^2= 108.48$, df=1, $p=p>0.05$) discovered a significant difference in the level of impact that a relationship with a local South African has on the food consumption behaviour of the respondents. This is because the value of the chi square test ($X^2= 108.48$) is greater than the critical value (3.841) for 0.05 probability level.

**Conclusion:** Therefore, the study rejects the hypothesis. The study found that relationships with local South Africans have no effect on the food consumption behaviour of most (76%) of the respondents.

In the first section of this chapter, the researcher has analysed the findings of the questionnaire survey and interviews with sub-Saharan African immigrants. As indicated in the introduction, interviews were also conducted with representatives of South Africa’s major retail organisations and ethnic entrepreneurs. In the next section, the researcher analyses the findings of the interviews with South Africa’s major retailers.
6.3 Section two: Analyses of the responses of executives of major South African supermarket chains.

With the exception of Pick ‘n Pay, interviews were held with representatives of Shoprite, Spar and Woolworths. The interviews were aimed at obtaining the following information:

d) The organisations’ perceptions of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market.

e) The reasons why South Africa’s major supermarkets do not cater for the indigenous food needs of sub-Saharan immigrants; and

f) Whether South Africa’s leading supermarket chains will cater for the immigrants’ food needs if this study establishes the food consumption behaviour of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa.

As in section one, the researcher applies the same analytical procedure. That is, the interview question is presented followed by the feedback or response from the interviewees.

**Question 1. What is your company’s perception of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa?**

It is worthy to mention that all the respondents acknowledged the potential of the emerging sub-Saharan African immigrant market in the food retailing industry and the South African economy at large. According to Mr. Prentice (Marketing Executive for Spar Group) the increasing growth of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market creates enough room for marketers to explore their food needs and spending potential. Equally, Mr Peters of Shoprite remarked that the growing potential of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market is an incredible investment opportunity for South Africa’s major supermarket chains. He added that as the leading supermarket group in South Africa and the continent, Shoprite is already developing investment plans for the market. Though not Woolworths target market, Mrs Zyda, Woolworths’ Director of Foods, equally applauded the growing potential of the sub-Saharan African market in South Africa. She remarked that investing in the market will make an enormous contribution in not only the South African economy but that of the continent at large.
Question 2. Why does your company not cater for the indigenous food needs of sub-Saharan African immigrants?

The interviewees pointed out that lack of sufficient information about the consumption behaviour of the market on which accurate marketing decisions could be made is one of the main reasons why their organisations are not specifically catering for the indigenous food needs of the sub-Saharan African immigrant population in South Africa.

However, the executives of Shoprite and Spar reported that their organisations stock products which are presumed to be consumed by the larger African market in South Africa. According to Mr Peters (the representative of Shoprite) Shoprite assumes that the sub-Saharan African immigrant market is at the moment somehow comfortable with the current stocks; hence they have not embarked on an exclusive study of the indigenous food needs of the market. However, he maintains that the organisation is making plans to increase its investments in the African immigrant market which will include looking after the needs of sub-Saharan African immigrants. He adds that, studies of this nature will go a long way in speeding and facilitating investment in the immigrant retail industry for Shoprite and other supermarket chains.

In the same vein, Mr. Prentice (Marketing Executive for Spar Group) argues that, to some extent, Spar stores cater for the indigenous foods of African immigrants in some communities in certain parts of the country. However, he maintains that with the increasingly growing economic potential of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market, Spar needs to expand its investments in the African immigrant market. Also, Mr Peters did not hesitate to highlight the importance of such studies to facilitating investment in the industry. He argues that such studies will definitely expand the knowledge of supermarket chains on the specific needs of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa and their food consumption behaviour as a whole.

According to Mrs Zyda, though the sub-Saharan African immigrant market constitutes a great economic potential for South Africa and the continent, unfortunately, the market is not among her organisations target markets, hence Woolworths cannot cater for their indigenous food needs. She added that, traditionally, Woolworths does not limit its stocks to racial, ethnic, national or cultural segmentations. Zyda declared that;
“We stock products presumably consumed by everyone in the world irrespective of country, race or culture.”

**Question 3. Should this study establish a consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants will your company consider catering for their needs?**

With the exception of Woolworths, representatives of Shoprite and Spar did not hesitate to declare that their organisations will definitely cater for the indigenous food needs of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market should this study establishes a comprehensive and detailed model of the food consumption behaviour of the market. The representatives of Shoprite and Spar cemented their commitment by declaring that their organisations are already stocking products presumably consumed by the larger African market in South Africa. Mr Peters pointed out that in addition, several meetings have been held at Shoprite’s head office to discuss the possibility of investing deeper in the needs of the African immigrant market in South Africa. According to Mr. Peters, this study together with the organisations growing campaign of planting supermarkets in other parts of Africa will greatly facilitate the process. Mr Peter said that;

“Shoprite group is already well represented and established in 16 countries on the African continent. This makes it much easier to cater for the specific needs of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa with the creation of a food consumption behaviour model”.

Woolworths’ executive, Mrs Zyda greatly applauded the creation of a food consumption behaviour model of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa, considering the growing potential of the market. However, she insisted that the sub-Saharan African immigrant market is not Woolworths’ target market; hence Woolworths will not cater for their specific needs even after the creation of a food consumption behaviour model of the market. According to Mrs Zyda, Woolworths’ target market is premium consumers (LSM 9 and 10 bracket). Thus the organisation’s marketing strategy is tailored towards satisfying the needs of its premium consumers irrespective of their country of origin, race, ethnicity or culture.
Section three: Analyses of the responses of ethnic entrepreneurs

Ethnic entrepreneurs (retail shops and restaurants) are very important sources of indigenous foods in South Africa. They form a very significant part of the welfare of sub-Saharan Africa immigrants in South Africa. Interviews with ethnic entrepreneurs were aimed at exploring the dynamics of the indigenous foods industry; a deeper understanding of the consumption behaviour of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market and the creation of practical guidelines for major South African supermarket chains who may consider investing in the market. Four questions were discussed at the interviews with ethnic retailers. The questions and the respondents’ responses have been examined below.

Question 1. What motivated you to get into this business?

All the ethnic entrepreneurs in this study were inspired by four main factors. One of the main reasons highlighted by the respondents was the need to be self-employed. These respondents reported that the need to be employed was paramount in getting involved in the business since South Africa currently experiences a very high rate of unemployment. Mercy, one of the partners of an African Shop in Wynberg remarked that she and her three partners were unemployed for about two years before getting into the indigenous foods industry. She maintains that, today, the business takes care of her needs, those of her son and also looks after her relatives and siblings back home.

The respondents’ desire to be self-employed was driven by an increase in demand for indigenous food products. According to the proprietor of Grace Africa Supplies (one of the many ethnic retail shops in Parow) the demand for indigenous foods in South Africa has largely increased with increase in the population of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. He maintains that though the number of indigenous retail shops has also increased, the demand for his products is still high.

Mercy maintains that, the increasing demand for indigenous foods in South Africa greatly established a solid foundation of success in their minds prior to getting involved in the business. Mercy and other ethnic entrepreneurs argued that the
demand for indigenous products will always remain high in South Africa because sub-Saharan Africans are generally committed to indigenous foods consumption.

Lastly, the successes of friends (older immigrants) in the business were also very inspirational to the respondents. Older immigrants are a vital source of information and support in the indigenous foods industry. In some cases, they also provide material and financial support to new comers in the business. Lady Lydia, an ethnic entrepreneur in Bellville, reported that, she was greatly inspired by the success, encouragement and support from a few of her friends in the industry. According to Lady Lydia her friends were very resourceful in enabling her business takeoff. In addition to informational support, she reported that she also got material and some financial support from her friends. She believes that the success of her business would not have been possible without support from her friends. She remarked that apart from being self employed, she feels proud taking care of the food needs of sub-Saharan African immigrants because sub-Saharan Africans are so attached to their foodways.

Equally, Fatima, the owner of Fatima Restaurant at Greenmarket Square in Cape Town took the initiative to satisfy the food needs of immigrant traders at Greenmarket Square. According to Fatima these immigrants regularly complained about having fast foods for lunch. She reported that it is hard to measure the amount of gratitude received from her clients daily. Fatima also mentioned that the creation of her restaurant at Greenmarket puts smiles on the faces of so many sub-Saharan African immigrants who were in need of a place to enjoy food that they are used to eating back home. Fatima feels extremely happy to make a contribution, though small, to make immigrants happy because according to her sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa face enormous challenges everyday.

**Question 2. Where and how do you source your products?**

Ethnic entrepreneurs predominantly obtain their supplies from six countries: These include: Cameroon, Nigeria, Ghana, Zambia, the Democratic Republic of Congo and Ethiopia. They travel to these countries to obtain stocks from farmers and traders who deal in indigenous foods. A limited scale of supplies also comes from countries such as Senegal, Somalia and Mali. According to Mercy and her partners, their stocks are obtained mainly from Cameroon and Nigeria. The proprietor of Grace Africa Supplies
reported that his stocks come from Nigeria, Cameroon, the DRC and Ghana. According to Lady Lydia, her products are sourced primarily from the DRC since she is a national of the DRC. She also gets products from Zambia and Cameroon. Fatima maintained that she gets her stocks from Mali, Ethiopia and Cameroon.

It is important to note that the primary source of supply of the majority of ethnic entrepreneurs is their country of origin. For instance, Mercy and partners are Cameroonians and Cameroon is their main source of supply of their products. Mercy claims that it is easier to get products from Cameroon because she is familiar with the people, the products, the market and the exportation process. The owner of Grace Africa Supplies is a Nigerian. He acquires more than half of his stocks from Nigeria because he understands and knows how and where to get the stocks. According to the proprietor of Grace Africa Supplies;

“I have established contracts with farmers in Nigeria to always supply their products to me so that I can always have enough stocks.”

Also, Lady Lydia maintains that back in the DRC where she gets most of her goods, she has workers whose primary responsibility is to travel around the country to gather produce for her business. This ensures that she is always in constant supply of stocks. According Lydia;

“One of the reasons why my customers are loyal to me is because I always have stock of their needs. I strive not to disappointment my customers because they get so frustrated when you run out of stock.”

**Question 3. Who are your customers?**

Clients of ethnic restaurants and retail shops are not only limited to people from the proprietor’s ethnic background or country. Ethnic entrepreneurs cater for the needs of immigrants from a wide range of sub-Saharan African countries. According to the proprietors of Grace Africa Supplies and D’taste Restaurant, their clientele population comprises of immigrants from Angola, Rwanda, Kenya, Malawi, Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Cameroon, Nigeria, Ghana, Mozambique, Burundi, Gabon,
Zimbabwe, Ivory Coast, Sierra Leone, Niger, Ethiopia, Lesotho and even South Africa.

Equally, the proprietors of Emirates and Mashes restaurants remarked that although their patrons are predominantly Somalians, their customers also include South Africans, Ethiopians, Indians, and Pakistanis.

Also, Mr Yonas of Addis Ababa restaurant remarked that although the restaurant is of Ethiopian origin, the clientele population comprises of Ethiopians, Burundians, Kenyans, Tanzanians, Eritreans, Ugandans, Malawians, Namibians and South Africans.

Mercy and partners stock predominantly Cameroonian food products. However, their clientele base is not limited to Cameroonians as customers from Nigeria, Ghana, Zambia Gabon and Sierra Leone also feel comfortable shopping at their shop.

**Question 4. What challenges do you encounter in the business?**

Trading in food products from sub-Saharan African countries in South Africa is not void of challenges. A fundamental challenge faced by ethnic retailers is the task of travelling to different countries to acquire stocks. This entails the difficulty of obtaining the necessary travel documents of the supply countries, huge expenses, and waste of time and efforts. Lady Lydia remarked that she was forced to cancel her trip to Ghana in 2010 because of the challenges she encountered in trying to obtain the necessary documentation to travel and export food products from the country. This also explains why her primary source of supply is the DRC because as a citizen, she encounters little or no difficulty exporting food products from the country.

In addition, respondents mentioned that at times, the quality of their stocks is very poor due to inability of suppliers to establish measures to enhance the quality of their produce. The owner of Grace Africa Supplies remarked that on several occasions he has imported products that cannot be sold to customers due to the fact that they were bought partly or already bad from the suppliers. He also maintains that the long stay on the ship from the country of supply to South Africa also plays a great role in decreasing the quality of products, especially perishable ones.
Also Fatima and Lady Lydia admitted that although sub standard products are often obtained from exporting countries, one of the contributory factors is the fact that they are not skilled enough to properly check the stocks before they are bought. Mercy adds that in addition to lack of skills and knowledge to effectively check stocks prior to purchase, often she does not have the time to properly check the products because she has to meet deadlines.

Another significant challenge highlighted by ethnic entrepreneurs in this study is the difficulty to import perishable products from other parts of sub-Saharan Africa due to rigorous rules on the importation of perishable goods to South Africa. According to the Proprietors of Grace Africa Supplies and D’taste Restaurant, in addition to administrative constraints regarding the importation of perishable products to South Africa, importing the products also entails huge costs which most ethnic entrepreneurs cannot afford.

Finally, competition within the indigenous foods industry in South Africa is rife due to a dramatic increase in ethnic entrepreneurs over the years. This has reduced the market share of some of the retailers who hitherto enjoyed a lucrative market share and a healthy bottom line. An ethnic retailer in Cape Town recounted that many years ago he made huge profits because his clients came from many different parts of the city. According to him;

“Today things have really changed; very few people visit my shop because there are so many shops now in town”.

6.5 Summary of chapter

In this chapter, the researcher has analysed the findings of the research. It is important to note that the discussions are focused on establishing a food consumption behaviour model of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa.

It is equally important to highlight the fact that the researcher has used a frequency percentage method to bring out the differences between the variables in the different categories under review. Of utmost importance is the fact that the researcher has used the chi square method to test the differences of the variables in the data. Below is a tabulation of the major findings of the study.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Finding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regional representation of immigrants</td>
<td>West Africa (24%), Central Africa (26%), East Africa (21%), South Africa (27%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Majority were males (58%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>Majority were singles (59%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational level</td>
<td>Most (38%) were high school leavers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupational status</td>
<td>Most (31%) were businessmen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons for immigrating</td>
<td>Majority (65%) left for greener pastures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duration of residency</td>
<td>Majority (59%) had lived in the country for three and more years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Immigrants’ experiences and perceptions of South Africa’s supermarkets**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Finding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preferred supermarket</td>
<td>Majority (53%) prefer Shoprite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No of visits</td>
<td>Most (51%) visit their shops 2 times a week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence price</td>
<td>Majority (92%) are influenced by price</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Similarity between home and local products</td>
<td>Most (72%) check before purchase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality</td>
<td>Influence the food purchase of 99% of the respondents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dietary needs</td>
<td>Influences the food purchase of 59% of the respondents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>Influences choice of supermarket of 79% of the respondents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>Influences the food choices of 82% of the respondents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taste</td>
<td>Influences the food choices of 96% of the respondents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How similar are local to indigenous products</td>
<td>Majority (53%) say they are somewhat similar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of satisfaction derived from supermarkets</td>
<td>Most (70%) said supermarkets satisfy some of their needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modification of food needs</td>
<td>Majority (67%) have done so in a large extent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly spend on local foods</td>
<td>Majority (68%) spend between R1000-R1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall supermarket experience</td>
<td>Most (54%) said it is good</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Immigrants’ experiences and perceptions of ethnic retailers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Finding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indigenous foods consumption in South Africa</td>
<td>Most (71%) said yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Most (55%) said 2-3 times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sources of indigenous foods</td>
<td>All the immigrants make use of all the sources –</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ethnic retailers and restaurants and friends and relatives coming from home

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Finding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Product quality of ethnic retailers</td>
<td>Most (46%) said it is average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of service</td>
<td>Majority (52%) said it is average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product assortment</td>
<td>Majority (47%) said it is average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prices of ethnic foods</td>
<td>Majority (78%) said it is not affordable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spend on cultural foods</td>
<td>Majority (71%) spend between R500-R999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home feeling at ethnic shops</td>
<td>Majority (84%) said yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buying indigenous foods from supermarkets</td>
<td>Majority (83%) said yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post purchase behaviour</td>
<td>Most (63%) will switch shops if expectations are not met</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence of relationships with locals on food behaviour</td>
<td>Most (73%) said no</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Supermarket Chains**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Finding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perception of immigrant market</td>
<td>A growing market with strong purchasing potential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons for catering for their needs</td>
<td>a) lack of information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b) Taking care of the needs of the larger African market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c) Not target market for Woolworths</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is it possible with a food consumption model established</td>
<td>a) yes (Shoprite and Spar)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b) No (Woolworths) because it is not their target market</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Ethnic entrepreneurs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Finding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reasons for trading in indigenous foods</td>
<td>a) self employment, b) high demand c) success of others,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sources of stocks</td>
<td>Cameroon, Nigeria, Ghana, Ethiopia, Zambia, DRC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customers</td>
<td>Immigrants from all over sub Saharan Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenges</td>
<td>a) obtaining travel documents b) lack of funds, c) difficulty to import perishable goods d) poor quality supplies e) competition</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus in a nutshell, the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa mainly consists of single males, who are businessmen and have attained at least a high school certificate. These immigrants left their countries for economic reasons and feel worried with the absence of their cultural foods in South Africa’s supermarkets. They prefer shopping at Shoprite and spend between R1000-R1999 monthly on local foods. Their food consumption behaviour is predominantly influenced by quality, taste,
price, culture, similarity of local products to home products, location of the shop and nutrition.

These immigrants also eat indigenous foods in South Africa, obtained from ethnic retailers and restaurants, friends and relatives coming from home and at cultural gatherings. They do so two to three times a week, spending between R500-R999 a month. However, they would prefer to buy their indigenous foods from supermarkets should they sell them because they believe that the prices will be cheaper, quality will be enhanced, the service level will be better and there will a lot more variety to choose from.

Thus, this chapter, apart from providing a deeper understanding of the consumption behaviour of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market, an exploration of the dynamics of the indigenous retail industry provides the researcher with some salient guidelines that should also be considered by major supermarkets intending to invest in the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa.

In the next chapter the researcher presents a detailed interpretation and discussion of the findings resulting to the formation of a food consumption behaviour model of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market.
CHAPTER SEVEN

DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings of the research culminating in the creation of a food consumption behaviour model of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa. It is worthy to highlight that, unlike their counterparts in Australia, United States, Britain and Canada, South Africa’s major supermarket chains are yet to cater for the culinary needs of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. It is also important to note that South Africa’s leading supermarket chains cater for the food needs of immigrants from places such as America, Canada, Europe, Asia and India.

As reported earlier (chapter one, paragraph 1) South Africa’s major supermarket chains require an in-depth understanding and knowledge of the food consumption patterns of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in order to establish measures to cater for their indigenous food needs; hence the purpose of this study.

The discussions in this chapter have been structured into four main sections in order to stimulate a clearer understanding of the consumption behaviour of the sub-Saharan African immigrant population. In the first section, the researcher explores the origin and growth of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market. It also examines the perceptions of leading supermarket chains in South Africa about the sub-Saharan African immigrant market. The researcher concludes the discussions in the first section by exploring sub-Saharan African immigrants’ perceptions of South Africa’s leading supermarkets and their products.

The discussions in section two focuses on the consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. It is important to highlight that the discussions in this section are guided by the universal consumer behaviour concept discussed earlier in this study (chapter three). The discussions are split into two parts. In part one the researcher examines the factors that influence the food needs, choices and desires of
the sub-Saharan African immigrant market, while part two explores the stages in the food decision-making process of the immigrants.

In section three, the researcher looks at other important factors or guidelines on the food consumption behaviour of the sub-Saharan African market and the indigenous foods industry worth considering by leading South Africa’s supermarket chains who may be interested in investing in the market. In the last section, the study looks at the differences and similarities between the sub-Saharan African immigrant market, the South Asian market in the U.K and the Hispanics market in the U.S.

7.2 Section one: The origin of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa

Since the demise of the apartheid regime, there has been a dramatic increase in the number of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, estimated at between five to ten million by the South African Institute of Race Relations. These immigrants originate from countries such as the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Rwanda, Burundi, Cameroon, Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Eritrea, Ethiopia and Somalia, Cote d’Ivoire, Gabon, Ghana, Niger, Nigeria, Sierra Leone and Togo, Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe (see chapter 1, paragraph 1.7.2; chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.1).

Sub-Saharan Africans immigrate to South Africa for various reasons but the majority (65%) of them leave their countries mainly for economic development. The relative economic and political stability of the democratic dispensation compels immigrants to perceive South Africa as ideal for greener pastures.

Fairchild (2009:6) argues that over population in the country of origin is a common cause for economic migration. Fairchild (2009:6) adds that the decision to migrate or not is made on the basis of factors directly affecting the welfare of the migrant and not influenced by the broader effects of migration on the countries of origin and destination.

Also, in recent years, there has been a dramatic expansion in the number of sub-Saharan African immigrants to South Africa for educational reasons. Though the
The majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants perceive South Africa as one of Africa’s most economically and politically stable countries, for 22% of the immigrants, South Africa is one of the countries with the best tertiary educational systems on the continent. It is worthy to note that for the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants, immigrating to South Africa is not initially designed for studies, but for economic reasons. Thus the majority of them work and study at the same time. Sub-Saharan African immigrant students work as waiters, security guards, parking guards, cleaners, tutors, and library and research assistants at different universities in the province (see Appendix C).

However, the growing influx of immigrants in South Africa has not gone unnoticed by the greater South African business community and the supermarket industry in particular. It is therefore imperative to examine South Africa’s supermarket chains’ perceptions of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market.

### 7.2.1 Supermarket chains’ perceptions of the sub-Saharan immigrant market

South Africa’s leading supermarket chains have largely acknowledged the increasing sub-Saharan African immigrant population and its growing potential in the retail economy. Executives of major South African supermarket chains (who took part in the study) could not over emphasise the tremendous contributions of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market to the growth and development of the South African supermarket industry and the national economy as a whole. As a result, supermarket chains such as Spar Group Holdings Ltd and Shoprite Group Holdings Ltd are already investing in the larger African market in South Africa (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.3). These organisations currently stock products which are presumed to fulfil the needs of the broader African market in South Africa. Unfortunately, their stocks can only fulfil the expectations of 24% of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market. For the majority (70%) of sub-Saharan African immigrants, leading South African major supermarkets fulfil only some of their expectations (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2, Q12).

Compared with the United States (discussed in chapter two) it is reported that 71% of the retailers which includes international chains such as Wal-Mart Stores Inc. have dedicated ethnic food aisles/sections in their stores, and have even allocated more
shelve space to ethnic foods including Hispanic products (Thompson, 2009:15). In Chicago for instance, studies (Bean and Bell-Rose, 1999: 302; Menager, 2005: 427; Thompson, 2009:15) have reported that the increase in the number of immigrants from diverse cultural backgrounds compels many supermarkets to stock an array of fresh exotic products of different ethnic groups. According to Menager (2005: 427) grocery stores exist in all the corners of the city catering for the food needs of Africans, Vietnamese, Thais, Greeks, Mexicans, Latin Americans, Indians, Italians, Koreans and Russians.

On the contrary Herbert (2007:11) argues that despite the growth in the South Asian market in the U.K, the market is predominantly catered for by ethnic entrepreneurs. Herbert (2007:11) maintains that major grocery chains in the U.K are yet to fully commit their operations to cater for the needs of the growing South Asian market. A similar study by Soon et al. (2009:39) uncovered that Britain’s supermarkets have adjusted their product ranges to match not only the needs of immigrants, but have also incorporated new technology into their shop layouts that greatly facilitates market segmentation and enhance their pricing policies. According to the British Brand Group (2011:3) report discussed in chapter two, it is argued that Asian consumers prefer to do groceries of both homogenous and specialist products one under one roof rather than visiting different specialist shops. Their assertion is further strengthened by an earlier study by Chapman (2002) which claims that major supermarkets in the U.K do not always stock the necessary specialist products and ingredients required by the majority of South Asian consumers.

However, compared to the United States, it is comfortable to assert that major supermarkets in the U.K are yet to commit their operations fully to the satisfaction of the needs of the South Asian market. Thus the U.K scenario is similar to South Africa’s where major supermarkets are still considering to cater for the needs of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market. However Shoprite and Spar chains currently stock goods assumed to cater for the needs of the larger African immigrant market in South Africa.

Thus in both countries (U.K and South Africa) there is need for major grocery chains to embark on a thorough understanding of not only the economic potential of the
immigrant markets (sub-Saharan African and South Asian respectively) but also to understand their needs and expectations.

However, leading supermarket chains in South Africa such as Shoprite Group Ltd and Spar Group Ltd, have not only acknowledged and appreciated the importance of developing a broader understanding of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market, but have also committed to invest deeply in the market with the creation of the food consumption behaviour model of the market.

It should be noted that the South African sub-Saharan African immigrant market has very broad expectations of leading South Africa’s supermarket chains in terms of fulfilling their needs. According to most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, major South Africa’s supermarket chains should be at the forefront of catering for their indigenous foods since these chains are African and are also firmly established in many African countries. The immigrants’ expectations, experiences and perceptions of South Africa’s major supermarkets and their products are further discussed in the next paragraph.

7.2.2 The immigrants’ experiences and perceptions of South Africa’s major supermarkets

Sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa have varied perceptions and experiences of South Africa’s leading supermarket chains and their products. This stems from the fact that sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa are of diverse cultural backgrounds. An important point to note about sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa is that the majority of them come from countries where the supermarket industry is either not in existence or underdeveloped. In sub-Saharan African countries where a few supermarkets exist, the patrons are predominantly the very wealthy members of society. Thus, in most sub-Saharan African countries, groceries are done in open market settings managed by the local municipality. In an open market system, not only are the products different from stocks in South Africa’s supermarkets, but also the pricing, scaling and packaging methods. It is necessary to mention that unlike in South Africa, in the open market system, products are not pre-parcelled and labelled and in most instances customers and sellers negotiate or bargain the prices of food products.
Therefore, on arrival in South Africa, sub-Saharan African immigrants are not only confronted with the challenge of acquainting themselves with local food products and consumption behaviour but also how to buy groceries in supermarkets. In other words, sub-Saharan African immigrants are obliged to master the pricing, labelling, shelving, weighting and payment systems in South Africa’s supermarkets.

Despite coming from countries with very underdeveloped supermarket settings, sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa have established an incredible understanding of the different supermarkets chains in South Africa. This has enabled them to establish their preferred grocery chains based on how much satisfaction is derived from them. In the following paragraphs this researcher has analysed the immigrants’ experiences and perceptions of South Africa’s major retailers. The following criteria have been used. These include: number of visits, price, similarity of products, quality, dietary needs, location, culture, taste, satisfaction, the absence of indigenous foods, adaptation, monthly spend and overall impression.

a) Weekly visits to supermarkets

Most (80%) sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa visit their preferred supermarkets once or twice a week. One time visitors do their shopping at the beginning of the week while those who visit their preferred supermarkets twice do so at the beginning and towards the end of the week. One time visitors are predominantly singles while those who go to the shop twice are mainly couples, smaller families and a few singles. For instance an immigrant from Ghana said;

“I live alone and shop only once a week. During shopping I ensure that all my needs for the week are bought. However, when I run out of breakfast items such as bread, milk and eggs, I quickly rush to a convenience shop called Seven Eleven to buy them.”

Equally, According to a Malawian;

“My girlfriend and I do groceries twice a week. Most of it is done at the beginning of the week and towards the end of the week one of us rushes to the shop to top up items that we may need before the end of the week. We normally shop at Shoprite since it is not far from home and the prices are quite affordable.”
A small proportion (19%) of the sub Saharan African immigrant population goes to the shop three or more times weekly. These are mainly bigger families and a few couples. For example a Cameroon said;

“I visit the shop three or more times during the week. I manage a family of four adults and two kids. I hardly buy enough to cater for my family at any given time even when I feel that what has been bought will sustain the family for some time, but before I realize I am already in the shop again for more groceries. The situation gets worse when so many friends and relatives visit us during the week. We entertain them with food and drinks.”

b) Monthly spend on local foods

The majority (68%) of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa spend between R1000 and R1999 on food monthly. These are mainly singles, couples and immigrants with smaller families. For instance a Burundian said,

“I live alone and try as much as possible not to exceed R1500 on food monthly. There are times that I spend less and in certain months I spend more depending on my choice of foods and the number of friends who visit me but I have never exceeded R2000 a month on food.”

Also, a Senegalese female mentioned that she lives with her husband and they spend between R1500 and R2000 monthly on food. According to her, this is because they hardly eat outside.

On the other hand, 32% of sub-Saharan African immigrants spend more than R2000 a month. These are mainly families but predominantly bigger ones. For instance a Ugandan lady remarked;

“My husband and I spend almost R3000 every month on food for the family. Our family is made up of two kids and two adults. We try as much as possible not to spend up to R3000 rand and more because we have to save enough money for the education of our children. So far we manage our expenses very well and I am very happy with that.”
c) Price

One of the most important factors in the food consumption behaviour of most (92%) sub-Saharan African immigrants is price. The majority of sub-Saharan Africans strive to ensure that the prices of their choice of foods are affordable. It is important to note that one of the reasons why most (53%) sub-Saharan African immigrants prefer Shoprite stores is because the prices are perceived to be low. For instance, an Ethiopian lady maintained that;

“My family and friends always shop at Shoprite because the prices are relatively cheaper than other supermarkets. At times the prices of products at Pick ‘n Pay and Spar stores are also dropped but Shoprite’s prices always remain affordable”.

Also, the study found that sub-Saharan African immigrants (18%) who shop at Pick ‘n Pay stores are equally comfortable with the prices. For instance, a Zimbabwean said;

“Many people say that Shoprite’s prices are lower than Pick ‘n Pay’s but I do not seem to see the difference. I have always shopped at Pick ‘n Pay and one of the reasons is because I am comfortable with the prices. I also shop at Shoprite because I feel that the prices of the products are the same but my preferred supermarket is Pick ‘n Pay.

d) Quality

Almost every sub-Saharan African immigrant (99%) in this study pointed at quality as a very significant factor in their choice of foods. It is worthy to mention that while the majority of Shoprite’s patrons prefer the brand because of its concept of lower prices, patrons of Pick ‘n Pay, Woolworths, Checkers and Spar remarked that the quality of stocks supplied by these supermarkets is the main reason for making the supermarkets their preferred brands. For example a an immigrant from the DRC remarked that;

“Though Pick ‘n Pay may be a little further than Shoprite from where I live, I always go to Pick ‘n Pay to do my groceries. I have never had a problem with the products stocked by Pick ‘n Pay. They look good, always fresh and of great cultural value”
Equally a Ugandan remarked that Checkers is his supermarket of choice because the products are of a higher quality than the other supermarkets. In addition according to an immigrant from Botswana;

“Woolworths may be perceived to be expensive but I have made the brand my preferred place to shop because they stock products of top quality. My most admired products at Woolworths are the different types of bread. They are always fresh and tasty. I feel that Woolworths is the best in terms of quality products in South Africa.”

e) Taste

The majority (96%) of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa use taste as one of the most important benchmarks to determine their choice of foods in South Africa. For instance, a Kenyan remarked that;

“I have lived in South Africa for eight years. Thus I have had the opportunity to taste almost every food product sold in South African supermarkets. At least now I know what to buy and what not to buy. To be honest some of the products taste very well, even more than some of my cultural foods, but the taste of others is terrible. I normally share my experience with other immigrants especially newcomers and they have always appreciated my recommendations.” Also, an Ivorian remarked that;

“I like the taste of some of the products stocked by South African supermarkets but I prefer eating my indigenous foods because I feel that they taste better than South African foods.” In addition a Nigerian reported that;

“The taste of South African products is not as good as products in my country. This is because the products are not naturally cultivated. Back home we do not use chemicals to farm our foods. That is why they taste better and they are healthy. Nevertheless, having eaten South African foods for almost nine years at least I now know what to choose from the selections based on the taste of the products.”. On the other hand, a Namibian remarked that taste is not a factor that determines his choice of foods in South Africa because back home he eats the same foods. Thus he already knows the taste of his choice of products.
f) Location

The location of South African supermarkets is also a very important factor in the food consumption behaviour the majority (79%) of sub-Saharan African immigrants. It plays a very important role in determining their choice of supermarket. This study found that Shoprite is not only preferred by most sub-Saharan African immigrants because the prices of its products are lower, the location of Shoprite stores also plays a significant role in their choice. It is important to highlight that the majority of the respondents reported that Shoprite is their preferred brand because there is a Shoprite store in their community. For example, an immigrant from Sierra Leone remarked that;

“Travelling a far distance to shop is one of the things I dread most. This is because I do not have a car therefore I have to either travel by train or taxi to the shop. I always do my shopping at Shoprite because it is a walking distance from my house. Also, because the shop is nearby I can quickly rush and buy something like a soft drink or cigarette when ever I am in need.”

Other supermarkets were also chosen by many respondents as their preferred supermarkets because the supermarket is located in their community. For example a Gabonese immigrant pointed out that he lives in Observatory and the only supermarket in the area is Pink ‘n Pay. Thus he predominantly buys his groceries at the Pink ‘n Pay store because it is the only option in the area. Equally, an immigrant from Mozambique reported that he would love to shop at Shoprite but he is obliged to shop at Checkers because the supermarket is just a few meters from his home. According to this respondent, though Checkers belongs to the Shoprite Group the prices of the products at Shoprite stores are more affordable than the prices of products at Checkers.

g) Culture

How much do the products stocked by South Africa’s major supermarkets satisfy their cultural needs is one of the most important questions sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa ask themselves during a shopping process. For most (82%) sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, culture is one of the factors that
determine not only their choice of foods but also the choice of where to shop. For instance, a Nigerian lady remarked;

“It is important for me to measure how much satisfaction I will get from a product based on my cultural values before making a purchase. As an African who believes in her cultural values, I always go for products that will give me the satisfaction I require based on the terms of my culture. Products stocked by South African supermarkets give me very minimal satisfaction in terms of my cultural values. This explains why, I constantly eat indigenous foods acquired from ethnic retailers or from friends and relatives coming from home.” In the same light an immigrant from the DRC remarked;

“Though my cultural values perform an important role in my choice of foods, it is mainly exercised when shopping at ethnic retail shops. This is because I get very little satisfaction from products stocked by South African supermarkets. Thus my cultural needs in South Africa are predominantly provided by ethnic retail shops and restaurants.”

On the other hand, for many (28%) sub-Saharan Africans immigrants, cultural values do not determine their choice of foods in South Africa. Therefore, it is not important to these respondents whether supermarkets satisfy their cultural values or not in terms of their provisions. For example, an immigrant from Botswana remarked that;

“Culture is the last thing I consider when making food choices. I eat everything irrespective of its cultural origin. I eat South African, European, American and Asian foods. The most important thing for me is the satisfaction derived from eating my choice of foods. Though I was raised with home grown foods, exposure to foods from other parts of the world has made me to realize that some of these foreign foods are better than the ones I was brought up it.” Equally, a Zimbabwean pointed out that;

“I have never thought of making my food choices on the basis of satisfying my cultural needs. In fact I know very little about my culture since one of my parents is not a Zimbabwean. My mother is British and my father a Zimbabwean. My mother prepares mainly European or Western foods, thus my knowledge of foods is limited to Western products. I know very little about Zimbabwean traditional foods. The food
items I normally look for in a supermarket are the ones my mother raised me with and I always find them in different forms.”

h) Dietary needs

Also, the majority (57%) of sub-Saharan African immigrants consider the nutritional values of a product prior to making a purchase. It is also one of the criteria used by most sub-Saharan African immigrants in choosing their choice of supermarket. For instance an immigrant from Lesotho said;

“I have always shopped at Woolworths because their products are healthy. I like eating healthy foods irrespective of the cost. It is better to spend more for something healthy than to spend less for unhealthy foods because in the long run the impact will be unbearable. You stand a risk of contracting one of the prevailing chronic illnesses that are ravaging the world today. I feel very satisfied with the provisions of Woolworths and until I find a better alternative, Woolworths will remain my preferred Brand.”

Equally an Ivorian remarked that though Checkers stocks both healthy and unhealthy products, he always goes for the healthy ones and he has experienced a tremendous change in his health, such as a reduction in weight and sugar level. According to this immigrant, he feels relatively satisfied with products stocked by Checkers.

On the other hand many (43%) sub-Saharan African immigrants do not consider dietary needs as an influence on their choice of foods. These immigrants can be divided in two groups: those who are not interested and those interested but can not afford. For example, an immigrant from Niger reported that dietary needs are not important in his choice of foods. According to the immigrant he eats what he feels will satisfy his needs and not whether it is organic or not. On the other hand a Rwandan remarked that;

“The lack of attention to the dietary needs of my choice of products is due to the fact that my income can not afford the foods. They are very expensive in South Africa. Back home we mainly eat organically cultivated foods. They are much cheaper than
the ones in South Africa. Besides, the ones in my country are better in quality and taste than the products sold in South Africa’s supermarkets.”

i) Similarity of products

Most (72%) sub-Saharan African immigrants measure the similarity of products sold at South Africa’s supermarkets with those back home before making a purchase decision. However, for the majority of the respondents, products in South Africa’s major supermarket are somewhat similar to those back home. For example according to an immigrant from Nigeria;

“I find it very important to assess the level of similarity between my cultural products and the ones in South Africa’s major supermarkets since many South African products are strange to me. Evaluating the level of similarity enables me to derive some degree of cultural satisfaction from the product. However, to some extent, products sold by South Africa’s major supermarkets are similar to those consumed back home.”

Also 28% of the respondents do not consider the similarity of local and indigenous products as a factor that influences their choice of foods in South Africa. These immigrants are in two groups: those that are not interested and those that are familiar with South Africa’s products. For instance, an Angolan remarked that the similarity of what is consumed back home to South Africa’s products is of no importance to his choice of foods. This immigrant remarked that he is comfortable with the products in South Africa’s supermarkets because the products give him the satisfaction he requires. Also, according to a respondent from Namibia;

“I find the products sold in South Africa quite similar to those consumed back home. South Africans and Namibians eat almost the same foods. Also South Africa’s major supermarkets are very much present in Namibia and the shops are mainly stocked with South African products. Thus I have no problem making food choices in South Africa because I am pretty much familiar with the foods.”

However, 26% of the respondents remarked that South Africa’s products are not similar to those consumed back home. For instance, a Cameroonian remarked that;
“Making food choices at South Africa’s supermarkets is one of my biggest challenges in this country. This is because the products are relatively strange. May be it is because I am still new in the country. I hope that as time goes on I will be able to comfortable make food choices according to my needs.”

j) The absence of indigenous foods

For the majority (67%) of sub-Saharan African immigrants the absence of indigenous foods at South Africa’s major supermarkets is a major concern. For instance, an immigrant from Uganda said;

“It is sad that one can not find cultural foods from other parts of Africa in South Africa’s major supermarkets. It makes you develop a feeling of always wanting to go back to your country. I enjoy South African foods but not as much as my indigenous ones. I hope that South Africa’s supermarket chains will one day consider stocking cultural foods from other parts of Africa”

On the other hand 33% of the respondents are not worried about the absence of indigenous foods in South Africa’s major supermarkets. For instance an immigrant from the DRC remarked that;

“I have been married to a South African for five years now and have become so used to eating South African foods. In fact it is what I eat everyday. Thus the absence of cultural food products from my country in South Africa’s supermarket is not something to worry about since I enjoy South African foods.” Also a Zimbabwean remarked that;

“Though there are certain cultural foods in Zimbabwe not found in South African shops, the absence of these foods is not something to worry about because in Zimbabwe we basically eat South African foods.”

Also an Ivorian remarked that he is not concerned about the absence of foods from his country in South Africa shops because even if they were, he does not think he will always eat them because he prefers eating Western foods.
k) Modification of foodways

Most (89%) sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa have modified their food preferences to suit available stocks in South Africa’s major supermarkets. For instance a Nigerian reported that;

“It is difficult not to modify your cultural foodways in a country like South Africa because the food offerings are limited and unfamiliar. I also eat indigenous foods from ethnic retailers but one can not only live on indigenous foods because they are very pricey. Thus my foodways are partly South African and partly indigenous.” Also a Malawian remarked that;

“In South Africa one has not got a choice. It is either you modify or you starve. I presume it is what the supermarkets want. I eat only South African foods since indigenous foods are scarce and expensive. I wish the time will come when South African supermarkets will realize that our needs also need to be satisfied.”

On the other hand, 11% of the respondents have not modified their foodways in South Africa. These respondents are of two groups: those that are familiar with South African foods and those that eat only indigenous foods. For instance, according to a respondent from Lesotho;

“My foodways are the same. Nothing has changed since I basically eat South African foods back home”.

Also, a Nigerian reported that he basically lives on indigenous foods obtained from ethnic retailers and restaurants or from relatives back home. According to the immigrant, his foodways are still the same.

l) Satisfaction of needs

For the majority (70%) of sub-Saharan African immigrants, South Africa’s major supermarkets satisfy only some of their needs. For instance a Cameroon reported that;
“I like shopping at South Africa’s supermarkets for groceries but unfortunately only some of my cultural food needs are being catered for. Very few products are in line with my expectations. I hope that the situation improves. However, I greatly admire other aspects of my choice of supermarket such as the friendliness of the employees, the affordable prices and the quality of products offered.”

On the other hand 24% of the respondents maintained that South Africa’s supermarkets satisfy most of their needs. These respondents are in two categories; those that are familiar with South African foods and those that are not interested in indigenous foods. For instance a Namibian reported that South Africa’s supermarkets satisfy his food needs since the products he eats back home are the same products stocked in South Africa’s major supermarkets. Also, an immigrant from the DRC argued that his needs are met by South Africa’s supermarkets because he basically eats South African and Western foods.

m) Overall experience

The majority (54%) of sub-Saharan African immigrants feel that their overall experience of South Africa’s major supermarkets is good. For instance a Ghanaian reported that though his cultural food expectations are only satisfied to a limited extent, his general impression about South Africa’s major supermarkets is good. According to this respondent, South Africa’s major supermarkets stock quality products, their prices are affordable, customer service is good and the stores are friendly to shop.

According to 28% of the respondents, their overall experience of South Africa’s major supermarkets is excellent. For instance a Zimbabwean remarked;

“I have nothing to complain about South Africa’s supermarkets especially my preferred one. I get all what I want in terms of choice of foods, quality, price, variety, service, freshness of the products and convenience.”
7.2.3 The immigrants’ experiences and perceptions of ethnic retailers

The absence of home-grown foods in South Africa’s major supermarkets does not limit sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa to the consumption of local products. Indirectly, for most of them, it fortifies the need for cultural or indigenous foods and also strengthens connections with their countries of origin. As Kuma and Lal (2007:172) explain in their study of immigrant food consumption behaviour, the absence of indigenous foods in the host country strengthens the connection between immigrant societies and homelands as it recalls families and friends left behind (see chapter 2, paragraph 2.3.5).

a) Sources of indigenous foods

This study uncovered that 71% of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa also consume indigenous or cultural foods. Cultural foods in South Africa are obtained from friends and relatives visiting South Africa, ethnic entrepreneurs and immigrant associations. Almost every sub-Saharan African immigrant in South Africa acquires cultural products from all the sources. For instance a Nigerian immigrant reported that:

“I basically consume only cultural foods. Ethnic retailers are the main source of my indigenous foods. I also get some cultural foods from friends and relatives coming from home. I also eat at immigrant restaurants and whenever we have a cultural gathering it is an opportunity for us to eat home grown foods.”

This study uncovered that the number of immigrants who make use of friends and relatives is slightly more than the other sources. This is not surprising considering the increasing number of sub-Saharan Africans migrating to South Africa in search of greener pastures and academic improvement. As Maharaj (2004:2) explains, as a greater part of the African continent continues to enjoy widespread poverty and high levels of inequality, South Africa will continue to attract immigrants from the majority of sub-Saharan African countries (see chapter 1, paragraphs 1 and 1.2). However, despite rigorous border controls prohibiting illegal importation of foods to South Africa, sub-Saharan African immigrants to South Africa still manage to
smuggle large quantities of foodstuffs from their home countries to South Africa. For instance, an immigrant from the DRC said;

“Most of what I eat in South Africa as cultural foods comes from home through friends and relatives. So many people from the DRC come to South Africa everyday. Thus my parents and sisters always send food through these people.”

It was also uncovered that despite the slight increase in the number of users of relatives and friends as sources of cultural foods, ethnic entrepreneurs play a profound role in the welfare of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. Ethnic entrepreneurs form an integral part of the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa in the sense that they stock indigenous or cultural food and non-food products from many different parts of sub-Saharan Africa. In addition, immigrant shops and restaurants also function as social joints or hubs for most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. For instance according to a Malawian;

“The emergence of ethnic retailers in South Africa is one of the best things that have happened in the sub-Saharan African immigrant community in South Africa. It is a great relief especially for those of us who have lived in the country longer in the sense that unlike the past, today we can consume our cultural foods whenever we feel like and at every immigrant occasion. Not only do we get cultural foods from ethnic retailers, we also get non food items from our countries that are not found in South African shops”

In contemporary South Africa, ethnic enterprises have become a characteristic feature of immigrant residential communities in major towns and cities. In the Western Cape Province (where this study was conducted) numerous ethnic shops exist in immigrant communities such as Mowbray, Maitland, Parow, Bellville, Cape Town, Brooklyn, Haut Bay, De Doorns, Khayelitsha and Nonzamo (See chapter 6, paragraph 6.4, Q1. & Appendix D; See Appendix C).

Most ethnic entrepreneurs are immigrants from Cameroon, Nigeria, the DRC, Zambia, Ethiopia, Somalia and Senegal. Irrespective of their countries of origin and ethnic affiliations, these entrepreneurs provide the needs of immigrants from many
different sub-Saharan African countries. The study uncovered that immigrants from Angola, Rwanda, Kenya, Malawi, Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Cameroon, Nigeria, Ghana, Mozambique, Burundi, Gabon, Zimbabwe, Ivory Coast, Sierra Leone, Niger, Ethiopia, Lesotho, Somalia, Burundi, Uganda, Eritrea and Namibia are patrons of ethnic retail shops and restaurants.

b) Product quality

Most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa may have welcomed the emergence of ethnic retailers to South Africa, but the majority (53%) of them have not welcomed the quality of their products. Most sub-Saharan African immigrants reported that cultural products stocked by ethnic retailers are of low quality and that something needs to be done to improve the situation. For instance a Cameroonian lady remarked that:

“It is had not to find something wrong with the products sold by ethnic retailers. Often, ethnic retailers sell cultural food products that are already decomposed; hence their smell and taste are unbearable. In addition, their products are never fresh, they sell predominantly dry foods.”

On the other hand, others (47%) maintained that they are happy with the quality of cultural food products stocked by ethnic retailers. For instance a Nigerian reported that;

“I believe that the quality of cultural food products sold by ethnic retailers is good. At times you may find something wrong with a product, may be it is decomposed or does not smell well. But situations like that do not happen all the time.”

c) Product assortment

Equally, the majority (52%) of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa feel that there is lack of variety of cultural food products at ethnic retail shops. For instance a Ghanaian respondent remarked;
“We have so many different types of cultural food products back home. In fact in Africa we are blessed to have the variety of foods we have in our respective countries but you find very few of these cultural foods at ethnic shops. We buy the same products all the time. Ethnic retailers should at least expand their stocks of cultural foods because we would always buy the products.”

On the other hand 48% of the respondents believe that ethnic retailers stock a good variety of products. For example an immigrant from the DRC remarked that she always finds what she needs and even new products at her preferred ethnic retailer.

e) Service

Most (69%) sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa do not admire the service levels at immigrant retail shops. For example, a Gabonese respondent declared that;

“Owners of ethnic retail shops and their employees lack a culture of customer service. Often they behave as if they are doing you a favour by selling cultural food products from other parts of Africa. You will hardly see a smile on their faces. They respond to questions in the most impolite and unprofessional matter you can imagine.”

According to 31% of the respondents, service levels at ethnic retail shops are admirable. For instance Burundian argued that;

“I feel the service standards of the place where I buy my cultural foods are good. I find the owner and the employees very friendly and helpful. It is the kind of service you see only in corporate shops.”

e) Price

The majority (78%) of sub-Saharan African immigrants perceive the prices of cultural stocks at ethnic retail shops to be unaffordable. For instance an Ethiopian said;

“I would eat only cultural food products from my country everyday if I had the money. These products are very expensive in South Africa. You can not live only on
them, else you will not be able to take care of other needs. I eat mostly products sold in supermarkets. I go for indigenous products only once or twice a week”

Also, 12% of the respondents could not judge whether the products stocked by ethnic retailers are affordable or not. For instance a respondent from Kenya remarked that he buys only very specific cultural food products at ethnic retail shops because he eats mainly South African products; hence he cannot determine whether the products are expensive or not.

However 10% of the respondents believe that ethnic retailers in South Africa sell at very affordable prices. A Nigerian respondent declared that;

“I think the retailers are not expensive. As a business, they have to make profit. I feel the prices are set to also cover cost of damaged goods and other operational costs. At the end of the day the proprietors strive to ensure that they remain in business because cultural food retailing is a business that incurs a lot of loses.”

f) Overall feeling of ethnic retail shops

The majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants may not be happy with the quality, variety and prices of cultural food stocks and customer service standards at ethnic retail shops but generally have a great impression of the shops. According to the findings, 84% of the respondents metaphorically have a feeling of home when visiting ethnic enterprises. For instance a Zambian respondent remarked;

“Generally I feel great visiting my preferred ethnic retail shop even when I do not find what I want to buy. I like the atmosphere, the smell and display of different cultural foods and non food items. It gives me a feeling of home especially when I meet other immigrants from my country in the shop. We spend some time chatting in our language about our view of life in South Africa and issues affecting our country.”

Equally a Nigerian immigrant reported that;

“I wonder what my life would have been in South Africa without ethnic retail shops especially restaurants. I spend most of my time at ethnic restaurants with friends watching soccer, playing games or discussing business matters. In fact ethnic
restaurants and retail shops are very important meeting places for us. I feel very much at home at these places because I am always with people from my country.”

On the other hand, 16% of the respondents do not have a feeling of home at ethnic retail shops or restaurants. For instance an immigrant from Mozambique remarked;

“Though I enjoy visiting ethnic retail shops, I do so more for cultural food products. I do not get a feeling of home because the shop is owned by a Nigerian and I do not often meet people from my country in the shop. I would feel like I am in my country if I buy from a shop owned by someone from my country. It will give me the opportunity to chat to him in my local language and to get more of what we eat back home.”

In the previous section, the author has examined the immigrants’ experiences and perceptions of South Africa’s major retailers and ethnic entrepreneurs. Based on their experiences and perceptions, the author has established a comprehensive food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants.

7.3 Section two: The food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa

The food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants discussed in this section is a combination of their local and indigenous food consumption patterns. It is worthy to highlight that the framework on which the model is established is the universal consumer behaviour concept discussed in chapter three. In accordance with the universal consumer behaviour concept, the researcher has split the discussions in this section into two main parts. The first part examines the factors that influence the food needs, choices and desires of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. In the second part, the researcher explores the five stages in the immigrants’ food decision-making process.

7.3.1 Part one: Factors that influence the food needs, choices and desires of sub-Saharan African immigrants

Numerous factors influence the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. In order to ensure a deeper and clearer understanding of
the effects of these factors on the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, the researcher has split the factors into three groups. These include: demographic, economic and social factors.

7.3.1.1 Demographic factors

In this study, the demographic factors that impact the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa include: gender, marital status, length of residency, and education.

7.3.1.1.1 Gender

According to the findings, 58% of the respondents were males and 42% of them were females. This reflects the gender composition of the sub-Saharan African immigrant population of South Africa. It is also indicative of the fact that culturally, African males are keener to migrate than females (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2, Q1 & Appendix C; chapter 3, paragraph 3.3.1.1.3).

Furthermore, the man is the breadwinner in most African families. The unstable political and economic climate in most sub-Saharan African countries compels many African men to immigrate to relatively developed countries in search of greener pastures to enable them to cater for the needs of their families back home. For instance immigrant from the DRC said:

“The war in my country has made things really bad. There are no jobs and people are starving. Thus I had to immigrate to South Africa for safety and also to look for employment in order to take care of my family back home”

Also, migration to South Africa and other developed countries is endowed with numerous challenges both at the departure and arrival stages. Some of these challenges include: inadequate resources, difficulty in securing travel documents, unemployment, lack of shelter, xenophobia and stress. It is argued that males can more comfortably embrace these challenges than females; hence an increase in the number of sub-Saharan African immigrant males. For instance, a Burundian remarked:
“We encounter so many challenges everyday in this country. Xenophobia and lack of work are some of the main issues. Despite the challenges, life here is still better than home. We just have to face the challenges. There is nothing we can do”

Finally, for the majority of sub-Saharan African women, the final decision to migrate is made by someone other than themselves. This is either as a result of lack of resources or social commitments, which include marriage and other family responsibilities (Appendix C). For instance, a Cameroonian single remarked that she travelled to South Africa after the death of her husband. She added that she couldn’t have done so if her husband was alive because she had domestic responsibilities to cater for.

The difference in the gender composition of the sub-Saharan African immigrant population is equally reflected in their cultural foods consumption behaviour patterns. In this study it was uncovered that sub-Saharan African immigrant females exert an enormous amount of time and effort in making decisions regarding what and where to buy food products (local and indigenous). Also, it is normal for females from sub-Saharan Africa to visit more than one supermarket or ethnic retail shop before making a purchase. These visits enable them to measure the prices, quality and similarity of the products based on their cultural values.

This study also uncovered that sub-Saharan African females are custodians of the cultural heritages of their homelands in South Africa. In this regard, they prepare more cultural than local foods for their families. They also ensure that at social events of sub-Saharan African immigrants, the menus are exclusively cultural foods.

Finally, unlike males, sub-Saharan African females are not loyal to ethnic restaurants. Traditionally sub-Saharan African immigrant women prepare food for themselves and for their families from scratch. This enables them to save money, which is used for other household expenses. Also, sub-Saharan African males are regular patrons of ethnic restaurants, especially singles. This study found that sub-Saharan African immigrant males who are self-employed and unmarried hardly have time to make their own food as they spend most of their time working. This is not an unusual practice in the cultures of countries in sub-Saharan Africa. In Africa, it is customary that men look for food while women take care of the family. Also, ethnic restaurants
serve as social joints and meeting places for most sub-Saharan African males, especially those in business (see chapter 2, paragraphs 2.3.5 & 2.3.5.1 and Appendix C).

7.3.1.1.2 Marital status

In this study, 59% of the immigrant respondents were singles. Again, this is not unusual of the sub-Saharan African immigrant population in South Africa. Note should be taken that the majority of sub-Saharan Africans immigrate to South Africa and other parts of the world with little or no knowledge of what to expect. For the majority of them, the search of greener pastures entails trying many options. It obviously requires an enormous amount of flexibility, which is often enjoyed when an immigrant is single.

In addition, in recent years, there has been an increasing degree of scarcity of potential, reliable and committed spouses in many sub-Saharan African countries. Therefore, for some sub-Saharan Africans, immigrating to South Africa is also an opportunity to find a reliable spouse.

As reported earlier, many sub-Saharan African immigrants also immigrate to South Africa in pursuit of quality education. South Africa is perceived as one of the countries in Africa with a relatively better educational system, especially at the tertiary level. Most sub-Saharan Africans who migrate to South Africa with the intention to further their studies are unmarried. They intend to get married after their studies (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2, Q6, paragraph 7.2; appendix C).

The influence of the marital status of sub-Saharan African immigrants is equally evident in their food consumption behaviour. According to this study, sub-Saharan African immigrants who are married spend more on food than immigrants who are single or cohabiting. Also, married immigrants are more fervent consumers of cultural foods than singles or cohabitants. As indicated earlier (paragraph 7.3.1.1.1), sub-Saharan African women believe that it is their responsibility to enhance the cultural values of food choices and consumption of their countries of origin in their families.

In order to save food cost, this study found that immigrant wives make several trips to different supermarkets and ethnic shops to compare the prices of products and also to
measure the level of similarity of local food products to their cultural foods (those in their home countries). Also, for the majority of married sub-Saharan African immigrants, dining at an ethnic restaurant is an unusual practice. It is a cultural obligation for married immigrants (especially females) to enhance family bond and happiness by not only preparing food at home but by also adhering to the specific cultural food needs of their family members during grocery shopping (see appendix C).

7.3.1.1.3 Length of residency

The duration of stay in South Africa also plays an important role in defining the food consumption behaviour patterns of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. Though the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants have lived in South Africa for more than two years, in terms of the impact of the duration of residency on their food consumption behaviour, the researcher has split the length of residency of the immigrants into two periods. These include immigrants who have lived in South Africa for fewer than three years and those who have lived in South Africa for three or more years.

This study found that 59% of sub-Saharan Africans have lived in South Africa for more than three years. These immigrants have gained more familiarity with local foods and consumption ways. They have also incorporated some local foods and consumption patterns in their cultural food consumption behaviour. For instance a few South African traditional meals like potjiekos, curry and pap have become prominent features on the menus of some sub-Saharan African immigrant housewives. For instance a Cameroonian lady said;

“Living in South Africa for ten years has greatly enhanced my familiarity with South African foods. Today I go to the shop with a list of food items to buy depending on the needs of my family. This is because I already know what to find and expect from the foods. So many South African foods have gained a permanent place on my weekly menu. For instance curry, pap and samp. I have also learned how to prepare ox-tail and lamb stews, the South African way. South Africa has very diverse ways of preparing different types of foods. A combination of my traditional ways and the
South African methods of cooking greatly enriches my menu and also offers my family so many choices of foods".

Thus, the longer the duration of stay, the more adaptive sub-Saharan African immigrants become to the cultural foods and consumption ways of South Africa (see chapter 3 paragraphs 3.3.1.1.11).

Also, according to the study, 41% of sub-Saharan African immigrants have lived in the country for fewer than three years. The majority of them are yet to familiarise themselves with local foods and consumption behaviour. These immigrants (especially newcomers) consume more cultural than local foods. According to them, most local foods and consumption patterns are strange. Sub-Saharan African immigrants who have lived in South Africa for fewer than three years are also more loyal to ethnic restaurants, in the sense that most of them are still in the process of settling down comfortably in the country. At this stage, the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants are still job-hunting and searching for shelter; hence there is not enough time, resources and a suitable place to prepare cultural foods for themselves (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2, Q7; chapter 3, paragraph 3.3.1.1.11).

7.3.1.4 Education

It is argued that education gives the consumer a high degree of awareness about their various rights, including product quality and safety. As a result, today, marketers use academic qualifications as one of the methods of segmenting (attitudes and lifestyles) markets (Hennessey et al., 2010:67).

According to the findings, 62% of sub-Saharan African immigrants have attained at least a post high school qualification. This is indicative of the high level of education of the sub-Saharan African immigrant community in South Africa (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2, Q4). Ironically, despite the level of education of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, there is very little evidence of the role and impact of conventional education on their food consumption behaviour in South Africa. In other words, no characteristic feature of the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa is reflective of their academic qualifications. Therefore, it is impossible for marketers to establish segmentations in the sub-Saharan
African immigrant market on the basis of the academic qualifications of the immigrants.

However, the study cannot rule out the role of conventional education and the media in broadening the scope of sub-Saharan African immigrants about leading a healthy lifestyle. This study found that one of the important reasons why sub-Saharan African immigrants prefer cultural to local foods is because local foods are perceived to be unhealthy. According to the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants, food products in their home countries are naturally cultivated as opposed to South African food products which are perceived to be genetically modified (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2. Q10d; chapter 3, paragraph 3.3.1.1.8).

It is equally hard not to mention the influence of cultural education on the consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. This study also found that sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa have a wealth of cultural knowledge about the different types of cultural foods and the meanings associated to consuming each of them. They are also endowed with the knowledge of how and when to prepare, eat and dispose of cultural food products from their countries of origin.

To a large extent, the cultural knowledge imbued in sub-Saharan African immigrants was handed down by their parents and/or elders back home. A significant manifestation of the immigrants’ wealth of cultural education in this study is the fact that most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa strive to establish similarity between local and cultural foods in their purchase decision-making process. In addition, sub-Saharan African immigrants (especially wives) always prepare cultural foods as a means of handing down their cultural heritage to their children so that when they become adults they too will ensure that the culture is sustained by passing over the same information to their children.

The second set of factors that influence the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants are personal factors. These are discussed in the next paragraph.
7.3.1.2 Personal factors

Personal factors such as price, quality, taste, similarity of products, nutrition, product assortment and service play a fundamental role in the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

7.3.1.2.1 Price

In South Africa, the food needs, choices and desires of 92% of sub-Saharan African immigrants are influenced by the prices of the products. As indicated earlier, many sub-Saharan African immigrants (especially females) visit different supermarkets prior to making a purchase in order to compare the prices of products.

This study also found that price is one of the reasons why the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa shop at Shoprite stores. According to most sub-Saharan African immigrants, Shoprite is perceived to be cheaper than the other leading supermarkets in South Africa. In the company’s 2009 annual report, it was declared that Shoprite’s price reduction principle has earned the company a clientele population of 16 million consumers from the middle to lower-income groups in the Living Standards Measurement (LSM) 4 to 7 (SGH Annual Report, 2009; see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.2 question 10a).

Equally, 78% of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa remarked that ethnic entrepreneurs are expensive. This accounts for one of the reasons why these immigrants would buy their cultural foods from leading South African supermarkets, should these products be available at the supermarkets. Sub-Saharan African immigrants believe that because supermarkets buy in bulk, they sell at lower prices (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.3; Appendix C; chapter 3, paragraphs 3.3.1.1.10 & 3.3.1.1.12).

7.3.1.2.2 Quality of product

Quality occupies a central place in the food consumption behaviour of 99% of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. Most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa primarily consider the quality of products prior to making a purchase. In
addition to influencing their choice of food products, quality equally determines where most sub-Saharan African immigrants buy their food products. For instance, a Zimbabwean crafter reported that his loyalty to Shoprite is based on the fact that products stocked by Shoprite stores are of higher quality than other supermarket chains. According to this immigrant, fresh milk at Shoprite lasts longer than Pick ‘n Pay’s.

Equally, patrons of Pick ‘n Pay, Woolworths, and Spar commented that quality is one of the primary reasons for shopping at these supermarkets. Therefore, the quality of food products largely impacts the food consumption behaviour of almost every sub-Saharan African immigrant in South Africa (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.2, Q10; Appendix C; chapter 3, paragraphs 3.3.1.10).

It is important to remark that all South Africa’s leading supermarkets are perceived by most sub-Saharan African immigrants as providing quality food products. The perceptions of the immigrants are a reflection of their specific cultural food needs and expectations. Nevertheless, for the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, Shoprite is the most preferred supermarket (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.2, Q10; Appendix C; chapter 3, paragraphs 3.3.1.10).

Sub-Saharan African immigrants are equally concerned about the quality of cultural food products stocked by ethnic entrepreneurs. According to 53% of them, there is need for ethnic entrepreneurs to improve the quality of their stocks. These immigrants argued that in order for the quality of cultural food products stocked by ethnic entrepreneurs to match the quality of those consumed back home; ethnic entrepreneurs need to devote sufficient effort, time, resources and expertise. As a result, these immigrants prefer to buy cultural foods from South Africa’s leading supermarkets, should these products be available at supermarkets. According to them, South Africa’s leading supermarkets are not only passionate about quality products but also commit enough resources to enhance the quality of their stocks (see, chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.2; Appendix C; chapter 3, paragraphs 3.3.1.10 & 3.3.1.12).
7.3.1.2.3 Taste

In addition to quality and price, taste is also a significant factor influencing the food consumption behaviour of 96% of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. By taste, immigrants mean flavour, which includes smell and oral perception of food texture. For the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants, taste is a benchmark to measure local foods since most local foods are strange to them. Therefore, in order to get the best out of local foods (in accordance with their cultural expectations) sub-Saharan African immigrants rely on the taste of the products.

Two methods are used by sub-Saharan African immigrants to determine the taste of food products. These include product trials and recommendations from friends and relatives (perceived to be reliable). Thus, if the taste of a product is not in line with the expectations of the immigrant, he/she refrains from consuming the product. Conversely, if the taste of the product fulfils his/her expectations, the product forms part of the immigrant’s grocery list (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.2; Appendix C; chapter 3, paragraphs 3.3.1.1.10 & 3.3.1.1.12)

In the same vein, taste is one of the elements used by sub-Saharan Africans to evaluate the quality of cultural products at ethnic retail shops. The majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants are very familiar with the taste of indigenous or cultural products. Their food taste preferences are based on their cultural values. This has been shaped by their childhood experiences or family norms and socialization processes. This gives them a platform to effectively evaluate the quality of the products before or after a purchase. For instance, a Cameroonian lady in Maitland remarked that prior to buying palm oil, garri and groundnuts at ethnic retail shops, she tastes the products to assess their quality (see Appendix C; chapter 3, paragraph 3.3.1.1.6).

7.3.1.2.4 Similarity of products

Another important factor that influences the consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa is a measure of the similarity of local to cultural products. For most (72%) sub-Saharan African immigrants, food is one of the most visible manifestations of their cultures. Thus according to these immigrants,
establishing the similarity of local to indigenous products enables them to make purchases that are somehow aligned to their cultural expectations.

Though the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants may not be familiar with local food products, this study uncovered that 79% of the immigrants find some degree of cultural similarity between local and indigenous foods. For instance, a number of sub-Saharan Africans declared that ‘mielie meal’ (pap) predominantly consumed by black South Africans is similar to ‘foofoo,’ a staple food in most of Central, West and East Africa.

Also, most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa remarked that poultry products, meat, fish, maize, corn, groundnut and potato found in South Africa’s supermarkets are similar in texture but different in smell, taste, types and quality to those in their countries of origin; hence indigenous ones are preferable.

7.3.1.2.5 Nutritional benefits

There is very little evidence to deny the fact that over the last two decades studies and the mass media have greatly emphasised the importance of healthy living and wellness. This emerging interest can be explained by the realisation that many illnesses and diseases (AIDS, stroke, diabetes and cardiovascular disease) that plague modern Western societies are intrinsically linked to lifestyle factors. Thus, the risk of attracting these illnesses can be markedly reduced by changing certain lifestyle-related behaviours (Shaw et al., 2008:14).

In this study most (59%) of sub-Saharan Africans believe that they were raised with very healthy foods. In other words sub-Saharan Africans believe that their cultural values demand that food is organically cultivated. Therefore, the food choices of these immigrants are strongly influenced by the nutritional composition of the products. The nutritional elements of indigenous or cultural food products explain why sub-Saharan African immigrants prefer cultural to local foods. According to most sub-Saharan African immigrants, local foods are unhealthy. This is because they are genetically modified to accommodate the increasing South African market. Therefore, in addition to other factors, many sub-Saharan African immigrants patronize supermarkets such as Pick ‘n Pay, Checkers and Woolworths because the products are
perceived to be organic (see paragraph 7.3.1.1.4; chapter 3, paragraph 3.3.1.1.8. & 3.3.1.1.10.2)

7.3.1.2.6 Product assortment

Variety is also an important factor that influences the consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants. It plays a very important role in enabling sub-Saharan African immigrants to make a decision on where to buy their food products. This study uncovered that 52% of sub-Saharan African immigrants buy their products where there is sufficient variety. For instance a Nigerian reported that;

“Food in my country is typified by a wide assortment of dishes and cooking procedures with each food or dish having a particular meaning. Therefore, assortment of foods should match the diversity of cultural meanings that are attributed to food consumption.”

This explains why most sub-Saharan African immigrants feel that ethnic retail shops have a limited variety of cultural food products; hence they would buy their cultural food products from supermarkets if South Africa’s leading supermarkets stock the products. Most sub-Saharan African immigrants believe that South Africa’s major supermarkets do not only have the resources and expertise but are also committed to providing their customers with a wide variety of products (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.3, Appendix D; Appendix C; chapter 3, paragraphs 3.3.1.1.10 & 3.3.1.1.12).

7.3.1.2.7 Service

The service standards of ethnic retail shops and supermarkets also greatly determine the food consumption patterns of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. This study uncovered that 69% of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa do not admire the level of service at most ethnic retail shops and restaurants. For instance a Malawian reported that most ethnic restaurants are part of a drinking parlour or pub where the expectations of the consumers are largely affected by loud music, clouds of cigarette smoke, stench and poor quality food. Most of these restaurants often have a deficiency of cutlery, with seats and tables designed for drinking and not dining.
Others believe that employees and owners of ethnic retail shops are largely deficient in customer service. They are unfriendly and not always willing to assist.

According to the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, service standards at ethnic restaurants and retail shops leave much room for improvement. Thus, customer service also accounts for one of the reasons why most sub-Saharan African immigrants would patronise leading South African supermarket chains, should they invest in cultural foods from their countries of origin (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.3, Appendix C; chapter 3, paragraphs 3.3.1.1.10 & 3.3.1.1.12).

7.3.1.2.8 Proximity

Proximity influences the food consumption behaviour of 79% of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. For instance, a Ugandan remarked that;

“Community living is one of the cultural values of my country and most of Africa. Thus in South Africa I live where there are others from my home country. We speak the same language and share the same cultural background. We like to do things together, patronise each other’s business and shop within the community.”

Thus, for the majority of immigrants proximity plays an important role in their choice of supermarket. For instance, the majority of Shoprite’s patrons believe that Shoprite stores are not far from their homes. As reported earlier, Shoprite is represented in every immigrant residential area in South Africa’s towns and cities. Therefore, proximity of Shoprite stores enables sub-Saharan African immigrants to save travel costs, time and the inconvenience of travelling to distant stores by taxi or train to buy groceries (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.3, Q10e; Appendix C).

Also, in South Africa’s towns and cities, ethnic retail shops and restaurants are a characteristic feature of immigrant residential communities. Ethnic retailers believe that by locating their stores close to immigrants’ residential areas, they enjoy a larger share of the market (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.3, Q4; chapter 3, paragraphs 3.3.1.1.10 & 3.3.1.1.12).
7.3.1.3 Economic factor

In this study, employment was found to be the only economic factor that influences the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

7.3.1.3.1 The impact of employment

Marketers across the globe use employment as one of the variables of market segmentation. It is argued that a consumer’s occupation is known to influence his or her choice of products and services (Dewind and Holdaway, 2008; 349).

One of the challenges encountered by sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa is unemployment. As a result, 31% of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa are self-employed (entrepreneurs). Most self-employed sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa are traders in predominantly Chinese imports. Others own businesses such as hair and beauty salons, barber shops, tailoring shops, restaurants, food retail shops, automobile spare parts shops and vehicle, computer, radio, television and mobile phone repair services (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.1, Q5; chapter 3, paragraph 3.3.1.1.2; Appendix C).

In addition, 25% of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa are employed as teachers, lecturers, managers, doctors, nurses, accountants, waiters, cashiers, sales clerks, security guards and cleaners (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.1, Q5; chapter 3, paragraph 3.3.1.1.2; Appendix C).

With regards to the influence of employment on the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants, this study found that immigrants who are self-employed and those who earn a high hourly wage such as managers, teachers, accountants, doctors and lecturers, spend more (up to about R3000) on food monthly. While the unemployed and immigrants whose hourly wages are low, such as cashiers, sales clerks, cleaners, security guards and waiters, spend less (under R2000) on groceries monthly (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.2). The study also uncovered that self-employed sub-Saharan African immigrants and the employed whose hourly wages are high spend more on cultural foods and are less loyal to ethnic restaurants than the
unemployed and sub-Saharan immigrants who earn low wages (see chapter 3, paragraph 3.3.1.1.2).

7.3.1.4 Social factors

Social factors such as culture, relations with South Africans, family and reference groups greatly determine the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

7.3.1.4.1 Culture

The cultural values enshrined in the consumption of food products influence the consumption behaviour of 82% of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. Apart from the functional activities of food, for these sub-Saharan African immigrants, food consumption is a function of the symbolic meanings affiliated with the products (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.2).

Studies by Bhargava and Bhatt (2006:234) and Anderson (2005:235) posit that food habits and beliefs are ingrained in the cultural values of a community and consumers have been found to seek food products less for their use value than for what is termed cultural value.

According to this study, most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa devote an enormous amount of time and effort to examine the conformity of local products with their cultural values before making a purchase. Also, most sub-Saharan African immigrants (especially ladies) visit many supermarkets (especially on arrival) to evaluate the cultural similarity of local products to those in their home countries. Therefore, for most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, cultural value systems serve as a road map and direction to follow (especially during times of uncertainty) in their choice of food products. In addition, sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa feel obligated to protect the beliefs and values of their cultures. One of the methods of doing so is by adhering to their cultural or indigenous foods and consumption behaviour (see Appendix C; chapter 2, paragraphs 3.3.2, 2.3.3 & 2.3.5; chapter 3, paragraph 3.3.1.2.4 & 3.3.1.1.11).
7.3.1.4.2 Relationship with South Africans

Many sub-Saharan African immigrants (especially those who have stayed longer) have established relationships such as marriage, boy/girlfriends, colleagues, friends, classmates and business partners with local South Africans. This study uncovered that such relationships impacts the cultural food needs and general food consumption pattern of 24% of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. According to an immigrant from the Democratic Republic of Congo;

“It is hard not to be influenced by South African foods and consumption patterns especially if you are married to a South African as she basically prepares her cultural food.”

On the other hand, relationships with local South Africans do not impact the cultural food needs, choices and desires of 76% of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. This reflects the strength of the value and importance of cultural foods to sub-Saharan Africans (see Appendix C).

7.3.1.4.3 Reference groups

Reference groups are an indispensable factor in the consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, especially recent immigrants. Reference groups such as immigrant cultural associations dispense valuable information pertaining to indigenous or cultural food consumption. From reference groups, sub-Saharan African immigrants learn about the different types of cultural food products, where to find them, prices and methods of preparation, consumption and disposal. For instance, an immigrant from Niger remarked that his knowledge of what to eat and where to find what to eat in South Africa has been greatly enhanced by members of his cultural group. According to this immigrant, on arrival in South Africa, he had very little knowledge about life in South Africa. Today he has become well informed about so many things that affect his life in South Africa especially about cultural foods because of the assistance he gets from his cultural group (see chapter 3, paragraph 3.3.1.2.1 & 3.3.1.2.3; Appendix C).
7.3.1.4.4 Family

The family is an integral part of the food consumption behaviour of many sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. Sub-Saharan African immigrants (predominantly couples) uphold the needs of their family members in their choice of foods. This explains why immigrant families spend relatively more on food products. They are also fervent consumers of cultural foods, since one of the responsibilities of sub-Saharan African immigrant wives is to enforce the cultural heritages of their country of origin through consumption of indigenous food products. For instance an immigrant from the Kenya remarked:

“**I am very conscious of my cultural values. Thus despite the influence of urbanization which is accompanied by changes from traditional food to Western diets, I strive to ensure that our cultural food habits internalized during early socializations are still adhered to. I do this by always preparing cultural foods for my family and by educating my daughter on the meanings associated to each food and the way they are prepared.**”

Also, at family events such as birthdays, weddings, funerals, baptisms, graduations and awards, cultural foods are mostly served (Appendix C, Chapter 3, paragraph 3.3.1.2.3).
Figure 45: Factors that influence the food needs, choices and desires of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa

Figure 11 illustrates the factors that influence the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. The factors are split into four categories: demographic, personal, economic and social. It is important to mention that these factors are the bedrock of the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa in the sense that they determine the food needs, choices and desires of the immigrants. However, it is worthy to highlight that behind the realisation of these needs (the purchase of the products that satisfy their needs, choices and desires) there is a decision-making process. In part two of this section, the researcher examines the food decision-making process of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.
7.3.2 Part two: The food decision-making process of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa

Immigrants and the host population may have many things in common such as shelter, household operations, education and health, but differ uniquely in their food consumption behaviours. Differences in the food consumption behaviour of immigrants and the mainstream population are largely evident in the factors that influence their food consumption behaviour and their food decision-making process (Wang and Lo, 2007:184). In the following discussions the researcher looks at the five stages in the food consumption decision-making process of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. The five stages include:

(a) Needs recognition.

(g) Information search.

(h) Evaluation of alternatives.

(i) Purchase decision; and

(j) Post-purchase behaviour.

7.3.2.1 Needs recognition

Sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa consume food products for numerous reasons. Apart from the need to satisfy hunger, sub-Saharan African immigrants aim to derive enormous cultural satisfaction from their choice of foods. This is reflected in the benchmarks used to evaluate various local food options. It is also reflected in their expectations of ethnic entrepreneurs (see chapter 3, paragraph 3.3.1.3.1; chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.2; Appendix C).

Secondly, sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa often make decisions on what food products to buy or not to buy based on recommendations by friends and relatives (older immigrants). The need to fulfil such recommendations is also an important element in the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa (Appendix C).

Furthermore, for the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, food consumption is also influenced by the need to have a feeling of home (country of
origin). This is evident in the drive to largely consume cultural foods in South Africa. It also explains the need by most sub-Saharan African immigrants to establish the similarity of local to cultural foods prior to making a purchase.

It is worthy to note that for many sub-Saharan African immigrants, visiting ethnic retail shops and restaurants is metaphorically considered as a visit home. This is because, apart from acquiring cultural products (foods and non-foods), respondents also meet people from their countries at ethnic retail shops (see chapter 3, paragraph 3.3.1.10.2; chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.3, Appendix C).

Upholding their cultural heritages through food consumption also forms an integral part of the consumption decision-making process of sub-Saharan African immigrants. As Rao (2006:34) puts it, one of the most important manifestations of culture is the consumption of cultural food products. Thus, sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa strive to ensure that their food options are to a large extent in line with their indigenous cultural orientations. It also accounts for one of the reasons why mainly indigenous foods are served at gatherings of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa (see chapter 3, paragraph 3.3.1.2.4; chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.2 Appendix C).

In addition to enforcing their cultural heritages, sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa also feel the need to be distinguished through their choice of food products. According to most sub-Saharan African immigrants, the consumption of indigenous foods is a mark of identity, demarcating them from other members of society. It also instils in them a sense of pride about who they are and where they come from (see chapter 3, paragraph, 3.3.1.1.4; Appendix C).

Also sub-Saharan African immigrants (though not many) in South Africa make food choices to sustain relationships with local South Africans. As highlighted earlier, many sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa have established relationships of varied forms with local South Africans. However, the need to sustain these relationships also greatly influences the food decision-making process of some of the immigrants (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.3)
Further more, the need to lead a healthy lifestyle is also one of the factors that determines the food needs and choices of most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. This is evident of patrons of Woolworths, checkers and Pick ‘n Pay supermarkets. According to sub-Saharan African immigrants, the nutritional benefits of consuming cultural foods also explains their preference of indigenous or cultural over local food products (see chapter 3 paragraph 3.3.1.1.8; chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.2).

After identifying the need for consuming food products, sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa proceed to search for reliable information about available food options, prices, quality, taste and any other relevant information that may enable them to satisfy their needs. In the next stage, the researcher looks at the different sources of information used by sub-Saharan African immigrants in their pursuit of food products to fulfil their needs in South Africa.

**7.3.2.2 Information search**

The majority of sub-Saharan Africans immigrate to South Africa with very little or no information about what to expect. At this stage, the most important information is that which would enable the immigrant to evaluate alternatives in order to solve his/her problem. Sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa obtain information about cultural and local foods from five sources: These include: (a) friends and/or relatives; (b) ethnic business places; (c) immigrant associations; (d) media; and (e) product trials.
a) Friends and/or relatives

Friends and relatives are the most important sources of information in the sub-Saharan African immigrant community. The majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants rely heavily on information from friends and relatives pertaining to what and where to buy cultural and local food products. Such information is predominantly shared by word of mouth. To some extent digital methods such as emails and telephones are also used (see Appendix C; chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.3).

b) Ethnic business places

Ethnic businesses are also a vital source of information for sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. At ethnic retail shops and restaurants, immigrants acquire information about different indigenous or cultural foods and how they are prepared and consumed. Equally, immigrants meet friends and other immigrants from their home countries at ethnic retail shops and restaurants. At such encounters, discussions are centred on issues pertaining to indigenous or cultural food consumption as well as other matters affecting their welfare (see Appendix D; chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.3; Appendix C).

c) Immigrant associations

Immigrant associations also provide very relevant information pertaining to food products, sources and methods of preparation. According most sub-Saharan African immigrants, cultural meetings provide a platform to eat and know everything about indigenous or cultural foods in South Africa (see Appendix C).

d) Media

Print and television media are also vital sources of information in the food consumption behaviour process of sub-Saharan African immigrants. From the media, sub-Saharan African immigrants obtain information about different types of local foods, their prices and where to obtain them. For the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants, freely distributed catalogues by leading supermarkets are a very important guide in their choice of local foods, in the sense that they provide plenty of
information about product types and prices of different supermarkets. Also, ethnic entrepreneurs also frequently distribute flyers containing information about their stocks of cultural products. (see Appendix C).

**e) Product trials**

Sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa also obtain much information by simply trying different products. This is mostly evident in their choice of local products since most local products are new to most of them. Product trials enable sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa to have a sense of the degree of satisfaction that may be derived from consuming a product in accordance with their cultural values. For instance, this study uncovered that some South African traditional dishes (curry and lamb potjie and samp ) now form an integral part of the menu of a Cameroonian immigrant. Also, a number of South Africans have become loyal clients of ethnic restaurants of Ethiopian, Nigerian, Somalian and Cameroonian origins.

Equally important to note is the fact that trials are not only limited to local products. Many sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa also try cultural products from other sub-Saharan countries stocked by ethnic entrepreneurs. This gives them a sense of taste, quality and meanings associated to products from different parts of Africa.

Information is an indispensable component in the consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants, especially for newcomers. The different sources of information provide immigrants with the knowledge, guidance and ability to evaluate alternatives in the markets (local and indigenous or cultural foods ). According to this research, the search for information about food types, quality, similarity of products, prices and sources, increases with the length of stay of the immigrant in South Africa. That is, sub-Saharan African immigrants who have lived longer in South Africa explore deeper sources of information such as speaking to many people about a product; reading newspapers and also searching the Internet (see chapter 3, paragraph 3.3.1.3.2 & 3.3.1.2.3)

With the acquisition of information about available food options to satisfy their needs, sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa proceed to evaluate these options according to their expectations. Therefore, in the following paragraph, the researcher
explores the criteria used by sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa to assess available food options in the indigenous and local markets.

7.3.2.3 Evaluating alternatives

The majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa consume local and indigenous or cultural food products. Local foods are obtained from South Africa’s major supermarkets while cultural foodstuffs come from friends and/or relatives visiting South Africa, ethnic entrepreneurs and immigrant associations. In South Africa, sub-Saharan African immigrants have established a set of criteria to evaluate available food options in the local and indigenous markets. These criteria include: (a) quality; (b) taste; (c) price; (d) cultural values; (e) nutritional benefits; (f) service; and (g) similarity of products.

a) Quality

Quality is the primary criterion used by sub-Saharan African immigrants in assessing the various food options in South Africa. It is one of the factors used by sub-Saharan African immigrants to establish where to buy their foodstuffs.

In this study a significant proportion of sub-Saharan African immigrants expressed dissatisfaction in the quality of cultural food products stocked by ethnic retailers. According to these immigrants, there is need for ethnic entrepreneurs to upgrade the quality of their products to match the quality of those consumed back home. Most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa have also expressed the desire to buy their indigenous or cultural products from supermarkets, should they stock them. According to sub-Saharan African immigrants, South Africa’s leading supermarkets strive to ensure that the quality of their products are not compromised (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.2, Q10dc; paragraph 6.2.3; Appendix C).

b) Taste

The unfamiliarity of local products makes taste a very salient factor in the food consumption behaviour process of most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. Thus, in their food decision-making process, most sub-Saharan African immigrants strive to ensure that the taste (especially of local products) is in line with
their cultural expectations. Sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa also use taste as a benchmark to establish the quality of cultural food products stocked by ethnic entrepreneurs (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.2, Q10g; Appendix C).

c) Price

The majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa evaluate the prices of product options prior to making a purchase decision. It is not uncommon for a sub-Saharan African immigrant in South Africa to visit more than one supermarket or ethnic shop to assess the prices of the products.

Also, according to the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, ethnic entrepreneurs are expensive. This also explains why they would prefer to buy their cultural or indigenous food products from leading supermarket chains, if these supermarkets sell them. For most sub-Saharan African immigrants, supermarkets buy in bulk; hence their prices are cheaper (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.2, Q10a, paragraph 6.2.3; Appendix C).

d) Cultural values

Evaluating food products on the basis of their cultural values is a significant element in the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants. According to most sub-Saharan African immigrants, food choices made on the basis of cultural orientations satisfy hunger, strengthens their believe systems and cultural heritages and also communicates symbolic meanings associated with consumption of the products.

e) Nutritional benefits

The majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants believe that they were raised with organically cultivated foods. Therefore, the nutritional qualities enshrined in cultural foods also explain why most sub-Saharan African immigrants prefer indigenous or cultural to local foods. The desire of these immigrants to lead a healthy lifestyle has been stirred by the enormous awareness created by the media, the academia and other institutions advocating healthy living. Thus many sub-Saharan African immigrants in
South Africa examine the nutritional characteristics in foods prior to making a purchase decision.

f) Service

Customer service oriented stores are a major attraction for most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa for purchases of both local and cultural foods. Sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa have expressed the need for ethnic entrepreneurs to improve the standards of service in their establishments. This also explains why they would prefer to buy their indigenous or cultural foods from supermarkets, if South Africa’s leading supermarkets stock them. According to most sub-Saharan African immigrants, South Africa’s leading supermarkets are committed to higher customer service standards.

g) Similarity of products

A very significant evaluative feature of the food choices of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa is the level of similarity between local and cultural foods in South Africa’s leading supermarkets. This is to ensure that at least some degree of satisfaction is derived from consuming the products, considering the fact that most local products are strange to the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa (see chapter 3, paragraph, 3.3.1.3.3; chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.2, Q10f; Appendix C).

Sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa find it absolutely necessary to evaluate product options in the local and indigenous markets prior to making purchase decisions. This is to ensure that the products are aligned with their expectations which are predominantly cultural. In the following paragraph the researcher examines how sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa make purchase decisions.

7.3.2.4 Making a purchase decision

The evaluation stage is a platform on which sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa decide on what food products to buy and where to buy them. Sub-Saharan African immigrants consider a number of factors when making a purchase decision. Firstly, the product must be able to meet the immigrant’s cultural expectations. Also,
those with families (married and cohabitants) take into consideration the specific and cultural food needs of their family members prior to making a purchase decision. In some immigrant families, making a purchase decision involves the participation of other family members (e.g. wife or husband).

On the other hand, the decision-making process of sub-Saharan African immigrant singles in South Africa is often done independently. This is because they have only themselves to cater for. They also spend less on food than immigrant families (see chapter 3, paragraph 3.3.1.3.4; Appendix C).

Like every consumer, after a purchase, sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa evaluate the level of satisfaction derived from consuming their choice of food products. In the last stage, the author looks at the post-purchase food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

### 7.3.2.5 Post-purchase behaviour

Post-purchase behaviour involves all the consumers’ activities and the experiences that follow the purchase (Blythe, 2008:319). After buying their food products, sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa evaluate the amount of satisfaction derived from their purchase. This study found that sub-Saharan African immigrants feel great and express delight when a product satisfies their cultural and other needs. Many of them continue to buy from the shop and also spread positive information about the product and the shop.

On the other hand, when a product fails to meet their cultural and other expectations, most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa feel and express dissatisfaction. The majority of them prefer to switch to other shops while others hang on for some time expecting to see an improvement. Those who stop buying from the shop normally spread negative information about the shop and the product (see chapter 3, paragraph 3.3.1.3.5 & chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.3; Appendix C)
Figure 46: The food decision-making process of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa

Figure 12 depicts the five stages in the food consumption decision-making process of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. The stages include: need recognition, information search, the evaluation of alternatives, purchase decision and post-purchase behaviour.

As indicated earlier, the food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa is a combination of the factors that influence their food needs, choices and desires and the five stages in their food decision-making process. Below is a graphical illustration of the mutual relationship of the two parts that form the food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Need Recognition</th>
<th>Sources of Information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To obtain product satisfaction</td>
<td>Friends and relatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To fulfil recommendations</td>
<td>Ethnic retail shops and restaurants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To feel at home</td>
<td>Cultural associations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To satisfy cultural values</td>
<td>Mass media</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To satisfy relationships with locals</td>
<td>Product trials locals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health reasons</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purchase</th>
<th>Evaluative criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>When product is perceived to fulfil the expected benefits</td>
<td>Product quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Taste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Price</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cultural values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Health benefits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Similarity of products</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Post-purchase</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Product satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeat purchase,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive marketing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Product dissatisfaction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change of shop</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative marketing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 47: The food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa

The figure above illustrates the food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. The model comprises of two parts. These include the factors that influence their food consumption behaviour, and the stages in their food decision-making process. As demonstrated in the diagram, the factors stimulate the food needs, choices and desires of the sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. When the needs, choices and desires are formed, sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa embark on a process to satisfy these needs and desires by implementing the five stages in the decision-making process.
However, it is important to note that the five stages of the food decision-making process may not be applicable in every purchase decision. Situations where sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa may not apply all the five stages in the food decision-making process include:

(a) When the immigrant is familiar with the product.

(b) When he/she is convinced that the product will fulfil his/her expectations; and-

(c) When there is scarcity of the product.

In these instances, the immigrant may decide to make a purchase decision without searching for information and evaluating available options.

A very significant finding of this research is the fact that South Africa’s leading supermarket chains have agreed to stock the cultural or indigenous products from other sub-Saharan African countries if the output of this study establishes a food consumption behaviour model of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa. In addition to the food consumption behaviour model (discussed in section two of this chapter) this study has also unveiled some salient features or guidelines about the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa and the sub-Saharan African indigenous foods industry. The researcher believes that it is worthy for South Africa’s leading supermarkets intending to invest in the sub-Saharan African immigrant market to also consider these features. Therefore, in the following section, the researcher presents these guidelines.

7.4 Section three: Guidelines for major supermarkets intending to invest in the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa

With the exception of Woolworths, South Africa’s leading supermarkets will consider investing in the sub-Saharan African immigrant market with the establishment of the food consumption behaviour model of the market (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.3). However, when thinking of how to put together a successful marketing and retail strategy aimed at the sub-Saharan African immigrant segment of the population of South Africa, South Africa’s major supermarkets must take the following into consideration:
a) The sub-Saharan African immigrant market for indigenous foods

b) The frequency of the consumption of indigenous foods

c) The current demand for indigenous foods

d) The monthly spend on indigenous foods

e) The preferred foods according to regions and countries

f) Shopping habits of the sub-Saharan African immigrant population

g) Challenges faced by ethnic entrepreneurs (supposed competitors)

h) The significance of ethnic retail shops and restaurants to sub-Saharan African immigrants

a) The sub-Saharan African immigrant market for indigenous foods market

According to a finding by the South African Institute of Race Relations, it is estimated that between five and ten million sub-Saharan African immigrants currently live in South Africa. In this study, 83% of the respondents reported that they would buy their cultural foods from supermarkets should supermarkets stock them. Therefore, assuming that the population of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa is 5,000,000 people and 83% of the population is interested in buying their indigenous foods at South African major supermarkets, South Africa’s major grocery retailers will be competing to cater for the cultural food needs of about 4,150,000 sub-Saharan African immigrants.

In the study, sub-Saharan African immigrants advanced numerous reasons for preferring supermarkets as a better option for their cultural foods. For example, an immigrant from Uganda said:

“I applaud ethnic retailers for their efforts in ensuring that we eat products from our countries in South Africa. However, should South African major grocers stock the products, I will definitely buy from them. In addition to the fact that I like to do all my

“
groceries under one roof, South Africa’s supermarkets are well established to stock fresh products of better quality, variety and at affordable prices since they buy in bulk. In addition, it is more convenient to buy at a supermarket and the level of customer service is more enhanced. An annoying part about ethnic retailers is that you have to carry cash with you at every visit since they do not accept credit and debit cards. In a situation where you do not have cash and you really need a product, you have to drive around looking for the nearest ATM.

Therefore, it is safe to conclude that the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants will buy their cultural products from South Africa’s major supermarkets if supermarkets stock them.

b) The frequency of the consumption of indigenous foods

In this study, it was found that the majority (55%) of sub-Saharan African immigrants consume cultural or indigenous foods in South Africa two to three times weekly. Also, 12% of the respondents remarked that they eat food from their countries daily. According to 8% of the respondents, they do so once a week; also, 8% of them eat cultural foods once a month; 5% of them do so when they feel like; 7% of the respondents only consume cultural foods at ethnic functions while 5% of them only have the opportunity to do so when visiting a friend. This study found that most sub-Saharan African immigrants will increase the frequency of consuming cultural foods if the prices are affordable, the quality of the products enhanced and the variety of stocks also increased.

c) The current demand for indigenous foods

In this study, it was uncovered that 71% of the respondents currently consume indigenous or cultural foods in South Africa. This is indicative of an increase in the demand for indigenous or cultural foods. The growing increase in demand is one of the motivational factors for immigrants to become ethnic food retailers. For instance the Proprietor of Grace Africa Supplies remarked that he has been in the trade for ten years and has never experienced a decrease in demand. Instead, the demand increases as the population increases despite an increase in the number of retailers. Grace Africa Supplies currently has three ethnic food retail stores in Cape Town. The company also
does wholesaling to other ethnic retailers. Also, Mercy reported that she least expected what she currently makes as revenue when she and her friends commenced the business. She pointed out that the turnover is very impressive and because of delays in supplies they always run out of stock on some of the cultural food products.

The study found that at the moment the main factor stimulating an increase in the demand for indigenous or cultural products is the growing rise in the population of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. However, most respondents remarked that they would obviously increase the frequency and quantity of consumption of cultural foods if the prices become affordable, if variety increases and the quality of the products is enhanced. Therefore, apart from the growth in the size of the population, other factors such as quality, price and assortment will play a very important role in further increasing the demand for sub-Saharan cultural food products in South Africa.

In the diagram below, the researcher has presented the food products sold at ethnic retailers as well as products that they would like the retailers to stock. It is important to note that sub-Saharan African immigrants are interested in seeing varieties of the different types of food products stocked by ethnic retailers. For instance the different types of cocoyams, cassava, plantains and beans.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Food product</th>
<th>Countries consumed</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Price sold at Ethnic Retailers</th>
<th>Demand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maize</td>
<td>Kenya, Tanzania, Somalia, Ethiopia, Uganda, Rwanda, Erithrea, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Niger, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togo, Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Gabon, Rwanda, DRC, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Zambia, and Zimbabwe</td>
<td>1 kg</td>
<td>R35.00</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweet potatoes</td>
<td>Kenya, Ethiopia, Uganda, Ghana, Sierra Leone, Burundi, Cameroon, Gabon, DRC, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, and Niger</td>
<td>A bag of 7kg</td>
<td>R60.00</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beans</td>
<td>Kenya, Tanzania, Somalia, beans Eritrea, Ghana, Nigeria, Senegal, Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Gabon, Rwanda, DRC, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, and Zimbabwe,</td>
<td>1 kg</td>
<td>R30.00</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nyama choma</td>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coconut</td>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>R15.00</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cabbage</td>
<td>Tanzania, Rwanda, Lesotho, and Zimbabwe</td>
<td>1 kg</td>
<td>R25.00</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item</td>
<td>Countries</td>
<td>Quantity</td>
<td>Price</td>
<td>Quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cassava</td>
<td>Tanzania, Ethiopia, Rwanda, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Nigeria, Niger, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togo, Angola, Botswana, Cameroon, Gabon, Burundi, DRC, Malawi, Mozambique, Zambia, and Uganda</td>
<td>1kg</td>
<td>R35.00</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groundnuts</td>
<td>Tanzania, Ethiopia, Uganda, Rwanda, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Nigeria, Senegal, Togo, Burundi, Gabon, DRC, Botswana, and Zimbabwe</td>
<td>500g</td>
<td>R25.00</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Millet</td>
<td>Tanzania, Somalia, Ivory Coast, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Togo, Angola, Rwanda, Botswana, Namibia</td>
<td>1kg</td>
<td>R3.00</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milk</td>
<td>Tanzania, Somalia, Ethiopia, Uganda, Rwanda, and Eritrea</td>
<td>500g</td>
<td>R25.00</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lamb beef</td>
<td>Tanzania, Eritrea, and Botswana,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not Available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sorghum</td>
<td>Tanzania, Somalia, Ethiopia, Uganda, Rwanda, Eritrea, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togo, Angola, Rwanda, Burundi, Cameroon, Gabon, DRC, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, and Namibia</td>
<td>500g</td>
<td>R35.00</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish (wet and smoked)</td>
<td>Tanzania, Ethiopia, Rwanda, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Niger, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Togo, Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Gabon, Rwanda, DRC, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Zambia, and Zimbabwe</td>
<td>500g</td>
<td>R30.00</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green banana</td>
<td>Tanzania, Somalia, Ethiopia, Uganda, Rwanda, Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Gabon, DRC, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Zambia, and Zimbabwe</td>
<td>1kg</td>
<td>R40.00</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plantains</td>
<td>Tanzania, Rwanda, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Togo, Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Rwanda and DRC</td>
<td>1kg</td>
<td>R45.00</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spinach</td>
<td>Tanzania, Lesotho,</td>
<td>1 bunch</td>
<td>R7.00</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>Somalia, Uganda, Rwanda, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Nigeria, Senegal, Angola, Burundi, Gabon, Rwanda, DRC, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Zambia and Zimbabwe</td>
<td>1kg</td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camel’s milk</td>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peas</td>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not Available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chicken</td>
<td>Somalia, Ethiopia, Rwanda, Ivory Coast, Niger, Togo, Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Gabon, Rwanda, Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Uganda and Niger</td>
<td>1kg</td>
<td>R35.00</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barley</td>
<td>Eritrea</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not Available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wheat</td>
<td>Uganda, Eritrea, Malawi, and Zambia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yam</td>
<td>Ethiopia, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Niger, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Togo, Angola, Cameroon, Gabon, Rwanda, and DRC</td>
<td>1kg</td>
<td>R30.00</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okra</td>
<td>Niger, Nigeria, Ghana, Sierra Leone, Cameroon, Gabon, DRC</td>
<td>500g</td>
<td>R20.00</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hot pepper</td>
<td>Ghana, Cameroon, Nigeria, DRC, Zambia, Mozambique, Sierra Leone</td>
<td>20g</td>
<td>R25.00</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palm oil</td>
<td>Ghana, Ivory Coast, Cameroon, Gabon, Rwanda, and DRC</td>
<td>1 Litre</td>
<td>R40.00</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coco yam</td>
<td>Ghana, Ivory Coast, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Angola, Cameroon, Gabon, DRC, and Niger</td>
<td>1kg</td>
<td>R35.00</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meat</td>
<td>Ghana, Ivory Coast, Niger, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Togo, Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Gabon, DRC, Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Zambia, and Zimbabwe</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not Available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eru</td>
<td>Cameroon, DRC, Nigeria, Gabon, Ivory Coast, and Ghana</td>
<td>1kg</td>
<td>R40.00</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Garri</td>
<td>DRC, Ghana, Cameroon, Nigeria, and Ivory Coast</td>
<td>500g</td>
<td>R50.00</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Game</td>
<td>Burundi, Gabon, and Cameroon</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not Available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mopanye worms</td>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not Available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masele</td>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not Available</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Cassava** is available in Tanzania, Ethiopia, Rwanda, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Nigeria, Niger, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togo, Angola, Botswana, Cameroon, Gabon, Burundi, DRC, Malawi, Mozambique, Zambia, and Uganda at a price of R35.00 per kilogram and is rated high in quality.
- **Groundnuts** are available in Tanzania, Ethiopia, Uganda, Rwanda, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Nigeria, Senegal, Togo, Burundi, Gabon, DRC, Botswana, and Zimbabwe at R25.00 per 500 grams, also high quality.
- **Millet** is available in Tanzania, Somalia, Ivory Coast, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Togo, Angola, Rwanda, Botswana, Namibia at R3.00 per kilogram, considered high quality.
- **Milk** is available in Tanzania, Somalia, Ethiopia, Uganda, Rwanda, and Eritrea at R25.00 per 500 grams, rated low in quality.
- **Lamb beef** is available in Tanzania, Eritrea, and Botswana, but not available.
- **Sorghum** is available in Tanzania, Somalia, Ethiopia, Uganda, Rwanda, Eritrea, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togo, Angola, Rwanda, Burundi, Cameroon, Gabon, DRC, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, and Namibia at R35.00 per 500 grams, rated moderate in quality.
- **Fish (wet and smoked)** is available in Tanzania, Ethiopia, Rwanda, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Niger, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Togo, Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Gabon, Rwanda, DRC, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Zambia, and Zimbabwe at R30.00 per 500 grams, high quality.
- **Green banana** is available in Tanzania, Somalia, Ethiopia, Uganda, Rwanda, Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Gabon, DRC, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, available at R40.00 per kilogram, moderate in quality.
- **Plantains** are available in Tanzania, Rwanda, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Togo, Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Rwanda, and DRC at R45.00 per kilogram, also moderate quality.
- **Spinach** is available in Tanzania, Lesotho, at R7.00 per bunch, low quality.
- **Rice** is available in Somalia, Uganda, Rwanda, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Nigeria, Senegal, Angola, Burundi, Gabon, Rwanda, DRC, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Zambia, and Zimbabwe at R15.00 per kilogram, high quality.
- **Camel’s milk** is available in Somalia, but not available elsewhere.
- **Peas** are not available in Rwanda.
- **Chicken** is available in Somalia, Ethiopia, Rwanda, Ivory Coast, Niger, Togo, Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Gabon, Rwanda, Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Uganda and Niger at R35.00 per kilogram, high quality.
- **Barley** is not available in Eritrea.
- **Wheat** is available in Uganda, Eritrea, Malawi, and Zambia, but not available.
- **Yam** is available in Ethiopia, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Niger, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Togo, Angola, Cameroon, Gabon, Rwanda, and DRC at R30.00 per kilogram, high quality.
- **Okra** is available in Niger, Nigeria, Ghana, Sierra Leone, Cameroon, Gabon, DRC at R20.00 per 500 grams, high quality.
- **Hot pepper** is available in Ghana, Cameroon, Nigeria, DRC, Zambia, Mozambique, Sierra Leone at R25.00 per 20 grams, high quality.
- **Palm oil** is available in Ghana, Ivory Coast, Cameroon, Gabon, Rwanda, and DRC at R40.00 per 1 litre, high quality.
- **Coco yam** is available in Ghana, Ivory Coast, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Angola, Cameroon, Gabon, DRC, and Niger at R35.00 per kilogram, high quality.
- **Meat** is available in Ghana, Ivory Coast, Niger, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Togo, Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Gabon, DRC, Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Zambia, and Zimbabwe but not available.
- **Eru** is available in Cameroon, DRC, Nigeria, Gabon, Ivory Coast, and Ghana at R40.00 per kilogram, high quality.
- **Garri** is available in DRC, Ghana, Cameroon, Nigeria, and Ivory Coast at R50.00 per 500 grams, high quality.
- **Game** is available in Burundi, Gabon, and Cameroon but not available.
- **Mopanye worms** are available in Botswana but not available.
- **Masele** is not available in Botswana.
d) Monthly spend on indigenous foods

According to the findings, all the respondents who consume cultural foods in South Africa spend between R500 and R1999. Thus the minimum spend of sub Saharan African immigrants in Africa on indigenous foods is R500 monthly. As indicated above (paragraph C) 71% of sub-Saharan African immigrants currently consume indigenous or cultural foods in South Africa. Assuming that 71% of the estimated 5,000,000 of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa spend a minimum of R500 monthly on cultural foods, South African major retailers will enjoy a minimum turnover of about R1.7 billion from their investments in the sub-Saharan African immigrant market.

However, it is important to mention that, the estimated turnover will obviously increase with increase in the population of sub-Saharan African immigrants. Also, the majority of the respondents reported that they will definitely increase their monthly spend and quantity of demand when prices of cultural food products become affordable, the quality of the products enhanced and the variety of stocks improved.

c) The preferred foods according to regions

Immigrants from all the four regions of sub-Saharan Africa could not resist the delight of listing the different types of cultural foods that they would like to see in South Africa’s leading supermarkets. It is important to highlight that some of these products are not currently stocked by ethnic retailers.
Immigrants from West Africa described their cultural foods as starchy and spicy. Their main dishes are fufu, kenkey, couscous, garri, foutou, and banku. Common staples include: yams, maize, cocoyams, cassava, plantains, green banana, sweet potato, millet, sorghum, rice and beans. Most recipes contain a mixture of fish, meat and vegetables.

Respondents from East Africa remarked that their cultural cuisine reflects the region’s Islamic cultural links. Prominent dishes include: ugali, injera, wat, sukumi wiki, and halva. Common staples in East Africa include: maize, millet, sorghum, green bananas, plantains, lentils, rice, pepper, cassava, sweet potato, beans and leafy vegetables such as spinach and cabbage. Meats include cattle, sheep and goats. Goat is rarely eaten because it is viewed as currency and wealth. Pork and non-fish seafood are avoided by Muslims.

The Central African cultural cuisine is much similar to that of West Africa. According to immigrants from Central Africa, it is also described as starchy and spicy. Dominant crops include: plantains, cassava, peanuts, pepper, cocoyam, rice, palm oil, potato, maize, sorghum, millet, green bananas and a variety of vegetables such as green, okra, and eru. Meats include beef, chicken, and sometimes, exotic meats called bush meat (antelope, warthog, and crocodile).

Immigrants from Southern Africa reported that their traditional cuisine is centred on meat. Common dishes include braai (barbecue meat), sadza, bogobe, pap (fermented cornmeal) and milk products (buttermilk, yoghurt). Crops utilised are sorghum, maize (corn), pumpkin beans, leafy greens (e.g. spinach and cabbage) potato, rice, cassava, banana and beans. Influences from the Indian and Malay community can be seen in the use of curries, sambals, pickled fish, fish stews, chutney, and samosa. European influences can be seen in cuisines like biltong (dried beef stripes), potjies (stews of maize, onions and tomatoes).

Sub-Saharan Africa is unique to many food products, many of which are found nowhere else in the world. Some of the crops common in most African countries include: cassava, plantains, yam, green bananas, millet, maize, sorghum, beans, potato, pepper and vegetables such as spinach and cabbage. Meats include: beef, game (bush meat) chicken and fish.
For supermarket chains intending to invest in the sub-Saharan African market, this information gives them an insight of the different cultural food needs of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa as well as their sources.

It is important to note that some of the products (rice, beans, potatoes, meat chicken and fish, spinach) listed above can be found in South Africa’s supermarkets but the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants prefer home grown ones, perceived to be healthier. Also they are of better quality and taste than local ones (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.3).

**f) Shopping habits of the sub-Saharan African immigrant population**

An important finding in this study is that though the sub-Saharan African market in South Africa may be sharing similar food needs, it is important to note that the market is not homogenous. However, this study has uncovered some common salient shopping traits that may be of tremendous help to major supermarkets when drafting marketing strategies to cater for the needs of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market. This study found that most sub-Saharan African immigrants will check prices, freshness, quality and service and then make a purchase decision based on the their cultural values. They also prefer their choice of foods to taste according to their cultural demands. Sub-Saharan African immigrants rate assortment, friendly staff, convenience, convenient location, clean stores, and discount stores as priorities in deciding where to shop.

**g) Challenges encountered by ethnic entrepreneurs**

Trading in cultural food products from sub-Saharan African countries in South Africa entails numerous challenges, which, according to this study, are important for South Africa’s leading supermarket chains to be aware of before investing in the sub-Saharan African immigrant market. If given adequate consideration, South Africa’s supermarket chains may devise appropriate measures to overcome the challenges prior to investing in the indigenous market.
A fundamental challenge faced by ethnic retailers is the task of travelling to different countries to acquire products. Respondents remarked that it involves time, huge expenses and difficulties in obtaining travel documents.

Also, according to ethnic entrepreneurs, at times, supplies are of very poor quality. This is because some of the suppliers hardly spend time and enough resources to enhance the quality of their produce. Also, it was found that some ethnic entrepreneurs lack the skills, resources and time to ensure the quality of products before purchase.

The difficulty of importing perishable cultural food products from other sub-Saharan African countries to South Africa is also one of the many challenges encountered by ethnic entrepreneurs. This is due to stringent government regulations regarding importation of perishable food products to South Africa. Also, the majority of ethnic entrepreneurs lack the resources required to import perishable cultural food products from other parts of Africa. As a result, stocks at ethnic retail shops are predominantly dry or ‘longstays’.

Finally, there is increasing competition among ethnic entrepreneurs for a larger market share. The cultural foods industry in South Africa has had a dramatic increase in the number of ethnic entrepreneurs over the years. This is due to the high level of unemployment in South Africa. In addition, the increasing number of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa has resulted in a high demand for indigenous or cultural food products. However, the prevailing competition in the indigenous or cultural foods industry has led to a reduction in the market share enjoyed by some of the ethnic entrepreneurs many years ago.

For South Africa’s leading supermarket chains intending to invest in the sub-Saharan African immigrants’ cultural foods industry, it is important to know who their competitors are and the level of competition in the industry. This will enable them to devise measures that may enable them to enjoy a competitive advantage (see appendix D; chapter 6, paragraph 6.4, Q4; Appendix D).
h) The significance of ethnic retail shops and restaurants

The majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa may be critical of ethnic entrepreneurs for poor quality products, high prices, limited variety of stocks and poor customer service, but loudly appreciate them for ensuring that cultural foods and non-food items from their countries of origin are accessible in South Africa. Sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa argued that by stocking cultural foods and non-food (e.g. clothing, jewellery, magazines, videos, and cultural artefacts) products from home, ethnic entrepreneurs make enormous contributions in enhancing their welfare in South Africa.

Also, most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa metaphorically have a feeling of home when visiting ethnic retail shops and restaurants. These immigrants are attracted to the friendly embrace of the shops created not only by the cultural stocks, but also by the multiple types of verbal lore that circulate within these shops. In fact, for most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, a visit to an ethnic shop instils a phenomenal sense of “going back home” and “Africaness”.

In addition, most sub-Sahara African immigrants in South Africa also consider ethnic retail shops as not only places to buy cultural food products from home but also as social hubs and a conduit of folklore. At ethnic retail shops and restaurants, the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa meet friends, relatives and other immigrants from their countries and their discussions focus on their experiences of local and indigenous or cultural foods in South Africa and other new world experiences.

For South Africa’s major retail chains intending to invest in the market, this information is of immense importance. It is important for leading South Africa’s major supermarket chains to acknowledge that investing in the sub-Saharan African immigrant market is not only a function of the cultural food products, but also a function of the perception of where the products are sold. Therefore, prior to designing cultural food products that may fulfil the cultural culinary needs of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, it is important for South Africa’s supermarket chains to understand not only the chemistry of the products but also the
psychology of the immigrants and the sociology of immigrant groups and networks (see chapter 6, paragraph 6.2.3; Appendix C).

7.5 Section four: Comparing the sub-Saharan African immigrant market to the South Asian in the U.K and the Hispanics in U.S

In this section, this study examines the similarities and differences between the Sub-Saharan African immigrant market and the South Asian market in the U.K as well as the Hispanics market in the U.S. The essence is for the readers of this work and South Africa’s supermarket chains in particular to have an understanding of the food consumption behaviour of other immigrant markets in the world and to have a picture of how supermarket chains in these countries respond to their cultural food needs. This may also enable South Africa’s major supermarkets to device sustainable measures to cater for the cultural food needs of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa.

a) Immigrants

Sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, the South Asians in the U.K and the Hispanics in the U.S are all immigrants who left their countries of origin due to various causes but mainly for economic reasons. Other causes responsible for the migration of these three groups of immigrants include conflicts, studies, natural disasters and employment.

b) Market potential

The growing increase in the population of these immigrants in their respective countries of reception presents an opportunity for increased sales for markets that cater for their shopping habits and cultural food needs and desires. They are a fast growing consumer segment in their host countries with increasing incomes to spend on foods. The purchasing power of these three groups of immigrants increases with increase in population. The importance of these groups of immigrants to the economies of their host countries presents a situation which cannot be overlooked by the governments of these countries, specialty retailers and the supermarket industry.
c) Not homogenous markets

Each of the markets may share similar needs but none of them is homogenous. Hispanics consumers include the Spanish speaking people from Spain, Mexico, the Caribbean Islands and Central and South America. South Asians are people from the Indian sub-continent primarily from India, Pakistan and Bangladesh while sub-Saharan African immigrants are people from Central, West, Southern and East Africa. Cultural foods play a very strong role in the cultures of these immigrant groups. As the population of the groups grows, the demand for ethnic or cultural foods also increases rapidly. The different cultures in the respective immigrant groups may have some similar needs and some cultural foods and flavours that may have a mass appeal throughout the market but each country of origin has distinctive cultural foods with differing tastes and preferences that need to be recognized.

d) The role of supermarkets

Major grocers in the countries hosting the three immigrant groups have recognized the growing potential of the respective immigrant markets. In the U.S, several major chains are expanding their specialty offerings to cater for the cultural food needs of the Hispanic immigrant group. These include international grocers such as Wal-Mart Inc and Fiesta Mart, Inc. In the U.K just like in South Africa, major grocers are yet to commit fully to catering for the cultural food needs of the respective South Asian and sub-Saharan African immigrant markets. However, to some extent the situation in the U.K is better than South Africa’s. In the U.K major supermarkets cater for just some of the cultural culinary needs of the South Asian market. In South Africa, the supermarket industry is yet to consider catering for the specific cultural food needs of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market. However, chains such as Shoprite Group Ltd and Spar Group Ltd stock products assumed to cater for the cultural food needs of the larger African market in South Africa.
e) Ethnic entrepreneurship

All three immigrant groups have a high propensity towards entrepreneurship and contribute positively to economic development. The propensity to enter the cultural foods sector and establish ethnic groceries and restaurants is common among the three immigrant groups. The feeling of nostalgia about home food resulting to and increase in demand for cultural foods and a desire to for self-employment are the main factors that motivate these immigrants to become entrepreneurs in the provision of immigrant cultural food needs. In the U.K for instance, South Asian retailers account for three quarters of all independently owned cultural foods retail outlets. South Asians in Britain have traditionally focused on sole trader retail, wholesale and restaurant sectors. In the U.S, though major grocers cater for the cultural food needs of the Hispanic market, ethnic retailing is also a major characteristic of the Hispanic market. Examples of ethnic retailers catering for the cultural food needs of the Hispanic market include Marty’s, Queso Blanco, Friljole s and David Bennett.

Equally in South Africa, the absence of sub-Saharan cultural foods in South Africa’s major supermarkets has made the sub-Saharan ethnic retail market a monopoly of ethnic entrepreneurs. Prominent ethnic grocers in the Western Cape such as Grace Africa Supplies, Lady Lydia, Mercy and Partners, and Fatima are making use of the growing purchasing power of sub-Saharan African immigrants to deeply invest in the industry.

f) Shopping and other traits

Sub-Saharan African immigrants, South Asians and Hispanics have similar shopping characteristics. These immigrants will check prices, freshness of products, service and assortment before making a purchase decision based on their predetermined benefits, and cultural values. They prefer cooking at home from scratch and spend more on groceries than other needs. Also, different cultures within the groups have different food preferences and their stores of choice include supermarkets and specialty stores. They also rate convenience, fresh and high quality fruits and vegetables, clean and neat stores, courteous and friendly employees, low prices and convenient location as priorities in deciding where to shop.
Also, the three immigrant groups prefer to be geographically concentrated; they live in tighter family units; and the more acculturated immigrants in these groups tend to purchase local or Western foods that require less preparation.

7.6 Summary of the chapter

In this chapter the researcher has discussed the findings of the study. Drawing from local and indigenous or cultural foods consumption behaviour of the sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, and guided by the universal consumer behaviour concept discussed in chapter three, the researcher has established a comprehensive food consumption behaviour model of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa. It should be noted that the essence is to enable South Africa’s supermarket chains to devise marketing strategies aimed at fulfilling the indigenous or cultural food needs of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

The food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants discussed in this chapter consists of two parts. These includes the factors that influence their food needs, choices and desires and the five stages in the food decision-making process of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

The factors that influence the food needs, choices and desires of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa are split into four groups. They are: demographic, personal, economic and social. The demographic factors include: gender, marital status, length of residency and level of education. The personal factors include: quality, price, taste, similarity of products, nutritional benefits, product assortment, service and proximity. The only economic factor is employment, while social factors such as culture, relationships with local South Africans, reference groups and family have also been portrayed to play a fundamental role in influencing the food consumption patterns of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

These factors are responsible for creating the food needs and desires of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. In the realization of the needs, choices and desires, sub-Saharan African immigrants embark on a decision-making process. It consists of five stages which include: need recognition, information search, the evaluation of alternatives, the purchase decision and post-purchase behaviour.
An important finding in this study is the fact that major supermarket chains in South Africa would consider stocking the cultural or indigenous food products from other sub-Saharan African countries with the establishment of a food consumption behaviour model of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa. Equally, the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants would buy their indigenous or cultural foods from major supermarket chains in South Africa, if they sell them. Therefore, in order to facilitate a smoother investment process in the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa, and to ensure that the cultural culinary needs of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa are adequately fulfilled, this study uncovered some salient features worthy to be considered (in combination with the model) by South Africa’s leading supermarket chains prior to investing in the sub-Saharan African immigrant market. These features include: the immigrants’ monthly spend on indigenous foods, their preferred indigenous foods, frequency of purchase, the current demand, the immigrants’ shopping traits, the challenges encountered by ethnic entrepreneurs and sub-Saharan African immigrants’ perceptions of ethnic retail shops and restaurants.

In the last section, the study looks at the similarities and differences between the sub-Saharan African immigrants, the South Asians in the U.K and the Hispanics in the U.S.

This study would be partly fulfilled without an overview of the main findings, a discussion on possible solutions to the problems encountered by ethnic entrepreneurs and possible recommendations for future research in the area of immigrant consumer behaviour. This embodies the discussions in the last chapter
CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

This study has established a food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa to enable South Africa’s leading supermarket chains to devise marketing strategies to cater for their indigenous food needs. It should be recalled that irrespective of the increasing sub-Saharan African immigrant population in South Africa, major supermarket chains such as Woolworths, Spar, Shoprite and Pick ‘n Pay are yet to cater for the indigenous or cultural food needs of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market as they do for immigrant groups from Europe, Asia, Australia, Canada, and America. It is important to note that though South Africa’s major supermarket chains acknowledge and appreciate the potential of the emerging sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa, they lack the knowledge and understanding of the consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in order to devise marketing measures to cater for their cultural food needs; hence the purpose of this study.

This chapter is a conclusion of the major findings of the research, culminating in the establishment of the food consumption behaviour model of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa. The major findings have been structured into five sections. Section one looks at immigration and adaptation to South African foods and consumption behaviour. The second section examines the major findings of the immigrants’ experiences and perceptions of South Africa’s major supermarket chains and ethnic entrepreneurs. In section three, the researcher presents some important guidelines that are necessary to be followed by South Africa’s major supermarket chains intending to invest in the sub-Saharan African market in South Africa. In section four, the researcher presents possible suggestions that can enable ethnic entrepreneurs to improve on their business operations. Finally, in section five, the researcher looks at the limitations of the study and suggestions of possible measures for future research on the subject.
8.2 Section one: Immigration and adaptation to South African foodways

a) Immigrating to South

Never has South Africa experienced such high level of immigrants from sub-Saharan Africa. Since the fall of apartheid, there has been a dramatic increase in the number of immigrants to South Africa from other sub-Saharan African countries such as the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Rwanda, Burundi, Cameroon, Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Eritrea, Ethiopia and Somalia, Cote d’Ivoire, Gabon, Ghana, Niger, Nigeria, Sierra Leone and Togo, Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

b) Sub-Saharan African immigrants’ adaption in South Africa

For the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants, the relative economic and political stability of South Africa makes it ideal for greener pastures and the enhancement of knowledge by benefiting from the country’s high quality educational system especially at the tertiary and graduate levels.

Upon arrival in South Africa, adapting to the shopping system, the foods and consumption behaviour of the host country are some of the major challenges encountered by sub-Saharan African immigrants. Most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa come from countries where grocery shopping is predominantly done in open market structures managed by local municipalities and not in supermarkets. Thus, in addition to adapting to the local food consumption behaviour and food products, sub-Saharan African immigrants also strive to learn how to buy food products in a supermarket.

8.3 The immigrants’ experiences and perceptions of South Africa’s major supermarket chains

a) Modifying food needs

Food products in South Africa are slightly similar to those in most sub-Saharan African countries and, as a result, they satisfy only some of the cultural expectations
of most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. This compels the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants to modify their cultural food needs to comply with available products in South Africa’s major supermarket chains.

**b) Why sub-Saharan African immigrants prefer supermarkets**

Sub-Saharan Africans in South Africa are patrons of all the major supermarket chains in South Africa, but for the majority of them, Shoprite is their preferred supermarket. Not only because Shoprite’s products are perceived to be cheaper, but because its products are believed to be of relatively better quality and somewhat culturally similar to those in the immigrants’ respective countries. Also, Shoprite’s stores are found in every immigrant community in South Africa; thus proximity to these stores enables sub-Saharan African immigrants to save travel costs by not travelling long distances to buy groceries. They also forgo the inconvenience of using a taxi or train to travel to distant shops for groceries.

**c) Immigrants’ monthly spend**

It was found that most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa visit their preferred supermarkets at least twice a week, spending at least R1000 monthly on groceries. This is reflective of the economic potential of the market, considering the size of the population.

**d) The absence of indigenous foods in supermarkets**

In a nutshell, though most sub-Saharan Africans feel concerned about the absence of indigenous or cultural foods in South Africa’s supermarkets, for the majority of them, their overall experiences and perceptions of major South Africa’s supermarkets is good.

Also, though the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa modify their cultural food needs to match available products in South Africa’s leading supermarkets, they also consume cultural food products from their countries of origin in South Africa. The following discussions look at major findings pertaining to the
indigenous or cultural foods consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

8.4 The immigrants’ experiences and perceptions of ethnic entrepreneurs

a) Sources of indigenous foods

The consumption of indigenous or cultural food products is a fundamental aspect of the food consumption behaviour of most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. In South Africa, sub-Saharan African immigrants obtain indigenous foods or cultural from friends and relatives visiting South Africa, ethnic retail shops and restaurants and at immigrant associations.

Compared to other sources of cultural foods in South Africa, the number of sub-Saharan African immigrants making use of friends and relatives visiting South Africa is slightly more. This is not surprising considering the high level of migration from other sub-Saharan African countries to South Africa. However, irrespective of the slight increase in the number of sub-Saharan African immigrants making use of friends and relatives to South Africa as a source of their cultural foods, ethnic entrepreneurs play a profound role in the welfare of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

b) The importance of ethnic entrepreneurs

In contemporary South Africa, ethnic entrepreneurs are a characteristic feature in sub-Saharan African immigrant communities in towns and cities. In addition to providing cultural food and non-food products from other sub-Saharan African countries, ethnic retail shops and restaurants also serve as social hubs for most sub-Saharan African immigrants. At these shops, immigrants meet friends and other members from their countries where a good part of their visit is spent discussing issues affecting their lives in South Africa as well as developments back home. It is important to note that most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa perceive a visit to ethnic shops and restaurants as a visit back home. This is because, in addition to meeting people from their countries, the structure, design, layout, decoration and music in the shops gives the immigrants a reflection of the nature of shops back home.
It is also important to mention that the food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, as set out in this study is a product of a combination of their local and cultural foods consumption behaviour. Therefore, in the next section, the researcher presents an overview of the food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

8.5 Section two: Achieving the purpose of the study

As highlighted in the introduction of this chapter, the purpose of this study is to create a food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, in order to enable South Africa’s major retail chains to devise marketing strategies tailored towards catering for the indigenous or cultural food needs of such immigrant customers.

In order to achieve the purpose of the study, the researcher crafted a methodological framework based on interviews and a questionnaire survey with sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. Interviews were also conducted with executives of leading supermarket chains and ethnic entrepreneurs. It is important to remark that executives of leading South African supermarket chains and proprietors of ethnic enterprises who participated in the study unleashed ingredients that greatly assisted in the construction of the food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

It is hard not to mention the impact of secondary sources in the realisation of the purpose of this study. In the course of the study, the researcher reviewed a rich collection of contemporary secondary literature in the area of research, which greatly assisted him in designing the background, aims, conceptual framework and the methodological approach of the study.

The methodological framework was centred on an insightful exploration of the local and indigenous foods consumption behaviours of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, resulting in the food consumption behaviour model discussed in chapter seven of this study. It is worthy to note that the universal consumer behaviour concept discussed in chapter three of this study served as the foundation for the construction of the food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in
South Africa. In accordance with the concept, the researcher has split the model into two parts. Part one looks at the factors that influence the food needs, choices and desires of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa while part two explores the food decision-making process of the immigrants.

8.5.1 The main findings of the factors that influence the food needs, choices and desires of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa

The factors that influence the food needs, choices and desires of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market in South Africa have been examined in four categories. These include: demography, personal, economic and social.

8.5.1.1. The impact of demographic factors

The demographic factors include: gender, marital status, education and duration of residency,

(a) Gender: Most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa are males. They make more use of ethnic restaurants and shop less at supermarkets and ethnic retail food shops than females.

(b) Marital Status: The majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa are singles. They spend less on food than married and cohabiting immigrants. They are also more loyal to ethnic restaurants. Married immigrants (especially wives) consume more cultural foods and also ensure that the cultural food needs of their family members are considered during grocery shopping.

(c) Duration of residency: The majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa have lived in the country for three or more years. These immigrants have familiarised themselves well with local foods and consumption patterns. They have also incorporated some local foods and consumption ways in their food consumption behaviour. Those who have lived in South Africa for fewer than three years are still familiarising themselves with local foods and consumption behaviour; as a result, they consume more of their cultural foods.
(d) **Education:** The majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa are well educated. Most of them have studied beyond high school education. However, no specific food consumption behaviours are characteristics of their academic qualifications. In other words, the market can not be segmented on the basis of their academic qualifications. However, the wealth of cultural knowledge acquired from home plays a very significant role in their food consumption behaviour in South Africa.

### 8.5.1.2 The impact of personal factors

The personal factors that influence sub-Saharan African immigrants’ food consumption behaviour in South Africa include: quality, taste, price, similarity of product, assortment, proximity, service, and nutritional benefits.

(a) **Quality:** Unlike culture (argued by most consumer behaviour authors), quality is a primary factor influencing the food consumption behaviour of almost every sub-Saharan African immigrant in South Africa. Quality does not only determine the food choices of the immigrants but also their choice of supermarket. It also explains why most sub-Saharan African immigrants want to buy their cultural foods from supermarkets since according to them; products stocked by ethnic entrepreneurs are of sub-standard quality.

(b) **Taste:** Taste also occupies a central position in the consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. Taste is used as a device to compare the level of similarity between local and cultural food products. It is also used to measure the quality of cultural foods at ethnic retail shops and restaurants.

(c) **Price:** Most sub-Saharan African immigrants strive to acquire value for what they spend on foods by visiting different supermarkets and ethnic shops to compare the prices of food products. Price also accounts for one of the reasons why Shoprite is the preferred supermarket for the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa and also why they would prefer to buy their indigenous or cultural foods from supermarkets, should the products be available at supermarkets. Most sub-Saharan African immigrants believe that the prices of cultural foods are not affordable.
(d) **Similarity:** Comparing the level of similarity between local and home or cultural products at supermarkets is also a very important criterion in the consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. It is important to note that most local products are strange to the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants. Therefore, evaluating the level of similarity between local and cultural foodstuffs gives them an idea of what to buy in accordance with their expectations.

(e) **Assortment:** Back home, sub-Saharan African immigrants are exposed to a wide variety of food products to choose from. They expect a similar experience in South Africa especially at ethnic retail shops. Ethnic entrepreneurs are perceived to stock a limited variety of indigenous or cultural food products. This also accounts for one of the reasons why most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa would patronise supermarkets, should they invest in the cultural foods from other sub-Saharan African countries.

(f) **Proximity:** Most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa also prefer to shop nearby. According to the majority of them, it saves travel costs and the inconvenience of travelling by train or taxi to distant places for groceries. The presence of Shoprite stores in immigrant communities also explains why most sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa prefer to shop at Shoprite.

(g) **Service:** Customer service oriented shops are also a huge attraction to most sub-Saharan African immigrants. The majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa are not comfortable with the level of service at many ethnic restaurants and retail shops. For most of them, supermarkets are more service oriented; hence they would buy their cultural foods from supermarkets if they sell them.

(h) **Nutritional benefits:** Nutrition also accounts for one of the reasons why sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa prefer indigenous or cultural to local foods. For the majority of them, local foods are genetically modified to feed the large South African market; hence they are considered to be less healthy than indigenous or cultural foods. Also, patrons of Woolworths and Pick ‘n Pay believe that these chains stock products that are organic.
8.5.1.3 The economic factor

Sub-Saharan African immigrants are employed in a variety of industries but the majority of them are self-employed. Self-employed immigrants and those who earn a higher hourly wage spend more on food products monthly than unemployed immigrants and those who earn lesser wages per hour.

8.5.1.4 Social factors

The social factors that influence the consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants include: culture, family, reference groups and relationships with South Africans.

(a) **Culture:** It is also one of the most important factors that influence the consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. The majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants believe that the consumption of food products based on their cultural values communicates symbolic messages and also enforces their cultural heritages.

(b) **Families:** The influence of family on the food consumption behaviour of immigrants cannot be overemphasized. Immigrants with families strongly consider the cultural food needs of their family members when making purchases. In some cases, certain family members also play an important role in the food decision-making process.

(c) **Reference groups:** Immigrant associations are very influential reference groups in the food consumption pattern of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. For instance, in addition to consuming cultural foods at cultural meetings, immigrants receive orientations on the importance and significance of enforcing their cultural values through the consumption of indigenous or cultural foods. They also acquire information about the different types of cultural foods and where to source them.

The factors discussed above largely influence the food consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa, in that they determine the food needs, choices and desires of the immigrants. However, behind the visible act of making a
purchase to fulfil their needs and desires, lies a decision-making process followed by sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. In the following paragraph, the researcher looks at the stages of the food decision-making process of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

**8.6 Main findings of the food decision-making process of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa**

The food decision-making process of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa consists of five stages. These include: need recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase decision and post-purchase behaviour.

(a) *Need Recognition:* In addition to the need to satisfy hunger, sub-Saharan African immigrants strive to derive immense satisfaction from consuming cultural food products. They also consume food to sustain their cultural heritages, for nutritional values, to be identified, and to sustain relationships with local South Africans.

(b) *Information search:* Sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa obtain information about various food options (local and cultural) and where to buy them from friends and relatives, immigrant cultural associations, ethnic retail shops and the media.

(c) *Evaluation of alternatives:* Prior to making a purchase, available food options are evaluated according to the following criteria: quality, taste, price, culture, assortment, similarity of local to home products, nutritional benefits and service.

(d) *Purchase decision:* When a food product is perceived to fulfill the immigrant’s expectations, which to a large extent are culturally based, he or she makes a decision to buy the product. Immigrants with families may involve family members or strongly consider their cultural food needs in their purchase decision.

(e) *Post-purchase behaviour:* Sub-Saharan African immigrants feel delighted when a food product satisfies their cultural and other expectations. In this
case, they continue to buy from the shop and also recommend the shop and the products to others. On the contrary, sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa feel dissatisfied when a product fails to satisfy their cultural and expectations. While some immigrants give the shop another chance for improvement, most immigrants prefer to switch to other shops. They would also not recommend the shop or the products to others.

The food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants discussed in section two of this chapter could enable South Africa’s leading supermarket chains to establish marketing strategies in order to cater for the indigenous or cultural food needs of the immigrants. However, in order to ensure a smoother entry into the market, this study uncovered some salient guidelines that should be considered by South Africa’s leading supermarkets intending to invest in the sub-Saharan African immigrant market. In section three of this chapter the researcher presents the guidelines.

8.7 Section three: Recommended guidelines for South Africa’s leading supermarket chains interested in the sub-Saharan African immigrant market

In addition to the sub-Saharan African immigrant food consumption behaviour model, this study argues that, it is imperative for South Africa’s leading supermarket chains to also consider some important features of the consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants and the indigenous or cultural foods industry, prior to investing in the market. This will enhance their understanding and also enable a smoother entry into the market. These features include:

a) Demand for indigenous or cultural foods: Leading supermarket chains (Shoprite and Spar) in South Africa have committed to invest in the specific cultural food needs of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market with the creation of a comprehensive food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. In the same vein, the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants have committed to buy their indigenous or cultural foods from leading supermarket chains should these supermarkets invest in their needs. The majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants believe that the weaknesses of ethnic entrepreneurs, such as poor quality products,
limited product assortments, high prices and poor services, can be comfortably addressed by South Africa’s leading supermarket chains. According to most sub-Saharan African immigrants, South Africa’s leading supermarket chains have the passion, commitment, resources and expertise to meet their expectations of indigenous or cultural foods.

b) *Indigenous or cultural foods monthly spend:* Though the exact figure is unknown, it is estimated that between five to ten million sub-Saharan African immigrants live in South Africa and according to this study, the majority of them spend between R500 and R999 on cultural foods monthly. This researcher believes that this information will enable interested leading supermarket chains to have an indication of the expected returns prior to investing in the market.

c) *Preferred indigenous or cultural products:* The majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants would like leading supermarkets to stock the following staples: yams, maize, cocoyams, cassava, plantains, green banana, sweet potato, millet, sorghum, rice, beans, leafy vegetables, spinach, cabbage, palm oil, green okra, eru, pap, and chicken, fish and meat. It is important to note that some of these products can be found in South Africa’s major supermarkets but sub-Saharan African immigrants prefer those from their countries of origin; perceived to be of better quality and taste and are healthier. For South Africa’s leading supermarket chains, this information gives them an idea of the specific food needs of the sub-Saharan African immigrant market.

d) *Shopping habits of the sub-Saharan African market:* This study found that most sub-Saharan African immigrants will check prices, freshness, quality and service and then make a purchase decision based on their cultural values. They also prefer their choice of foods to taste according to their cultural demands. Sub-Saharan African immigrants rate assortment, friendly staff, convenience, convenient location, clean stores and discount stores as priorities in deciding where to shop.

e) *Frequency of indigenous foods consumption:* This study found that most sub-Saharan African immigrants consume cultural foods two or three times a
week. It was also found that the frequency of consumption of most of the immigrants will increase if the prices become affordable, if there is increased variety and the quality of the products gets better.

f) **Challenges encountered by ethnic entrepreneurs:** Ethnic entrepreneurs encounter many challenges in their pursuit to ensure that sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa enjoy food products from their countries of origin. These challenges include: difficulties in obtaining travel documents of supply countries, poor quality supplies, insufficient supplies, inability to import perishable foods due to administrative and financial reasons, lack of resources to increase assortments and intense competition in the indigenous or cultural foods industry. This information may enable South Africa’s leading supermarket chains to establish measures to overcome these challenges prior to investing in the market.

(a) **The value of ethnic retail shops and restaurants:** The weaknesses of ethnic entrepreneurs have compelled the majority of sub-Saharan African immigrants to view South Africa’s leading supermarket chains as a better option for the purchase of indigenous or cultural foods. However, ethnic retail shops and restaurants are a central force in the welfare of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. In addition to the provision of cultural foods and non-food products from their countries of origin, ethnic enterprises also serve as a social hub for most sub-Saharan African immigrants. For the majority of them, visiting an ethnic shop metaphorically means visiting home. This is because the layout, design and music in the shops are a reflection of their home countries. Thus, South Africa’s leading supermarket chains intending to invest in the sub-Saharan African immigrant market, should also consider the immigrants’ perception of the place of purchase of indigenous foods.

In this study, sub-Saharan African immigrants have expressed concerns about the quality, prices and variety of the products stocked by ethnic entrepreneurs. They are also concerned about the level of customer service at ethnic retail shops and restaurants. Equally, ethnic entrepreneurs encounter numerous challenges in their business operations. Therefore, in the following section, the researcher presents possible suggestions on how ethnic entrepreneurs can improve on the concerns of sub-
Saharan African immigrants in South Africa as well as overcome the challenges encountered in their business operations.

8.8 Section four: Recommendations for ethnic entrepreneurs to overcome the challenges in the indigenous foods industry

The emergence of the indigenous or cultural foods industry has largely been applauded by sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. However, concerns about the quality of products, limited product variety, high prices and poor service standards may cause a significant drop in the market share of ethnic retailers if South Africa’s leading supermarket chains invest in the sub-Saharan African cultural or indigenous foods market. Equally, ethnic entrepreneurs need to establish measures to overcome other challenges in the industry such as acquisition of poor quality cultural food supplies, inability to import perishable cultural foods and the fierce competition that reigns among them. This study recommends the following measures to enable sub-Saharan African ethnic entrepreneurs to overcome the challenges faced in the industry.

Firstly, ethnic entrepreneurs should exert larger amounts of resources, efforts and time to ensure that the quality of their cultural food products meet the expectations of the market. They should also set quality guidelines for their suppliers. These guidelines should align with both the expectations of the consumers as well as the expectations of the industry.

Also, ethnic businesses should ensure that there is a wide variety of cultural food products for consumers to choose from. This can be done by investing more resources in their businesses and by expanding their number of suppliers. Also, in order to ensure an increase in supplies, ethnic entrepreneurs may provide financial and technical assistance to the suppliers.

In addition, ethnic retailers should endeavour to ensure that the prices of their cultural stocks are affordable. This can be done by cutting costs in unnecessary areas of their operations, by negotiating better prices with suppliers and by buying cultural food stocks in large quantities.
Furthermore, ethnic entrepreneurs should be customer service oriented. In order to improve the standards of their services, ethnic entrepreneurs should provide training in customer service to their employees, conduct customer feedback surveys and to provide sustainable solutions to customer complaints, suggestions and recommendations.

Finally, in order to overcome the fierce competition that reigns in the industry, ethnic entrepreneurs must strive towards enjoying a competitive advantage over their competitors. This can be done by enhancing the quality and variety of their cultural products, selling at affordable prices and ensuring a customer service culture in all their business operations.

Like every research project, this researcher encountered a number of challenges in the course of the research. In the following section, the researcher has discussed the challenges. The researcher has also suggested possible solutions that may enable future studies in the area to overcome the challenges.

8.9 Section five: Recommendations for future research

Every study, no matter how well it is conducted, has some limitations. In this section of the chapter, the researcher discusses the limitations of this study and also recommends possible measures for future studies to mitigate them.

An important challenge in this study was the inability of Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) of leading supermarket chains in South Africa to meet with the researcher for an interview. Without undermining the participation and contributions of the executives designated by these supermarket chains to meet with the researcher, the researcher feels that it is important for CEOs of leading South African supermarket chains to play a role in research projects that relate to their business operations since very important decisions about their businesses emanates from their offices.

Secondly, Pick ‘n Pay Holdings Ltd, one of South Africa’s major supermarket chains declined to participate in the study, irrespective of numerous attempts made by the researcher to get them involved. As an important player in the South African retail
industry, it is also imperative for Pick ‘n Pay to participate and contribute to the enhancement of knowledge in the industry.

Also, a few ethnic entrepreneurs did not honour appointments made with the researcher. The researcher suggests that in future, ethnic entrepreneurs should make known any changes that may obstruct them from respecting an appointment. In this case, the appointment may be rescheduled or cancelled.

In addition, some respondents in the study had difficulties understanding the English language. The researcher recommends that future researchers should make prior arrangements for interpreters before embarking on a study of the sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa.

Finally, a number of immigrants either declined to participate, or only partly participated in the study. Some of them were simply not interested while others were scared of being victimised. Prior to an interview, it is important for future researchers to explain the purpose of the study in detail and even present a document from the university that authorises the study or a student card to convince the respondents of the academic purpose of the research. Also, researchers should broaden the sample population of the study as much as possible in order to compensate for those who decide not to participate.

This chapter concludes the thesis, the purpose of which was to establish a food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa in order for South Africa’s major supermarket chains to cater for their indigenous food or cultural food needs. This chapter has looked at immigration and adaptation to the cultural foods and consumption behaviour of South Africa. It has also examined the major findings in the indigenous foods consumption behaviour of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa. Most importantly, the food consumption behaviour model of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa has been discussed. The researcher has also provided important guidelines that should not be left aside by South Africa’s major supermarket chains intending to invest in the sub-Saharan African immigrant market. Further more, the researcher has provided possible solutions to enable ethnic entrepreneurs to overcome their weaknesses and challenges in the indigenous or cultural foods industry, and finally, based on the
limitations encountered in the course of the research the researcher has also suggested possible solutions for future researchers in the area of study to overcome the challenges.

It is important to note that the findings of this study are not far from the researcher’s personal experiences, observations and perceptions of supermarket chains in South Africa and ethnic entrepreneurs. As discussed in chapter 1, one of the researcher’s motivations for the study was the fact that as a fervent consumer of cultural foods, his experiences at ethnic retail shops have not been encouraging. The researcher strongly believes that should supermarkets stock food products from sub-Saharan Africa, most of the shortcomings of ethnic retailers will be avoided. It is evident that supermarkets are committed to excellence in quality and service as well as variety. Also their prices will be much cheaper than ethnic retailers. It will also enable ethnic retailers to improve on the quality and variety of their stocks, their prices as well as service levels. This researcher hopes that this study will serve as an important resource document for South Africa’s supermarkets to invest in the sub-Saharan African immigrant market.
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APPENDICES
APPENDIX A: STATISTICAL DATA ANALYSIS

Two statistical methods have been used to analyze the data in this study. These include:

k) Frequency percentage: a way to express a number as a fraction of 100. It has been used in the study to explain the difference between variables.

Formula: $\frac{y}{u} \times 100$

$y =$ frequency
$u =$ total number of respondents

b) Chi square statistic: used to investigate whether distributions of categorical variables differ from one another.

$X^2 = \sum \frac{(o-e)^2}{e}$

Where
$O$ is the observed frequency in each category
$E$ is the expected frequency in the corresponding category is the sum of
$Df$ is the “degree of freedom” (n-1)
$X^2$ is chi square

Probability level (alpha)

Table 46: Chi Square distribution table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Df</th>
<th>0.5</th>
<th>0.10</th>
<th>0.05</th>
<th>0.02</th>
<th>0.01</th>
<th>0.001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.455</td>
<td>2.706</td>
<td>3.841</td>
<td>5.412</td>
<td>6.635</td>
<td>10.827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.386</td>
<td>4.605</td>
<td>5.991</td>
<td>7.824</td>
<td>9.210</td>
<td>13.815</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Question 1: What is your country of origin?**

As indicated earlier, 409 respondents took in the study from 26 Sub-Saharan African countries. The countries have been grouped according to the four regions that make up Sub-Saharan Africa.

**a) Frequency percentage**

Southern Africa: 111/409x100 = 27%
Central Africa: 107/409X100 = 26%
West Africa: 100/409X 100 = 24%
East Africa: 91/409X100 = 21%

**b) Test of significance**

\[ X^2 = \frac{(111-102.25)^2}{102.25} + \frac{(107-102.25)^2}{102.25} + \frac{(100-102.25)^2}{102.25} + \frac{(91-102.25)^2}{102.25} \]

\[ X^2 = 0.75 + 0.22 + 0.05 + 1.25 = 2.27 \]

Df= 3

Probability = 0.5 < p < 0.10

X² is less than the critical value for probability 0.05 (7.815). This implies that there is no difference in regional representation of the respondents.

**Question 2. What gender are you?**

**a) Frequency percentage**

Males: 237/409x100 = 58%
Females: 172/409x100 = 42%

**b) Test of significance**

\[ X^2 = \frac{(237-204.5)^2}{204.5} + \frac{(172-204.5)^2}{204.5} \]

\[ X^2 = 5.17 + 5.17 = 10.34 \]

Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 2-1=1

The probability (P) = 0.001
Since the $X^2$ statistic (10.34) exceeds the critical value for 0.05 probability level (3.841) we can reject the null hypothesis of equal distributions.

**Question 3. What is your marital status?**

**a)** Frequency percentage

Married: $\frac{114}{409}\times 100 = 28\%$

Single: $\frac{243}{409}\times 100 = 59\%$

Cohabitants: $\frac{52}{409}\times 100 = 13\%$

**b)** Test of significance

\[
X^2 = \frac{(144-136.33)^2}{136.33} + \frac{(243-136.33)^2}{136.33} + \frac{(52-136.33)^2}{136.33} \\
X^2 = 0.47 + 83.46 + 52.16 = 136.09 \\
Degrees \ of \ freedom = (n-1) \ ie \ 3-1=2 \\
The \ chi \ square \ value \ (136.09) \ is \ greater \ than \ 5.991 \ (for \ alpha = 0.05) \\
Therefore \ since \ the \ X^2 \ statistic \ 136.09 \ is \ greater \ than \ 5.991 (for \ alpha = 0.05) \ the \\
study \ rejects \ the \ null \ hypothesis.
\]

**Question 4. What is your highest level of education?**

**a)** Frequency percentage

High school: $\frac{156}{409}\times 100 = 38\%$

College qualification: $\frac{115}{409}\times 100 = 28\%$

Bachelor’s: $\frac{96}{409}\times 100 = 23\%$

Master’s: $\frac{42}{409}\times 100 = 10\%$

**b)** Test of Significance

\[
X^2 = \frac{(156-102.25)^2}{102.25} + \frac{(115-102.25)^2}{102.25} + \frac{(96-102.25)^2}{102.25} + \frac{(42-102.25)^2}{102.25} \\
X^2 = 28.25 + 1.59 + 0.38 + 35.5 = 65.72 \\
Degrees \ of \ freedom = (n-1) \ ie \ 4-1=3 \\
The \ chi \ square \ value \ (65.72) \ is \ greater \ than \ the \ 7.815 \ (for \ alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the $X^2$ statistic 65.72 is greater than 7.815 (for alpha = 0.05) the study rejects the null hypothesis.

**Question 5. What is your occupation?**

**a) Frequency percentage**

- Professionals: $21 / 409 \times 100 = 5\%$
- Businessmen: $125 / 409 \times 100 = 31\%$
- Students: $71 / 409 \times 100 = 17\%$
- Skilled workers: $101 / 409 \times 100 = 25\%$
- Unskilled worker: $91 / 409 \times 100 = 22\%$

**b) Test of significance**

$$X^2 = (21-81.8)^2/81.8 + (125-81.8)^2/81.8 + (71-81.8)^2/81.8 + (101-81.8)^2/81.8 + (91-81.8)^2/81.8$$

$$X^2 = 45.19 + 22.81 + 1.43 + 4.51 + 1.03 = 74.97$$

Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 5-1=4

The chi square value (74.97) is greater than the 9.488 (for alpha = 0.05)

Therefore since the $X^2$ statistic 74.97 is greater than 9.488(for alpha = 0.05) the study rejects the null hypothesis.

**Question 6. Please state the reason for leaving your country of origin?**

**a) Frequency percentage**

- Studies: $88 / 409 \times 100 = 22\%$
- Greener pastures: $265 / 409 \times 100 = 65\%$
- Employment: $17 / 409 \times 100 = 4\%$
- Civil unrest: $39 / 409 \times 100 = 9\%$

**b) Test of significance**

Question 7. How long have you lived in South Africa?

a) Frequency percentage

Less than a year: \(\frac{21}{409} \times 100 = 5\%\)
One year: \(\frac{65}{409} \times 100 = 16\%\)
Two years: \(\frac{81}{409} \times 100 = 20\%\)
Three years or more: \(\frac{242}{409} \times 100 = 59\%\)

b) Test of significance

\[ X^2 = 64.56 + 13.57 + 4.42 + 191 + 273.55 \]
Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 4-1=3
The chi square value (273.55) is greater than 7.815 (for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the \(X^2\) statistic 273.55 is greater than 7.815 (for alpha = 0.05) the study rejects the null hypothesis.

Section Two: Respondents’ consumption behaviour of South African food products

Question 8. Which supermarket is your preferred supermarket?

a) Frequency percentage

Shoprite = \(\frac{216}{409} \times 100 = 53\%\)
Pick ‘n Pay = \(\frac{75}{409} \times 100 = 18\%\)
Checkers = \(\frac{55}{409} \times 100 = 13\%\)
Spar = \(\frac{40}{409} \times 100 = 9\%\)
Woolworths = \(\frac{31}{409} \times 100 = 7\%\)
b) Test of significance

\[ X^2 = (216-81.8)^2/81.8 + (75-81.8)^2/81.8 + (55-81.8)^2/81.8 + (40-81.8)^2/81.8 + (31-81.8)^2/81.8 \]

\[ X^2 = 220.17 + 0.57 + 8.78 + 21.36 + 31.55 = 282.43 \]

Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 5-1=4

The chi square value (282.43) is greater than the 7.815 (for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the \( X^2 \) statistic 273.55 is greater than 11.070 (for alpha = 0.05) the study rejects the null hypothesis.

**Question 9. How Many times do you visit your preferred supermarket weekly?**

a) Frequency percentage

One time: 120 /409 x 100 = 29%
Two times: 209 / 409 x 100 = 51%
Three times: 55 / 409 x 100 = 13%
Four or more: 25 / 409 x 100= 6%

b) Test of significance

\[ X^2 = (120-102.25)^2/102.25 + (209-102.25)^2/102.25 + (55-102.25)^2/102.25 \\
(25-102.25)^2/102.25 \]

\[ X^2 = 3.08 + 111.45 + 21.83 + 58.36 = 194.72 \]

Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 4-1=3

The chi square value (194.72) is greater than 7.815 (for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the \( X^2 \) statistic (194.72) is greater than 7.815 (for alpha = 0.05) the study rejects the null hypothesis.

**Question 10. What factors influence your choice of food products?**

Price

a) Frequency percentage

Agree: 376 /409 x 100= 92%
Disagree: 33 /409 x 100= 8%
b) Test of significance

\[ X^2 = \frac{(376-204.5)^2}{204.5} + \frac{(33-204.5)^2}{204.5} \]

\[ X^2 = 143.83 + 143.83 = 287.66 \]

Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 2-1=1

The chi square value (287.66) is greater than 3.841 (for alpha = 0.05)

Therefore since the \( X^2 \) statistic (287.66) is greater than 3.841 (for alpha = 0.05) the study rejects the null hypothesis.

Similarity of products to those in your home country

a) Frequency percentage

Agree: \( \frac{297 \times 100}{409} = 72\% \)
Unable to judge: \( \frac{31 \times 100}{409} = 8\% \)
Disagree: \( \frac{80 \times 100}{409} = 20\% \)

b) Test of significance

\[ X^2 = \frac{(298-136.33)^2}{136.33} + \frac{(31-136.33)^2}{136.33} + \frac{(80-136.33)^2}{136.33} \]

\[ X^2 = 191.72 + 81.38 + 23.27 = 296.37 \]

Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 3-1=2

The chi square value (296.37) is greater than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05)

Therefore since the \( X^2 \) statistic (296.37) is greater than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05) the study rejects the null hypothesis.

Quality

a) Frequency percentage

Agree: \( \frac{403 \times 100}{409} = 99\% \)
Unable to judge: \( \frac{6 \times 100}{409} = 1\% \)
b) Test of significance

\[ X^2 = \frac{(403-204.5)^2}{204.5} + \frac{(6-204.5)^2}{204.5} \]
\[ X^2 = 192.68 + 192.68 = 385.36 \]
Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 2-1=1
The chi square value (385.36) is greater than 3.841(for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the \( X^2 \) statistic (385.36) is greater than 3.841 (for alpha = 0.05)
the study rejects the null hypothesis

Dietary needs

a) Frequency percentage

Agree: \( \frac{234}{409} \times 100 = 57\% \)
Unable to judge: \( \frac{57}{409} \times 100 = 14\% \)
Disagree: \( \frac{118}{409} \times 100 = 29\% \)

b) Test of significance

\[ X^2 = \frac{(234-136.33)^2}{136.33} + \frac{(57-136.33)^2}{136.33} + \frac{(188-136.33)^2}{136.33} \]
\[ X^2 = 69.97 + 46.16 + 19.58 = 135.71 \]
Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 3-1=2
The chi square value (135.71) is greater than 5.991(for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the \( X^2 \) statistic (135.71) is greater than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05)
the study rejects the null hypothesis

Location of the shop

a) Frequency percentage

Agree: \( \frac{225}{409} \times 100 = 79\% \)
Unable to judge: \( \frac{18}{409} \times 100 = 4\% \)
Disagree: \( \frac{66}{409} \times 100 = 17\% \)
b) Test of significance

\[ X^2 = \left(\frac{325-136.33}{136.33}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{18-136.33}{136.33}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{66-136.33}{136.33}\right)^2 \]
\[ X^2 = 261.10 + 102.71 + 36.28 = 400.9 \]

Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 3-1=2

The chi square value (400.9) is greater than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the \(X^2\) statistic (400.9) is greater than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05) the study rejects the null hypothesis

Culture

a) Frequency percentage

Agree: \(\frac{334}{409} \times 100 = 82\%\)
Unable to judge: \(\frac{13}{409} \times 100 = 3\%\)
Disagree: \(\frac{65}{409} \times 100 = 65\%\)

b) Test of significance

\[ X^2 = \left(\frac{334-136.33}{136.33}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{13-136.33}{136.33}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{65-136.33}{136.33}\right)^2 \]
\[ X^2 = 286.61 + 111.57 + 37.32 = 435.5 \]

Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 3-1=2

The chi square value (435.5) is greater than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the \(X^2\) statistic (435.5) is greater than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05) the study rejects the null hypothesis

Taste

a) Frequency percentage

Agree: \(\frac{392}{409} \times 100 = 96\%\)
Unable to judge: \(\frac{17}{409} \times 100 = 4\%\)

b) Test of significance

\[ X^2 = \left(\frac{392-204.5}{204.5}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{17-204.5}{204.5}\right)^2 \]
\[ X^2 = 171.91 + 171.91 = 343.82 \]
Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 2-1=1
The chi square value (343.82) is greater than 3.841 (for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the $X^2$ statistic (343.82) is greater than 3.841 (for alpha = 0.05)
the study rejects the null hypothesis

**Question 11. In your opinion, are food products in your preferred supermarket similar to those in your country of origin?**

a) Frequency percentage

Similar: $\frac{89}{409} \times 100 = 21\%$
Some what similar: $\frac{211}{409} \times 100 = 53\%$
Not at all: $\frac{109}{409} \times 100 = 26\%$

b) Test of significance

$X^2 = \frac{(89-136.33)^2}{136.33} + \frac{(211-136.33)^2}{136.33} + \frac{(109-136.33)^2}{136.33}$
$X^2 = 16.43 + 40.89 + 5.48 = 62.8$

Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 3-1=2
The chi square value (62.8) is greater than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the $X^2$ statistic (62.8) is greater than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05) the study rejects the null hypothesis

**Question 12. In your opinion, do you feel your preferred supermarket satisfies the benefits you desire from your choice of food products?**

a) Frequency percentage

Most: $\frac{98}{409} \times 100 = 24\%$
Some: $\frac{286}{409} \times 100 = 70\%$
Not at all: $\frac{25}{409} \times 100 = 6\%$

b) Test of significance

$X^2 = \frac{(98-136.33)^2}{136.33} + \frac{(286-136.33)^2}{136.33} + \frac{(25-136.33)^2}{136.33}$
$X^2 = 10.78 + 164.32 + 90.91 = 266.01$

Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 3-1=2
The chi square value (266.01) is greater than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the $X^2$ statistic (266.01) is greater than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05) the study rejects the null hypothesis.

**Question 13. You feel worried because you don’t find food products from your country of origin in South African Supermarkets.**

a) **Frequency percentage**

Worried: $273/409 \times 100 = 67\%$
Unable to judge: $4/409 \times 100 = 1\%$
Not Worried: $132/409 \times 100 = 32\%$

b) **Test of significance**

$$X^2 = \frac{(273-136.33)^2}{136.33} + \frac{(4-136.33)^2}{136.33} + \frac{(132 + 136.33)^2}{136.33}$$

$$X^2 = 74.34 + 128.45 + 0.14 = 202.93$$

Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 3-1=2

The chi square value (202.93) is greater than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the $X^2$ statistic (266.01) is greater than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05) the study reject

**Question 14. To what extent have you modified your food needs to suit or match what is available in South African supermarkets?**

a) **Frequency percentage**

Large extent: $274/409 \times 100 = 67\%$
Small extent: $89/409 \times 100 = 22\%$
Not at all: $46/409 \times 100 = 11\%$

b) **Test of significance**

$$X^2 = \frac{(274-136.33)^2}{136.33} + \frac{(89-136.33)^2}{136.33} + \frac{(46-136.33)^2}{136.33}$$

$$X^2 = 139.02 + 16.43 + 59.85 = 215.3$$

Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 3-1=2

The chi square value (215.3) is greater than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the X² statistic (215.3) is greater than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05) the study rejects the null hypothesis

**Question 15. What is your monthly food spend on local foods?**

a) **Frequency percentage**

- R 500- R999: 57 / 409 x 100 = 14%
- R1000-R1999: 279 / 409 x 100 = 68%
- R2000- R2999: 57 / 409 x 100 = 14%
- R3000- R3999: 16 / 409 x 100 = 4%

b) **Test of significance**

\[ X^2 = \frac{(57 - 102.25)^2}{102.25} + \frac{(279 - 102.25)^2}{102.25} + \frac{(57 - 102.25)^2}{102.25} + \frac{(16 - 102.25)^2}{102.25} \]

\[ X^2 = 20.03 + 305.53 + 20.03 + 0.71 = 346.3 \]

Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 4-1=3
The chi square value (346.3) is greater than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the X² statistic (346.3) is greater than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05) the study rejects the null hypothesis

**Question 16. Overall, how would you rate your experience at your preferred supermarket?**

a) **Frequency percentage**

- Excellent: 116 / 409 x 100 = 28%
- Good: 219 / 409 x 100 = 54%
- Average: 68 / 409 x 100 = 17%
- Poor: 6 / 409 / x 100 = 1%

b) **Test of significance**

\[ X^2 = \frac{(116-102.25)^2}{102.25} + \frac{(219-102.25)^2}{102.25} + \frac{(68-102.25)^2}{102.25} + \frac{(6-102.25)^2}{102.25} \]

\[ X^2 = 1.85 + 133.31 + 11.47 + 90.6 = 237.23 \]
Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 4-1=3
The chi square value (237.23) is greater than 7.815 (for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the $X^2$ statistic (237.23) is greater than 7.815 (for alpha = 0.05)
the study rejects the null hypothesis.

Section Three: Respondents’ consumption behaviour of indigenous foods

Question 17. In South Africa, do you also eat food from your country of origin?

a) Frequency percentage

Yes: 289 / 409 x 100 = 71%
No: 120 / 409 x 100 = 29%

b) Test of significance

$X^2 = (289-204.5)^2/204.5 + (120-204.5)^2/204.5$
$X^2 = 34.92 + 34.92 = 69.84$

Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 2-1=1
The chi square value (69.84) is greater than 3.841 (for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the $X^2$ statistic (69.84) is greater than 3.841(for alpha = 0.05) the study rejects the null hypothesis

Question 18. If yes, how often

a) Frequency percentage

Daily 26/220 x100 = 26%
Once a week: 17/220x100=8%
2-3times a week: 121/220x100=55%
Once a month: 17/220x100=8%
When I feel like: 12/220x100=5%
Only at ethnic gatherings:15/220x100=7%
Only when I visit a friend: 12/220x100=5%
b) Test of significance

\[ X^2 = \frac{(26-220)^2}{220} + \frac{(17-220)^2}{220} + \frac{(121-220)^2}{220} + \frac{(17-220)^2}{220} + \frac{(12-220)^2}{220} + \frac{(15-220)^2}{220} + \frac{(12-220)^2}{220} \]

\[ X^2 = 171.07 + 187.31 + 44.55 + 187.31 + 196.65 + 191.02 + 196.65 = 1174.56 \]

Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 7-1=6
The chi square value (1174.56) is greater than 11.070 (for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore the study rejects the null hypothesis

Question 19. In South Africa, where do you get food from your country?

a) Frequency percentage

1) Immigrant retailers:
   Yes: \( \frac{220}{409} \times 100 = 54\% \)
   No: \( \frac{198}{409} \times 100 = 46\% \)

2) Immigrant restaurants:
   Yes: \( \frac{195}{409} \times 100 = 48\% \)
   No: \( \frac{214}{409} \times 100 = 52\% \)

3) Friends and relatives visiting South Africa:
   Yes: \( \frac{226}{409} \times 100 = 55\% \)
   No: \( \frac{183}{409} \times 100 = 45\% \)

b) Test of significance

\[ X^2 = \frac{(220-220)^2}{220} + \frac{(195-220)^2}{220} + \frac{(226-220)^2}{220} + \frac{(226-220)^2}{220} \]

\[ X^2 = 0 + 2.84 + 0.16 = 3 \]

Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 3-1=2
The chi square value (3) is lesser than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the \( X^2 \) statistic (3) is lesser than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05) the study accepts the null hypothesis
Question 20. Please rate your experience at immigrant retail shops and restaurants on the following.

Product quality

a) Frequency percentage

Excellent: 13/220 x 100 = 5%
Good: 90/220 x 100 = 41%
Average: 102/220 x 100 = 46%
Poor: 15/220 x 100 = 7%

b) Test of significance

\[ X^2 = \frac{(13-55)^2}{55} + \frac{(90-55)^2}{55} + \frac{(102-55)^2}{55} + \frac{(15-55)^2}{55} \]
\[ X^2 = 32.07 + 22.27 + 40.16 + 29.09 = 123.59 \]
Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 4-1=3
The chi square value (123.59) is greater than 7.815 (for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the \( X^2 \) statistic (123.59) is greater than 7.815 (for alpha = 0.05)
the study rejects the null hypothesis

Level of service

a) Frequency percentage

Excellent: 12/220 x 100 = 5%
Good: 55/220 x 100 = 25%
Average: 115/220 x 100 = 52%
Poor: 38/220 x 100 = 17%

b) Test of significance

\[ X^2 = \frac{(12-55)^2}{55} + \frac{(55-55)^2}{55} + \frac{(115-55)^2}{55} + \frac{(38-55)^2}{55} \]
\[ X^2 = 33.62 + 0 + 65.45 + 5.25 = 104.32 \]
Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 4-1=3
The chi square value (104.32) is greater than 7.815 (for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the \( X^2 \) statistic (104.32) is greater than 7.815 (for alpha = 0.05)
the study rejects the null hypothesis
Product assortment

a) Frequency percentage

Excellent: $15 / 220 \times 100 = 7\%$
Good: $69 / 220 \times 100 = 31\%$
Average: $104 / 220 \times 100 = 47\%$
Poor: $32 / 220 \times 100 = 15\%$

b) Test of significance

$$X^2 = \frac{(15-55)^2}{55} + \frac{(69-55)^2}{55} + \frac{(104-55)^2}{55} + \frac{(32-55)^2}{55}$$

$$X^2 = 29.09 + 3.56 + 43.65 + 9.61 = 85.91$$

Degrees of freedom = $(n-1) = 4-1 = 3$

The chi square value (85.91) is greater than 7.815 (for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the $X^2$ statistic (85.91) is greater than 7.815 (for alpha = 0.05) the study rejects the null hypothesis.

**Question 21. Do you feel that the prices of products at immigrant retail shops and restaurants are affordable?**

a) Frequency percentage

Yes: $22 / 220 \times 100 = 10\%$
Unable to judge: $26 / 220 \times 100$
No: $172 / 220 \times 100$

b) Test of significance

$$X^2 = \frac{(22-73.33)^2}{73.33} + \frac{(26-73.33)^2}{73.33} + \frac{(172-73.33)^2}{73.33}$$

$$X^2 = 35.93 + 30.54 + 132.77 + 199.24$$

Degrees of freedom = $(n-1) = 3-1 = 2$

The chi square value (199.24) is greater than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the $X^2$ statistic (199.24) is greater than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05) the study rejects the null hypothesis.
**Question 22. What do you spend on indigenous foods monthly?**

a) Frequency percentage

R500-R999: 157 / 220 x 100 = 71%
R1000-R1999: 63 / 220 x 100 = 29%

b) Test of significance

\[ X^2 = \frac{(157-110)^2}{110} + \frac{(63-110)^2}{110} \]
\[ X^2 = 20.08 + 20.08 = 40.16 \]

Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 2-1=1

The chi square value (40.16) is greater than 3.841 (for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the X² statistic (40.16) is greater than 3.841 (for alpha = 0.05) the study rejects the null hypothesis

**Question 23. At an immigrant retail shop or restaurant I feel like I am in my country.**

a) Frequency percentage

Yes: 190 / 220 x 100 = 84%
No: 30 / 220 x 100 = 14%

b) Test of significance

\[ X^2 = \frac{(190-110)^2}{110} + \frac{(30-110)^2}{110} \]
\[ X^2 = 58.18 + 58.18 + 116.36 \]

Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 2-1=1

The chi square value (116.36) is greater than 3.841 (for alpha = 0.05)
Therefore since the X² statistic (116.36) is greater than 3.841 (for alpha = 0.05) the study rejects the null hypothesis

**Question 24. Will you buy from supermarkets should they sell food products from your country of origin?**
a) **Frequency percentage**

Yes: $\frac{339}{409} \times 100 = 83\%$

Unable to judge: $\frac{28}{409} \times 100 = 7\%$

No: $\frac{42}{409} \times 100 = 10\%$

b) **Test of significance**

\[
\]

\[
X^2 = 301.29 + 86.08 + 65.26 = 452.63
\]

Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 3-1=2

The chi square value (452.63) is greater than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05)

Therefore since the $X^2$ statistic (452.63) is greater than 5.991 (for alpha = 0.05) the study rejects the null hypothesis.

---

**Question 25. Generally when a product does not satisfy my expectations I switch to another shop**

a) **Frequency percentage**

Yes: $\frac{256}{409} \times 100 = 62\%$

No: $\frac{153}{409} \times 100 = 38\%$

b) **Test of significance**

\[
X^2 = (256 - 204.5)^2 / 204.5 + (153 - 204.5)^2 / 204.5
\]

\[
X^2 = 12.97 + 12.97 = 25.94
\]

Degrees of freedom = (n-1) ie 2-1=1

The chi square value (25.94) is greater than 3.841 (for alpha = 0.05)

Therefore since the $X^2$ statistic (25.94) is greater than 3.841(for alpha = 0.05) the study rejects the null hypothesis.
Question 26. My South African friend or partner impacts my consumption behaviour by encouraging me to eat traditional South African foods

a) Frequency percentage

Yes: \( \frac{99}{409} \times 100 = 24\% \)
No: \( \frac{310}{409} \times 100 = 76\% \)

b) Test of significance

\[
X^2 = \frac{(99-204.5)^2}{204.5} + \frac{(310-204.5)^2}{204.5}
\]
\[
X^2 = 54.24 + 54.24 = 108.48
\]

Degrees of freedom = \( (n-1) \) ie 2-1=1

The chi square value (108.48) is greater than 3.841 (for alpha = 0.05)

Therefore since the \( X^2 \) statistic (108.48) is greater than 3.841(for alpha = 0.05) the study rejects the null hypothesis
APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SUB-SAHARAN AFRICAN IMMIGRANTS

Part 1: The demographic profile of the respondents

1. Which African country do you come from?

2. What gender are you?
   □ Male    □ Female

3. What is your marital status?
   □ Single    □ Married    □ Cohabiting

4. What is your highest level of education?
   □ High school certificate
   □ College certificate
   □ Diploma
   □ Bachelor’s
   □ Master’s
   □ Doctorate

5. What is your occupation?

6. Please state the reason (s) for leaving your country of origin?
   □ Search for better living conditions (Greener pastures)
   □ Employment
   □ Political instability
   □ Studies
   □ Natural disaster

7. How long have you lived in South Africa?
   □ One year
   □ Two years
   □ Three years
   □ Four or more

Part 2: Consumption behaviour of local foods

8. Which of the following supermarkets is your preferred supermarket? (you may tick more than one)
   □ Shoprite
   □ Pick ‘n Pay
   □ Checkers
   □ Woolworths
   □ Spar
9. How Many times do you visit your preferred supermarket weekly?
- One time
- Two times
- Three times
- Four or more

10. The following factors influence my choice of food products:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Unable to judge</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Similarity of products to those in their country of origin</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dietary needs</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location of the shop</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taste</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. In your opinion, are food products in your preferred supermarket similar to those in your country of origin?
- Very similar
- Similar
- Some what similar
- Not at all

12. In your opinion, do you feel your preferred supermarket satisfies the benefits you desire from your choice of food products?
- All
- A lot
- Some
- Just a little
- Not at all

13. You feel worried because you don’t find food products from your country of origin in South African supermarkets.
- Strongly agree
- Agree
- Unable to judge
- Disagree
- Strongly disagree

14. To what extent have you modified your food needs to suit or match what is available in South African supermarkets?
- Very large extent
- Large extent
- Small extent
- Very small extent
- Not at all

15. What is your monthly food spend on local foods?
- R500- R999
- R1000- 1999
- R2000- 2999
- R3000 or more
16. Overall, how would you rate your experience at your preferred supermarket?
   - Excellent
   - Good
   - Average
   - Poor
   - Unable to judge

**Part 3: Respondents’ consumption behaviour of indigenous foods**

17. In South Africa, do you also eat food from your country of origin?
   - Yes
   - No

18. If yes how often
   - Daily
   - Once a week:
   - 2-3 times a week
   - Once a month
   - When I feel like
   - Only at ethnic gatherings
   - Only when I visit a friend

19. In South Africa, where do you get food from your country?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From immigrant food retailers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From immigrant restaurants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From friends and relatives coming to South Africa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20. Please rate your experience at immigrant retail shops and restaurants on the following criteria:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Excellent</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Poor</th>
<th>Unable to judge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality of products</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Service</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product assortment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

21. Do you feel that the prices of products at immigrant retail shops and restaurants are affordable?
   - Yes
   - No

22. What do you spend on indigenous foods monthly?
   - R500- R999
   - R1000- 1999
   - R2000- 2999
R3000 or more

23. At an immigrant retail shop or restaurant I feel like I am in my country.
   □ Yes □ No

24. Will you buy from supermarkets should they sell food products from your country of origin?
   □ Yes □ No

25. Please state some of the products from your country that you would want South African major supermarkets to sell

   ……………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………

26. Friends, relatives and neighbours from my country play a very important role in providing information about immigrant shops and restaurants and their products.
   □ Yes □ No

27. Generally when a product does not satisfy my expectations I switch to another shop.
   □ Yes □ No

28. My South African friend or partner impacts my consumption behaviour by encouraging me to eat traditional South African foods
   □ Yes □ No

END
APPENDIX C: CASE STUDY OF AN IMMIGRANT’S FOOD CONSUMPTION BEHAVIOUR

Mrs Elena has lived in South Africa since 2004. She comes from the Republic of Cameroon. She is also married to a Cameroonian and they have two kids. Mrs Elena has a Bachelor’s degree in hospitality management from the Cape Peninsula University of Technology. She currently reads for a Master’s degree at the same university. She also works as a Floor Manager at a restaurant in the Waterfront in Cape Town.

On arrival in South Africa, she was faced with the challenge of making food choices at South Africa’s supermarkets, since most of the products were new to her. In addition, Mrs Elena had to learn how to make purchases of food products in supermarkets. In Cameroon, the supermarket industry is still very under developed. The majority of the people in Cameroon do their groceries in open market structures managed by the local municipality.

Learning how to shop in South African supermarkets was relatively simpler than making food choices. This is because she endeavours to ensure that the products are similar to those at home. She also ensures that the products are of good quality, taste, affordable, and culturally valuable. She predominantly shops at a Shoprite store close to where she lives. She also believes that the products in her preferred supermarket are somewhat similar to those at home, relatively better in terms of quality and cheaper than stocks in other supermarkets. At times, she also shops at Pick ‘n Pay stores when a desired product is not available in her preferred supermarket.

Mrs Elena also prepares indigenous foods for her family. She gets her indigenous foods from friends and relatives coming to South Africa, ethnic entrepreneurs and at cultural events. Friends and relatives are vital sources of information to Mrs Elena with regards to indigenous foods. She also gets information from the many ethnic shops in Maitland (where she lives) and also from her cultural association. She gets information about local products from friends and the media (Print and TV).

Her family spends between R2500 and R3000 every month on food of which R1000 is spent on indigenous foods. She strives to ensure that her groceries are in line with
the needs of her family. On special occasions, she prepares special traditional meals to sustain the happiness and social bond within her family and also to enforce her cultural heritage.

Mrs Elena enjoys visiting ethnic retail shops and restaurants not just for food products but also for non-food products from Cameroon. Also, at ethnic shops she enjoys meeting friends from Cameroon where they share information about developments in South Africa and back home as well as information about indigenous foodstuffs.

In Mrs Elena’s opinion, ethnic shops have to improve on the quality, assortment and prices of their products. She also feels that the service level at a number of ethnic restaurants and retail shops in Cape Town requires a lot of improvement. As a result she would prefer to buy her indigenous foods at supermarkets should they sell them since according to her, the quality, price, taste and variety of the stocks will be much better than that of ethnic entrepreneurs.

Mrs Elena’s expectations of her food choices are enormous. As a result, she feels very happy when her food choices fulfil her needs and those of her family. She continues to patronise the shop and recommends the products and the shop to her friends and relatives. On the other hand, she feels very unhappy and dissatisfied when a food product does not fulfil her expectations and those of her family members. She refrains from patronising the shop. Also, she never recommends the product and the shop to her friends and relatives.
APPENDIX D: CASE STUDY OF ETHNIC ENTREPRENEURS

Case 1: Mr John Omadia

Mr. John Omadia is originally from Nigeria. He owns an indigenous food retail shop and an ethnic restaurant in Maitland. He has been in the business for seven years. He came to South Africa in 2000 to improve on his standards of living and those of his family and relatives back home. Six months after arrival in South Africa he found his first job as a waiter. He later discovered that there was a huge demand for indigenous foods from the increasing sub-Saharan African immigrant population in the Western Cape. With some savings and financial and material assistance from friends and relatives, he decided to join other immigrants in the business of indigenous foods.

His supplies come from Cameroon, Nigeria, the DRC and Ghana. Though his supplies come from only four countries, his business caters for immigrants from a broad range of African countries including South Africans.

His business has been very successful despite the increasing competition that has to some extent reduced his market share. He also encounters other challenges such as the inability to import perishable products because of the cost involved and sub-standard and/or limited stocks from suppliers.

Case 2: Fatima

Fatima owns a restaurant called Fatima Restaurant at Greenmarket Square in Cape Town. She comes from Senegal. She has lived in South Africa for ten years and has been in business since 2004. Fatima was inspired by the need to cater for immigrant crafters at Greenmarket who, hitherto, relied on takeaways for lunch. Though her primary clients are Senegalese, she also takes care of the needs of Africans from many different countries including South Africans.

Her stocks come from Senegal, Nigeria, South Africa, DRC and Cameroon. Fatima has enjoyed an enormous amount of success over the years due to the high demand from the immigrant population especially crafters at the Greenmarket. She feels so proud of what she does; primarily because she makes a contribution in catering for the needs of sub-Saharan African immigrants in South Africa and also because she has
succeeded to create employment for herself and five other immigrants in South Africa (a country where scarcity of employment gets higher everyday).

Fatima would like to expand to other parts of the province but her only limitation is insufficient stocks. According to her, stocks take very long to come from supply countries. In addition, she can’t rely on stocks from ethnic food retailers since, according to her, ethnic food retailers are expensive.