Cape Peninsula
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USE OF FOOD-BUYING PRACTICES WITHIN DIFFERENT SOCIO-ECONOMIC CLASSES IN THE CITY OF CAPE TOWN

by

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DECLARATION

I, Crystal Harper, hereby declare that the contents of this thesis represent my own unaided work, and that the thesis has not previously been submitted for academic examination towards any qualification. Furthermore, it represents my own opinions and not necessarily those of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

_____ _____

Signed **Date**

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

There is no conflict of interest in this study. This is an institutional study with no involvement from the researcher's employer in terms of planning, execution, funding and reporting of the research as it was completed independent from the researcher's employer.

The financial assistance of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT) towards this research is acknowledged. Opinions expressed in this thesis and the conclusions arrived at, are those of the researcher and are not necessarily to be attributed to CPUT.

SUMMARY

Consumer debt has escalated in South Africa ever since the country sank into a recession in early 2009. One of the many consequences of this economic downturn has been a major increase in energy, transport and food prices. Food-buying strategies can be used by consumers to help to reduce the amount of money, which is spent on food, and increase funds that are available for other household expenses. The main objective of this study was to determine the use of four pre-selected food-buying practices by consumers who reside in different socio-economic status (SES) areas in the City of Cape Town. Residents of lower SES areas have been found to have purchasing patterns that are different to those who live in higher SES areas. The subsidiary objectives were to further establish whether there is a difference in the use of food-buying practices by consumers who reside in different SES areas, and to ascertain whether shopper and demographical characteristics have an influence on the use of food-buying practices among consumers in general as well as among consumers within the same SES area.

A consumer intercept survey was conducted after being granted ethics approval. Three groups of respondents that represent a low, middle and high SES area were systematically sampled. A total of 1 200 consumers (95% response rate) who are older than 18 years anonymously and voluntarily participated in the study, which was conducted at pre-selected stores in the suburban areas of Delft (low SES area), Maitland (middle SES area) and Meadowridge (high SES area) in the City of Cape Town. These areas and stores were selected to represent the SES of households or consumers, respectively, based on the demographic and employment profile that was provided for each by Statistics South Africa's 2001's census profiles.

The data was collected by using a pilot tested structured, self-administered questionnaire consisting of mainly multiple-choice questions, which gathered information from the respondents regarding their shopper and demographic characteristics, as well as their frequency of use of the four food-buying practices (represented by six structured questions each) as: (i) use of a shopping list; (ii) use of advertisements to plan shopping; (iii) comparison of prices amongst different brands; and (iv) avoidance of impulse buying. These food-buying practices were selected based on available consumer education literature, which focused on the use of these food-buying practices and a pilot study that was conducted in 2011, which indicated that these four practices were most frequently used by the consumers who were surveyed. Within each SES area most of the Cronbach's alpha coefficients that were obtained were >0.9 among the six questions, which represented each food-buying practice, and reflected strong internal consistencies among the questions. The Generalised Linear Model analysis of variance utilising the Wald statistic, which is based on the chi-

square distribution and Bonferroni pair-wise comparisons, were used to determine significant differences between respondents' use of the food-buying practices and their SES area group, as well as their shopper and demographic characteristics. A significant level of $p<0.001$, as well as $p<0.05$ was used.

Most (60 to 80%) of the respondents in each SES area are female. Within the total sample, low and middle SES areas a majority (62 to 73%) of the respondents were between 26 to 55 years of age, whereas in the high SES area a majority (63.5%) of the respondents were 46 years and older. In general, more than half (52 to 56%) of the respondents were married and most (38 to 55%) were employed full-time and had household sizes, which mainly (18 to 23%) consist of two to four members. Regarding highest level of education attained, most of the respondents in the total sample either had a Grade 8 to 11 (37.6%) or a Grade 12 (24.7%), whereas most (54%) respondents in the high SES had either acquired a post-matric diploma or certificate, degree or post-graduate degree. Most (67 to 89 %) of the respondents within the total sample, middle and low SES area associated themselves with the Coloured population group, whereas most (56.7%) of the respondents in the high SES area associated themselves with the White population group. Concerning household monthly income, two thirds (65%) of the respondents within the high SES area had an income of R12 801 upward; most (77.5%) of the respondents within the middle SES area had an income of R801 to R12 800 per month; and more than half (57%) of the respondents in the low SES area received an income of R800 to R3 200 per month.

In general, most respondents indicated that they shopped for food once a week (33 to 48%); took less than half an hour to shop for food (40 to 52%); and usually shopped alone for food (68.9%). Cash was the most prevalent means of payment among respondents within the total sample (66.7%), middle (70.5%) and low (93%) SES areas, while most (43.2%) respondents in the high SES area paid by means of a debit card.

Among the respondents who reside in the different SES suburban areas, differences in the use of food-buying practices were revealed. Respondents within the high ($p<0.001$) and middle ($p<0.05$) SES areas displayed a higher propensity to use a shopping list, yet a lower propensity to use advertisements compared to respondents within the low SES area. Respondents within the low and particularly middle SES area displayed a higher propensity to compare prices ($p<0.05$) compared to respondents within the high SES area. No differences ($p>0.05$) for the avoidance of impulse buying as a food-buying practice were found among respondents within a low, middle and high SES area. A largely low propensity to avoid impulse buying was found.

Regarding shopper characteristics, the respondent payment method influenced the use of a shopping list ($p<0.05$), use of advertisements ($p<0.05$ and $p<0.001$ between the payment

methods) and propensity to avoid impulse buying ($p<0.05$) as food-buying practices within the low SES area. Among respondents, in general, the payment method influenced the avoidance of impulse buying ($p<0.05$) as a food-buying practice. The length of time that it took to shop influenced the use of a shopping list ($p<0.05$) as a food-buying practice within the low SES area and the propensity to compare prices of different brands ($p<0.05$) as a food-buying practice within the middle SES area. Shopping frequency influenced the use of advertisements ($p<0.05$) as a food buying practice within the low SES area and co-shopping influenced the propensity to avoid impulse buying ($p<0.05$ and $p<0.001$ between the various co-shoppers) as a food-buying practice within the low SES area, as well as the propensity to use advertisements ($p<0.05$) as a food-buying practice within the high SES area.

Gender influenced the use of a shopping list ($p<0.05$) as a food-buying practice within the high SES area and the use of advertisements ($p<0.05$), as well as the propensity to avoid impulse buying ($p<0.001$) as food-buying practices within the middle SES area. Gender also affected the propensity to compare the prices of different brands ($p<0.05$) as a food-buying practice within the low SES area and among respondents, in general, the propensity to avoid impulse buying ($p<0.05$), as well as the use of advertisements ($p<0.001$) as food-buying practices. Employment status affected the use of a shopping list ($p<0.05$) as a food-buying practice within the high SES area. Population group affected the propensity to use advertisements as a food-buying practice within the low SES area ($p<0.05$ and $p<0.001$ between the population groups) and among the respondents, in general, ($p<0.05$). Household monthly income affected the propensity to compare the prices of different brands ($p<0.05$) as a food-buying practice within the high SES area. Among the respondents, in general, household monthly income affected the propensity to compare the prices of different brands ($p<0.05$ and $p<0.001$ between the income groups) and the use of advertisements ($p<0.05$) as food-buying practices.

The study confirmed that there are differences in the use of food-buying practices among consumers who reside in different SES areas, and further identified specific shopper and demographic characteristics that have an effect on consumers' (in general, as well as within the same SES area) use of food-buying practices. Since food-buying practices can be used by consumers to manage their household income expenditure on food, consumer awareness of these practices, in particular the avoidance of impulse buying should be promoted through educational efforts ideally by food retail companies. These companies have the resources and capability to communicate with consumers regularly (while shopping in-store), and can inform their customers about food-buying practices that would help them to save money and/or make additional funds available for other essential household expenses.

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CLARIFICATION OF BASIC TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Consumer	The individual who buys or acquires goods and services for personal use or consumption (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:147).
Consumer/Buyer behaviour	Consumer or buyer behaviour focuses on how individuals make decisions to spend their available resources (money, time, effort) on products and services that they expect will satisfy their needs (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:3).
Economic environment	Factors that affect consumer purchasing power and spending patterns (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:90).
Food-buying practices	Food-buying practices are food shopping guidelines, most frequently cited in consumer education textbooks. These guidelines or practices are aimed at reducing food costs, increasing satisfaction with food choices, and improving dietary quality (Friedman & Rees, 1988:284; Herrmann & Warland, 1990:307).
Grocery store	A store selling foodstuffs and various household supplies (American Heritage, 2000).
Household	A household consists of a single person, a family or any group of unrelated persons who occupy a housing unit (Stanton, Etzel, Walker, Abratt, Pitt & Staude, 1992:144).
Personal disposable income	Personal disposable income (PDI) indicates the aggregate amount which households can spend or save after direct income tax has been deducted (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2003:417).
Private/household consumption expenditure	Private consumption expenditure (PCE) is the aggregate amount spent by all households on all consumer goods and services, excluding land and housing (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:138).
Recession	A recession is two or more consecutive quarters of decline in the Gross Domestic Product (i.e. the total value of final goods and services produced in a country in a given year). A recession has many negative influences for an economy: people purchase fewer products; there is a high level of unemployment; increased business failures, and an overall drop in living standards (Nickels, McHugh & McHugh, 2008:46, 49).

Socio-economic status/class	Socio-economic status is an intersecting measurement of education, occupation and income, which determines the social standing or class of an individual or group. Socio-economic class is a group of people who have the same socio-economic status (American Psychological Association (APA), 2007).

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Statement of the research problem

Consumer debt has escalated in South Africa (Dube & Fourie, 2012), since the country officially sank into a recession in early 2009 (Egan, 2010:1). Most South Africans have found it difficult to repay their debt, save money and have an adequate amount of money available for household expenses. Increases in energy (petrol and electricity) and transport prices not only negatively affect the debt-repayment capacity of households, but are also two of the most influential factors, which affect the cost of food (South African Reserve Bank [SARB], 2012a:1, 18).

Due to rises in energy and transport costs, food prices were expected to markedly increase during 2012 and continue to increase over the next decade even if there are some fluctuations and the occasional drop in food prices (Altman, Hart & Jacobs, 2009:8; SARB, 2012a:19). In a recent study, which was conducted by Darko, Eggett and Richards (2013) consumers expressed that increases in rent, petrol and food prices introduced an economic burden for their household. These consumers indicated that they use different strategies to help overcome these economic obstacles and stretch their food budget (Darko *et al.,* 2013:22, 24). Consumers generally agree that their economic situation has an important effect on their shopping behaviour (Darko *et al*., 2013:21). Hence, it is expected that consumers should employ strategies such as food-buying practices to help cut back on spending, and to protect themselves financially, as household expenses continue to increase and loaning money becomes more difficult and expensive essentially as a result of the recession (Egan, 2010:1).

1.2 Background to the research problem

The economic environment, which not only includes the effects of employment and income on consumer spending, but also the costs of items and the availability of credit, has a vast impact on consumer spending (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:156). Economic resources (money or credit, or both) provide consumers with an ability to purchase and are, therefore, an important variable in explaining why, what and when consumers buy (Reinhold, 2007:137). Consumer spending is further influenced by what consumers think will happen in the future, which is referred to as consumer confidence. Consumer confidence influences whether

consumers will decide to increase their debt, or defer spending to pay off their debt (Blackwell, Miniard & Engel, 2006:257).

Despite the high rate of unemployment and household indebtedness (SARB, 2012b:37), consumer confidence and subsequently household expenditure on consumer goods and services has been on the increase since the end of 2011 (SARB, 2012a:20). However, consumers should consistently employ strategies, particularly effective purchasing strategies, to protect themselves against uncertain economic times (Egan, 2010:1), especially since consumer credit facilities are less freely available owing to the National Credit Act (NCA) (Hawkins, 2009:2), while energy, transport and food prices are expected to increase during 2012 and steadily over the next decade (SARB, 2012a:18).

In South Africa, compared to other countries, food comprises one of the largest portions of a household budget in terms of expenses (Martins, 2007:210). This is supported by the May 2012 National Agricultural Marketing Council Quarterly Food Price Monitor, where it was identified that South Africa has one of the highest inflation rates on food compared to other countries. The cost of most foods has increased by up to 56% over a period of one year (2011 – 2012) (National Agricultural Marketing Council, 2012:2). Mike Schussler, a leading economist in South Africa, stated that the average consumer could, as a result, be expected to pay an extra R20 out of every R100 that is spent on food (Thakali & Bega, 2012).

The South African Press Association (SAPA) (2012) further adds that the poorest of the South African consumers will be affected most by food price increases, because they spend over 40% of their income on food (SAPA, 2012) compared to wealthier consumers who only spend up to 13% of their income on food (Martins, 2006:213). Lower-income households, in general, however, devote a larger percentage of their total expenditure to food, while in each successively higher income group the amount that is spent on food declines as a percentage of total expenditure (Frazao, Andrews, Smallwood & Prell, 2007:3). Therefore, consumers who fall within the higher income categories may have more funds available for discretionary spending compared to lower-income consumers who should spend their money as effectively as possible (Martins, 2006:9). Higher-income consumers may subsequently need to adjust their usual money-spending/-saving practices less dramatically than lower- or middle-income consumers, should food prices increase (Egan, 2010:1). Consumers from low socio-economic groups often have to cut back on food spending to make room for other essentials such as housing and utilities (Ward, Mamerow, Henderson, Taylor, Meyer & Coveney, 2012:462).

This supports the notion by Turrell, Hewitt, Patterson and Oldenbury (2003:198) that income is the strongest independent predictor of food purchasing behaviour. Most households that adhere to strict food budgets do so to ensure that their monetary income goes further to cover all their expenses (Dinkins, 1997:36). Socio-economic differences in household food purchasing behaviour were investigated by Turrell, Blakely, Patterson and Oldenburg (2004:214) who found that residents of socio-economically disadvantaged areas or neighbourhoods have purchasing patterns, which are different to those in more advantaged areas. Shopping practices thus vary by neighbourhood of residence, and by income group (Ellaway & Macintyre, 2000:57).

Consumers' (from all socio-economic/income classes) use of money-saving techniques, particularly during difficult economic times, has not been extensively researched. In addition to this, research concerning the influence of demographic factors such as income, education and occupation, which reflect socio-economic determinants on consumer's use of food-buying practices, is also limited. Dinkins (1997:36) mentions that additional behavioural research is needed to determine, which factors influence consumers' use of various cost-cutting methods. An understanding of factors that account for variations in shopping behaviour across households and socio-economic groups is thus required.

1.3 Research questions

1.3.1 Primary research question

What food-buying practices do different socio-economic status (SES) areas (classes) in the City of Cape Town use?

1.3.2 Secondary questions

- Is there a difference in the use of food-buying practices by consumer who reside within different SES areas?

- Is the use of food-buying practices among consumers in general, as well as among consumers within the same SES area affected by shopper characteristics?

- Is the use of food-buying practices among consumers in general, as well as among consumers within the same SES area influenced by demographical factors?

1.4 Objectives of the research

1.4.1 Main objective

To determine the use of food-buying practices within different SES areas in the City of Cape Town.

1.4.2 Subsidiary objectives

- To ascertain whether there is a difference in the use of food-buying practices by consumers who reside in different SES areas.

- To ascertain whether shopper characteristics have an effect on the use of food-buying practices among consumers in general, as well as among consumers within the same SES area.

- To ascertain whether demographical characteristics have an influence on the use of food-buying practices among consumers, in general, as well as among consumers within the same SES area.

1.5 Outline of the thesis

In order to provide an outline of the rest of the thesis the remaining chapters have been indicated below and include:

- Chapter 2: Literature review.
- Chapter 3: Research design and methodology.
- Chapter 4: Research findings.
- Chapter 5: Discussion
- Chapter 6: Conclusions
- Chapter 7: Recommendations

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Consumer behaviour

Consumer behaviour is described as those actions, which are directly involved in obtaining, consuming or using, and disposing of products and services (Arnould, Price & Zinkhan, 2004:9; Solomon, 2011:33), including the decision processes that precede and follow these actions (Engel, Blackwell & Miniard, 1995:G3). Howard (1994:1), Lamb, Hair and McDaniel (2004:142) and Noel (2009:12) further add that consumer behaviour focuses on how consumers make decisions to spend their available resources (time, money, effort) on personal or household products or services to satisfy their needs. This includes *what* they buy; *why* they buy it; *when* they buy it; *where* they buy it; *how often* they buy it and use it; *how* they evaluate it after the purchase; the impact of their evaluation on future purchases; and *how* they dispose of it. Therefore, consumer behaviour involves the thoughts and feelings that people experience and the actions that they perform when they purchase and consume (Howard, 1994:1; Blackwell *et al*., 2006:150; Peter & Olson, 2008:5).

Numerous interlinked internal, as well as external factors influence consumers' thoughts feelings and actions, namely their behaviour (Peter & Olson, 2008:5). Internal, personal or psychological factors relate to motivational, cognitive and affective processes and include aspects such as perception, needs, attitudes, lifestyle, personality, motivation and learning. External, environmental or social factors are associated with a person's physical, social and economic environment, and include aspects such as social class, reference groups, culture and subcultures (demographics) (Solomon, 2002:261; Verbeke, 2008:281; Noel, 2009:16). The level, intensity and power of each factor's influence and how it may affect consumers' purchasing decisions vary with each individual (Wright, 2006:24). Moreover, consumer shopper profiles and behaviours across diverse demographic and socio-economic segments tend to change over time owing to dynamic external forces such as the economic and social environment (Deon, 2011:5424; Mortimer, 2012:791).

Although a trip to the grocery store is considered as one of the most basic elements of consumer behaviour, understanding various factors that account for variations in consumer and, subsequently shopping behaviour amongst consumers and across households, is a complex process (Bawa & Gosh, 1999:149; Alagöz & Ekiei, 2011:179). What is more is that the South African society is fragmented into a number of cultural and sub-cultural groups, each of which responds to the abovementioned factors in its own specific way, thus making the task of describing the consumer market especially difficult (Cant, Brink, Brijball, 2002:54).

Knowing how these factors operate and affect consumers' behaviour will help to explain why certain purchases are made (Rousseau, 2007:260). In addition to various factors that may influence consumer behaviour, the consumer decision-making process is also discussed. Reference is also made to consumer purchasing plans, products, types of consumers or shoppers that exist, and specific food-buying practices. For purposes of conceptual clarity, each area is discussed separately in the text, but in reality they are interrelated (Cant *et al.,* 2002:13).

The conceptual framework for the study is attached as Appendix A. The conceptual framework clearly outlines the areas in which meaningful relationships are likely to exist (Cargan, 2007:29). The research question is linked to larger theoretical constructs to shows that the study helps to explain larger issues and therefore holds potential significance for that field (Marshall & Rossman, 2006:12). Thus, the conceptual framework works in conjunction with the researcher's goals to justify the study (Cargan, 2007:29). The conceptual framework for this study is guided by the abovementioned need for a conceptual framework and begins with the statement of the research title. The title is carried through to the South African (SA) market which has been segmented based on geographic, demographic, socio-cultural as well as time and economic resources which are additionally factors influencing consumer's food-buying preferences, decision-making and behaviour. The framework further demonstrates that the SA market is comprised of the SA consumer and the SA consumer is subsequently influenced by all the previously mentioned factors. Decision-making processes, purchasing plans and decision-making strategies are all inherent characteristics of the SA consumer and influence their use of the four food-buying practices evaluated in this study. A survey evaluating consumers' shopper and demographical characteristics as well as food-buying practices was conducted using a questionnaire. The results were captured, analysed, represented (focusing on the significant findings), interpreted and then compared to findings of related research as well as the objectives of the study. Conclusions were then drawn from the results and discussion, and recommendations provided based on the strengths and weaknesses of the study. Thus, the conceptual framework clearly demonstrates that before examining South African consumers, it would be useful to review the market in which they operate.

2.2 The South African market

Kotler and Armstrong (2010:21) describe a market as "the set of all actual and potential buyers of a product or service". A national market is composed of the consumer market and the industrial market (Nel, Rädel & Loubser, 1988:4). The consumer within the industrial market purchases products, equipment and services in order to run their organizations, and

is known as the organizational consumer (Arnould *et al*., 2004:546). This study is associated with the consumer market, which consists of all individuals and households that buy or acquire products and services for their personal use or consumption, or for their family and friends to use or consume (Klopper, Berndt, Chipp, Ismail, Roberts-Lombard, Subramani, Wakeham, Petzer, Hern, Saunders & Myers-Smith, 2006:123). Consumers who operate within the consumer market are, therefore, known as personal consumers, because they buy goods and services for their personal use or for the use of their household, or merely for one member of the family. In all these instances the goods are purchased for final use and the consumers are referred to as "end users" or "ultimate consumers" (Batra & Kazmi, 2008:5).

The diversity of culture and subculture amongst the South African population makes the consumer market difficult to describe (Cant *et al*., 2002:54). Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:394) define culture as "the sum of total learned beliefs, values and customs that serve to direct the consumer behaviour of members of a particular society". Culture is a broad concept and includes all things that influence an individual's thought process, behaviour, preferences and how they make decisions. Consumers are seldom aware of cultural influences, and behave, think, and feel the same as other members of the same culture because it seems "normal" to do so (Hawkins, Best & Coney, 2001:42).

Within each culture group there are multiple subgroups or sub-cultures, which are groups of people that have shared behaviour patterns based on common life experiences and situations. These behaviour patterns distinguish them from other groups within the same culture (Peter & Olson, 2008:312). Factors such as age, language, religion, race and geographic regions are a few of the characteristics that help to create and define sub-cultures within an overall culture. Examples of important South African sub-cultural groups are language, racial population groups, geographic regions (rural villages, towns, urban and metropolitan areas) and religions (Cant *et al*., 2002:49).

The culture group that each consumer belongs to has an influence on how they behave in certain situations, evaluate products (is it a necessity or luxury?), make judgements and ultimately make their final purchase decision (Evans, Jamal & Foxall, 2006:199). It would, therefore, be useful to segment the entire consumer market in order to explore the diverse variables that influence South African consumers (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2003:49). The next section focuses on segmenting the consumer market (with particular reference to South African consumers) in order to explore the diverse variables that influence their behaviour.

2.3 Segmenting the consumer market

Market characteristics influence what consumers need, how consumers behave, who will be involved in the purchase decision and how that decision will be made (Cant, Brink, Brijball, 2006:41). Market segmentation is the process of dividing the entire market into subsets or segments of consumers so that the members of each segment share common characteristics (Thomas, 2007:1), similar needs and wants and are distinct from members from other segments (Cant *et al*., 2006:15). The purpose of market segmentation is, therefore, to identify differences and similarities amongst consumers (Rousseau & Du Plessis, 2007:233). Various consumer characteristics are used as the foundation on which to segment a market (Arnould *et al*., 2004:187). According to Deon (2011:5427), demographic and socio-economic factors, in particular, are important to determine consumers' buying behaviour traits. Both geographic or population segmentation, demographic segmentation and socio-cultural segmentation are means of market segmentation and are discussed further.

2.3.1 Geographic segmentation

Geographic segmentation divides the market into geographic units such as provinces, cities, suburbs or neighbourhoods (Arnould *et al*., 2004:187; Blythe, 2008:9). The theory behind this approach is that people who live in the same area generally share a number of similar needs, wants, values, attitudes and lifestyle preferences, and that these are different compared to people who live in other areas (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:44).

Many studies have found evidence in support of neighbourhood socio-economic effects on consumer behaviour (Turrel *et al*., 2004:212). In their study, Turrell *et al*. (2004:208) investigated socio-economic differences in household food purchasing behaviour, and found that residents of socio-economically disadvantaged areas or neighbourhoods have purchasing patterns, which are different to those who reside in more advantaged areas.

There is a further difference in the purchasing behaviour of rural and urban consumers (Krishna Naik & Venugopal Reddy, 1999:243). Rogers *et al*. (1988:42) compared the expenditure patterns of rural and urban households between 1972 to 1973 and 1985, and found that urban households have higher expenditures on food, housing and clothing, whereas rural households spend more on transport and health care. The results of the study, which was conducted by Sun and Wu (2004:251) additionally, suggest that rural consumers are more price-conscious and less brand conscious when compared with urban consumers. Sun and Wu (2004:251) add that these differences amongst rural and urban consumers influence their preferences for products and brands.

2.3.2 Demographic segmentation

Demography refers to the vital and measurable statistics of a population (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:48). Demographic data is not only relatively easy to measure, but the close link between consumer demographics and their needs and preferences creates a greater need to measure the effects of demographic variables on consumer behaviour (Hanna & Wozniak, 2001:71). Demographic segmentation consists of dividing the market into groups on the basis of variables such as age, gender, marital status, income, occupation, education and family size (Arnould *et al.,* 2004:189). Each market segment thus represents a group of consumers who share one or more similar characteristics (Thomas, 2007:1). Consumer preferences and buying behaviours differ with each demographic variable (Evans *et al.,* 2006:106; Kardes, Cline & Cronley, 2008:37). The variables that correlate with specific consumer behaviours are then used to describe that segment. In this sense demographics are used to determine how consumers will behave based on certain characteristics (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:236). In addition to this, there are numerous studies, which support that demographic characteristics affect household food expenditures and price sensitivity. Demographic characteristics such as race, age, level of education, occupation and income, which may influence consumers' food-buying preferences and behaviour (Rousseau & Du Plessis, 2007:235; Sanlier & Karakus, 2010:141), are discussed in the following section. Marital status and family or household sizes are two demographic factors, which are discussed under *family and household influences (refer 2.3.3.2)*.

2.3.2.1 Population/racial groups

Race can be defined as "the genetic heritage group a person is born into" (Cant *et al.,* 2002:76). It is important to be aware of the composition of various population or racial groups in South Africa, as they differ in their living conditions and distribution of household consumption expenditure (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:150). For example, Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) (2005/2006:19) states that Black African households allocate 23% of their total expenditure to food, while White households allocate only 9% of their expenditure to food. This may further be an indication that consumers within Black African households have fewer funds available, and thus allocate a larger portion of their expenditure to food compared to consumers within White households who may have more funds available and, therefore, allocate a smaller portion of their expenditure to food. For example, if a Black African consumer has R2 000 available for expenses and allocates R1 600 to food, 80% of their expenditure is allocated to food. However, if a White consumer has R20 000 available for expenses and allocates R1 600 to food, only 8% of their expenditure is allocated to food.

The representation of the four main population groups in South Africa, namely Black African, White, Indian/Asian and Coloured (Stats SA, 2012a:16) are demonstrated in Figure 2.1 below. The Black African is evidently the most dominant population group. There is only a slight (0.2%) difference in the percentage of people within the White and Coloured population groups, and only 2.6% of the population is grouped within the Indian/Asian population group.

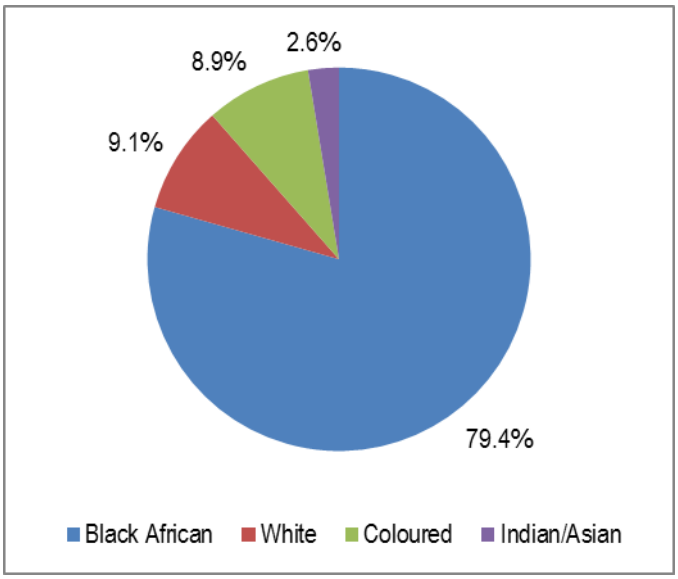


Figure 2.1: **South African population group demographics, 2011**
(Source: Adapted from Stats SA, 2012a:16)

2.3.2.2 Age

Age is one of the most important variables, which affect consumer behaviour (Joubert, 2007:41). As a consumer becomes older, their buying behaviour changes (Deon, 2011:5430). There are many different meanings to the word 'age', namely the number of years on earth (chronological age); how a person perceives themselves (psychological age); or how well a person is able to engage in certain activities (biological age). Humans grow psychologically, learn and mature through knowledge and life experiences as they become older (Evans *et al.,* 2006:107). Various cognitive skills and money-saving techniques improve with years of training and practical experience in grocery shopping (Blaylock & Smallwood, 1987:190). Older consumers thus tend to be more brand-loyal and cautious when making purchases (Noel, 2009:75). People of different ages subsequently have different sets of values, needs, wants and behaviours, and this affects what consumers will demand from different products in order to meet their needs (Evans *et al.,* 2006:107). Consumers' access to resources (for example, money) typically varies with age too (Arnould *et al.,* 2004:502).

According to Kotler and Armstrong (2010:149), South African consumers who are younger than 26 years of age spend the least amount of money. The biggest spenders are between 36 and 55 years of age, followed by those aged 26 to 35. Figure 2.2 represents the estimated age distribution of the South African population in 2011, according to these age categories.

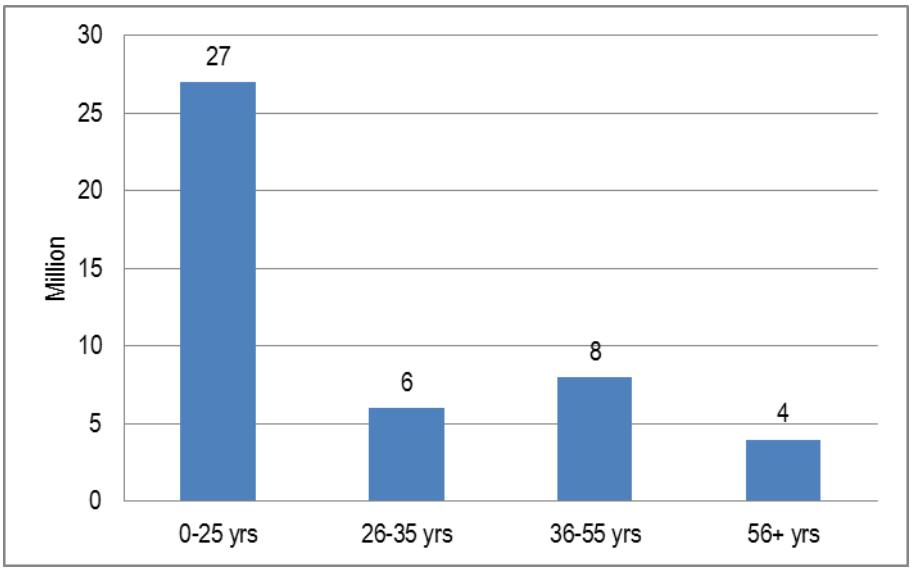


Figure 2.2: Estimated age distribution of the South African population in 2011, 1
(Source: Adapted from Stats SA, 2011a:9)

Figure 2.3 represents the information that is presented in Figure 2.2 in a pie chart. The chart reveals that more than half of the total South African population is younger than 26 years of age. This follows that a majority of consumers in South Africa do not spend a significant amount of money. This is presumably owing to the fact that the populace in this age group are children and young adults who still require appropriate level(s) of education and work experience in order to earn a reasonable income. The remaining segment of the population (those aged 26 and older) that are able to spend and purchase goods and services, subsequently comprise less than half of the total South African population.

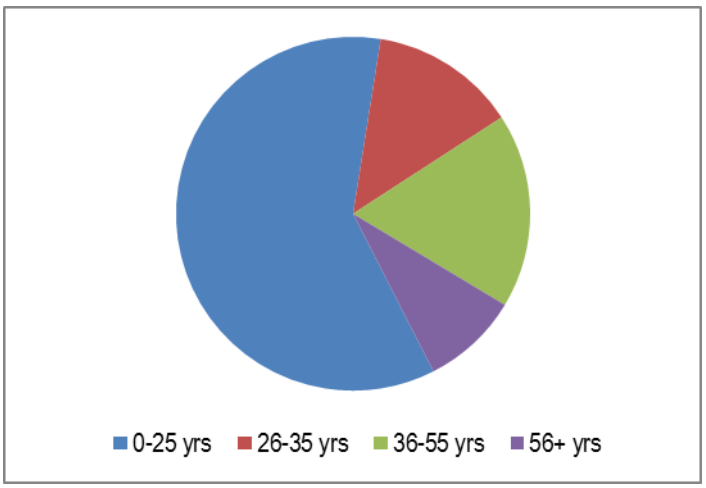
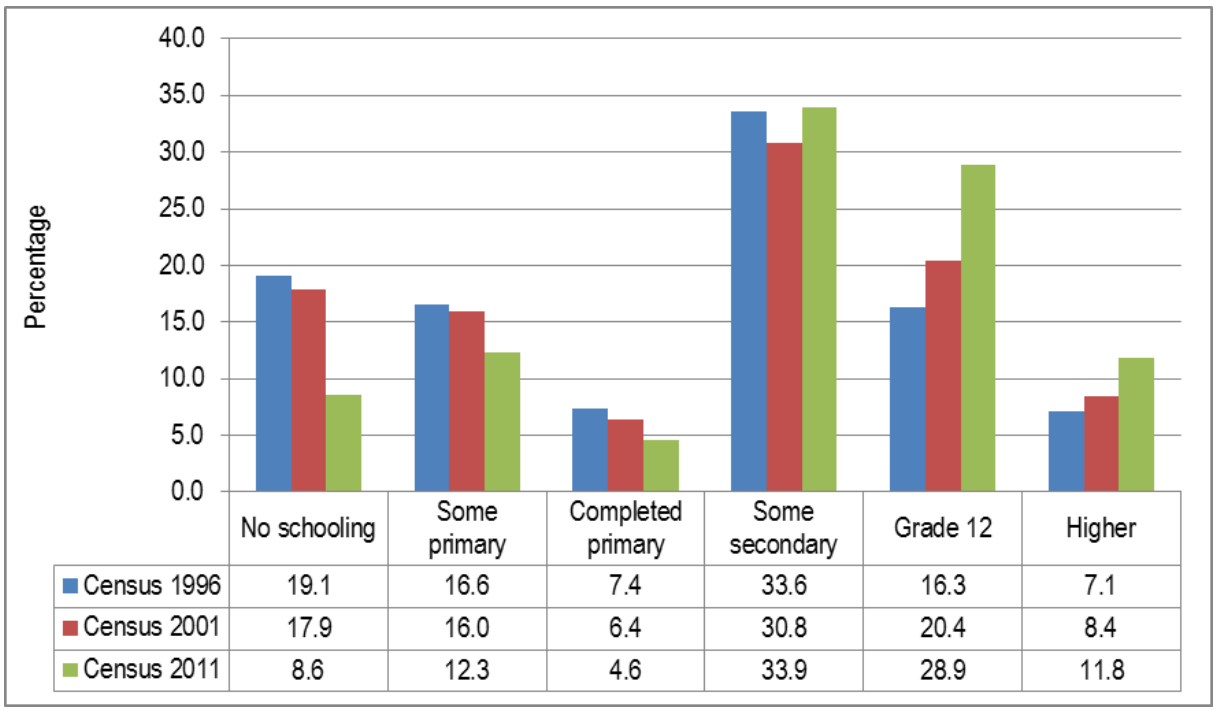


Figure 2.3: Estimated age distribution of the South African population in 2011, 2
(Source: Adapted from Stats SA, 2011a:9)

2.3.2.3 Level of education, occupation and income

There is a close relationship between the effects of the level of education, occupation and income on the consumer (Strydom, 2004:68). Individuals with a low level of education seldom qualify for high level occupations that require advanced educational training. High level occupations generally produce high incomes, and income is a strong indicator of the ability (or inability) of a consumer to pay for a product (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:52). Thus, people with better education earn higher salaries and occupy higher positions (Strydom, 2004:68). Education also affects consumer information processing and decision-making (Williams, 2002:252).

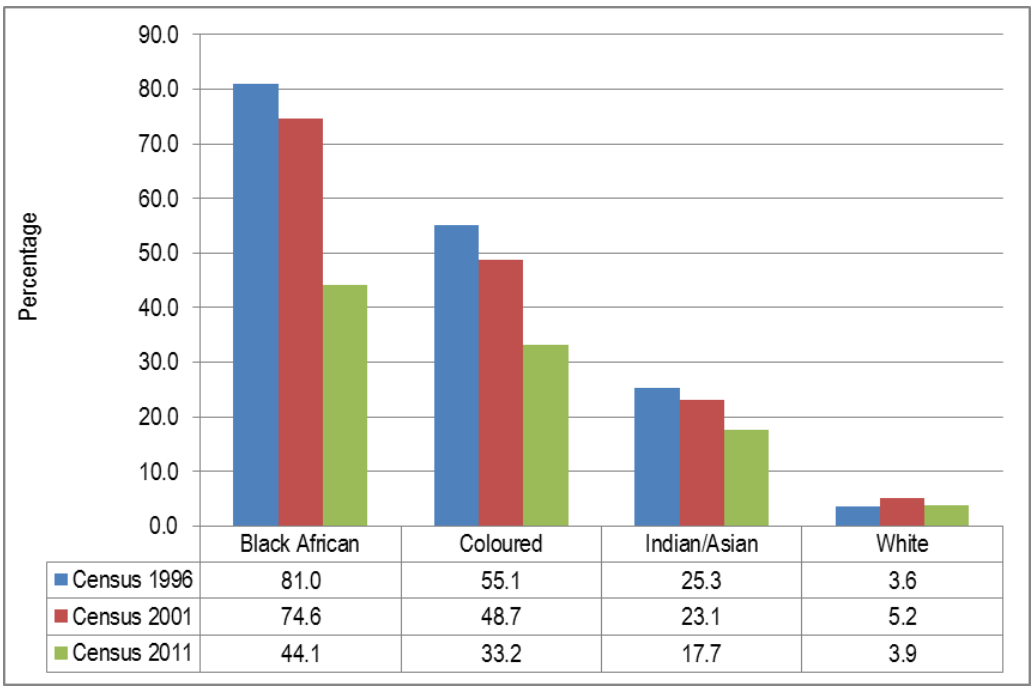
Figure 2.4 below demonstrates the highest level of education attained amongst those aged 20 and over in South Africa. The percentage of persons aged 20 years who have received no formal schooling more than halved from 19.1% in 1996 to 8.6% in 2011. The percentage of persons who have some primary level education decreased from 16.6% in 1996 to 12.3% in 2011; whilst the proportion of those who had completed primary level decreased from 7.4% in 1996 to 4.6% in 2011. There was also a substantial increase in the percentage of persons who completed higher education from 7.1% in 1996 to 11.8% in 2011.



	No schooling	Some primary	Completed primary	Some secondary	Grade 12	Higher
Census 1996	19.1	16.6	7.4	33.6	16.3	7.1
Census 2001	17.9	16.0	6.4	30.8	20.4	8.4
Census 2011	8.6	12.3	4.6	33.9	28.9	11.8

Figure 2.4: Highest level of education attained amongst South Africans aged 20 years and older, Census 1996, 2001 and 2011 results in comparison to each other
(Source: Adapted from Stats SA, 2012a:30)

Figure 2.5 further emphasises the low level of education among Black African and Coloured population groups compared to the Indian/Asian, and more specifically, the White population group in South Africa. From 1996 to 2011 there was a substantial decrease in the percentage of people with no education, or with a highest level of education less than Grade seven within the Black African and Coloured population groups. However, there are still higher levels of functional illiteracy among South Africans within the Black African and Coloured population groups compared to those within the White population group.



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White
Census 1996	81.0	55.1	25.3	3.6
Census 2001	74.6	48.7	23.1	5.2
Census 2011	44.1	33.2	17.7	3.9

Figure 2.5: Percentage of persons aged 15 years and above with no education or a highest level of education less than Grade seven, by population group, Census 1996, 2001 and 2011 results in comparison to each other
(Source: Adapted from Stats SA, 2012a:36)

Many South Africans have elementary occupations (Stats SA, 2012b:23). According to the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO), elementary occupations consist of simple and routine tasks. These tasks usually include: selling goods in streets and public places such as street vendors, shoe cleaning and other street services, domestic and related helpers, building caretakers, window and related cleaners, messengers, porters, doorkeepers and garbage collectors (ILO, 2012:37).

Furthermore, consequences of this almost cause-and-effect relationship between education, occupation and income of the consumer, can be observed in the South African market. Figure 2.4 demonstrates that the percentage of persons in South Africa who complete higher education is low. Hence, few people may be able to attend tertiary educational institutions. This implies that many consumers do not have a reasonably high income (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2003:95). Since the level of income is a strong indicator of consumers' capacity to purchase (Pride & Ferrell, 2012:69), a more detailed discussion of this variable continues further on in the review.

2.3.3 Socio-cultural segmentation

Social and cultural variables (socio-cultural variables) provide further basis for market segmentation. With this form of segmentation, the consumer market is subdivided into

segments on the basis of reference groups and stage in the family life-cycle, as well as social class (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:54).

2.3.3.1 Reference groups

Consumer buying decisions, including the needs that they experience, the alternatives that they consider and the way in which the alternatives are evaluated, are influenced by the people with which the consumer interacts (Wood & Hayes, 2012:324), either in person (directly) or by observing them (indirectly) (Stanton *et al.,* 1992:139). These 'people' that influence the consumer are known as reference groups, because they serve as a point of comparison (or reference) for an individual (Noel, 2009:52).

An individual uses reference groups as a guide for behaviour in a specific situation (Hawkins *et al.*, 2001:226). Reference group influence can affect consumers' product and brand choices. Of all the groups that influence consumer behaviour, the most influential is the family (Wright, 2006:355; Blythe, 2008:21). This is because consumers generally interact the most with them (Rousseau, 2007:70).

2.3.3.2 Family and household influences

A person's family and marital status also impact on consumers' spending behaviour (Solomon, 2011:37). Within the context of consumer behaviour, the terms *family* and *household* are treated as the same concept and are often used interchangeably to represent a basic spending unit, although there are differences in the meanings of the terms (Hawkins *et al*., 2001:195; Rousseau, 2007:71). A family is a group of individuals who live together and who are related by marriage, blood or adoption. Household is a broader term that includes a single person who lives alone, or a group of people who live together, regardless of whether they are related. It includes unmarried couples with or without children, gay couples and roommates or boarders (Arnould *et al.,* 2004:553; Hoyer & MacInnis, 2007:349; Peter & Olson, 2008:344).

In South Africa, the traditional definition of a family, which consists of a husband and wife with children, is in decline (Ellis & Adams, 2009:7). Extended families are families, which include uncles, aunts, and unmarried people who live in one house (Rousseau, 2007:71), and are dependent on a single-earner income (sometimes an old-age pensioner), are more prevalent in South Africa (Cant *et al*., 2002:70). With regard to the influence of the family (as a decision-making unit) on consumer behaviour, there are two factors that must be considered: the family life-cycle and the role differentiation between family members (Cant *et*

al., 2006:209). Co-shopping with friends or children (family) also has an important influence on consumer behaviour (Mangleburg, Doney & Bristol, 2004:102).

(i) The family life-cycle

Families experience a series of stages that changes them as a unit over time. This process has been termed the family life-cycle (FLC). This concept may need to be changed to household life-cycle (HLC) or consumer life-cycle (CLC) to reflect changes in society (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:490). The traditional FLC combines demographic variables such as *marital status*, *family size*, ages of family members and employment status of the head of the household (Cant *et al*., 2002:195). The ages of parents, number of children who live at home and the amount of disposable income, are usually related to the stage in the FLC. There are five stages in the traditional FLC, which begins at bachelorhood, moving onto marriage, then to family growth, family contraction (as grown children leave the household), and ending with the end of the basic unit (due to the death of one spouse) (Hawkins *et al*., 2001:196; Evans *et al.,* 2006:188). As consumers progress from the early stages, their lives become busier and their time becomes more limited. Shopping consequently becomes more of an effort and less enjoyable and consumers tend to seek out convenience products (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:156).

The abovementioned traditional FLC, which was once a steady and foreseeable series of stages through which most families advanced, is changing. Worldwide demographic and socio-economic change has influenced patterns of family formation and family life, causing variations in family composition and structure (Ellis & Adams, 2009:7). The decrease in the number of families that progress through the traditional FLC is, therefore, caused by a variety of societal factors, including an increasing divorce rate and number of out-of-wedlock births, as well as a rise in couples without children and singles who live alone (change in traditional marital status). Various changes such as death can alter the traditional family structure creating unintentional single-parent households (Hawkins *et al*., 2001:196; Blackwell *et al*., 2006:495; Hoyer & MacInnis, 2007:349). Also, consumers do not necessarily have to pass through all stages in the FLC, as they may skip a few depending on their lifestyle choices (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:491). Cultural changes in society such as delayed marriages, childless marriages, working women, and increased divorced rates have led to more diverse modern family structures (Peter & Olson, 2008:354).

A brief description of consumers' economic status during a few life-cycle stages are discussed below. Consumers who have not been classified in the traditional FLC (for

example, single parents, divorced consumers, and so on) have also been included, since these marital factors are highly evident in today's society.

- **At-home singles/young independent singles** (single people under the age of 35) generally have limited incomes, yet have fewer financial obligations (Hawkins *et al*., 2001:197), and thus frequently have sufficient disposable income to indulge themselves (Wilkie, 1990:487). Some young singles may have children, which forces them to have less disposable income (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:492).

- **Mature singles (age 40 or older) without children** are usually well-off financially, since they never had to pay child-related costs. They often live in smaller homes compared to large families and may, therefore, have more funds available to spend as they please. They may, however, be more pressured to save for the future, since there may be no additional income to rely on, as they become older (only if they are not living together with, or have a partner who is willing to support them financially) (Hawkins *et al*., 2001:202; Blackwell *et al*., 2006:492).

- **Mature/young couples without children** are usually in a better financial position than they were when they were single, since they often have two incomes available to spend on themselves. **Mature/young couples with children**, however, have less disposable income and, therefore, tend to change their purchasing patterns (compared to when they were without child). Additional expenses that are incurred usually reduce the couple's ability to save (Wilkie, 1990:485; Hawkins *et al*., 2001:198; Blackwell *et al*., 2006:492).

- **Mature families** are in the over-64 age group and are either fully or partially retired. This group generally has a lot of time, but a sparse amount of money (Hawkins *et al*., 2001:203).

- **Divorced or separated persons** often have lower incomes owing to the availability of only one salary or wage (Wilkie, 1990:485). They tend to struggle financially owing to the high cost of the divorce, and the expense of having to raise children on one income. They may also need to establish a new home, which adds to the list of new expenses (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:492).

- **Solitary survivors (widows/widowers) who are retired** are likely to have low incomes and increasing medical needs (since they are generally elderly) (Wilkie, 1990:485). Their amount of disposable income, however, depends on how much savings they have accumulated during their lifetime. Solitary survivors who have not retired may either be employed or unemployed. If the surviving spouse is employed, they are able to live on their earned income rather than on their savings. Those who

are unemployed often survive on fixed incomes, and usually move in with family or friends to share household expenses (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:493).

All family structures below are recognised in South Africa. According to Ellis and Adams (2009:7), the following life cycle stages or groups form the main family structures in the country:

- *Nuclear family:* married or cohabitating: mother and father with own children.
- *Extended family:* traditional family with grandparents / parents / children / aunts / uncles / nieces / nephews who provide support to each other.
- *Single parent family:* mother and child/children, or father and child/children.
- Cohabiting or married couples without children.
- *Child / youth-headed family:* one child / youth heading a family.
- *Same sex family:* same sex cohabiting with / without children.
- *Grandparent-headed family:* grandparent(s) with grandchildren.
- *Foster family:* child placed through statutory processes in the care of a family that is not related to the child.
- *Related foster family:* child placed through statutory processes in the care of a related family member.
- *Non-family household:* friends who stay together and are bound by household rules.
- *Combined / reconstituted family:* biological parent / stepparent / biological children / stepchildren.

It is evident from the above descriptions that the **sizes of households** vary. In many countries, including South Africa, the average household size is becoming smaller – mainly owing to changes in society as discussed in the following paragraph (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:501; Hoyer & MacInnis, 2007:353; Stats SA, 2012a:54). Figure 2.6 below shows that the average household size for South Africa has decreased by approximately 1.1 persons since 1996 (Stats SA, 2012a:54).

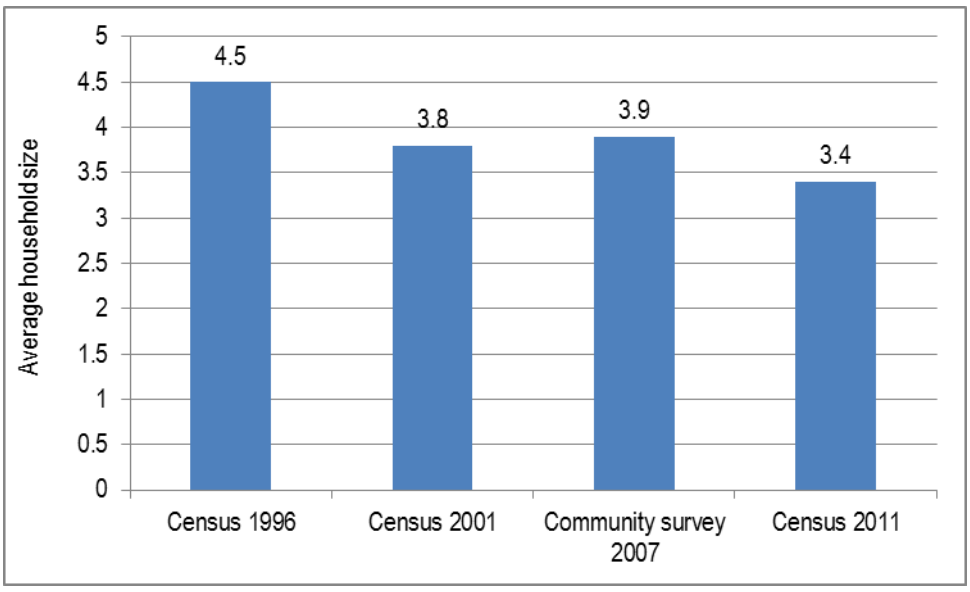


Figure 2.6: South African average household size, Census 1996, 2001, 2011 and Community survey 2007 results in comparison to each other
(Source: Adapted from Stats SA, 2012a:53)

A variety of universal, as well as country specific factors, has an impact on household size. The decline in the average household size in South Africa may thus have been brought about by various reasons such as the impact of HIV/AIDS (family members dying – resulting in a decline in household size); urbanisation, in general, and rural-to-urban migration; lower fertility preferences; and greater preference for single-person households (Ellis & Adams, 2009:17). Couples tend to have fewer children because of dual careers, financial burdens, and by reason of overpopulation, some believe that having more than two children is socially irresponsible. More discretionary or disposable income becomes available the smaller the household. Childless couples, for instance, have more funds available and are consequently able to spend more money on food compared to couples who have children (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2007:353). Bawa and Ghosh (1999:158) support this, as they found in their study on household grocery shopping behaviour, that household grocery expenditure increases with family size and the number of children within a family.

(ii) Role differentiation between family members

A role specifies what someone is expected to do in a given situation within a particular social context (Joubert, 2007:38). Family members affect purchase decision-making in various ways. Initiators make suggestions regarding products that should be purchased; influencers inform other family members about various brands or products; gatekeepers gather information, control its flow to other family members (and may thus disclose or withhold information) and might make recommendations; decision makers choose between

alternatives and make the final buying decision; purchasers purchase the product; and users are the people who actually use the product (Hawkins *et al*., 2001:206; Peter & Olson, 2008:346).

It must be kept in mind that the terms *husband* and *wif*e often also apply to roles, which are performed by male and female members of the household. Husband and wife roles may thus exist even though the household members are unmarried (for example, courting couples who live together) (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:487). Traditionally, husbands (or men) dominate decisions about things such as cars and investments, and wives (or women) about things such as groceries (Dholakia, Pedersen & Hikmet, 1995:27; Hawkins *et al*., 2001:207; Otnes & McGrath, 2001:112). However, recent evidence suggests that there has been a change in the roles, which are played by husbands and wives concerning purchase decisions (Belch & Willis, 2001:114; Noel, 2009:80). There is now a greater trend towards joint decision-making because of a change in marital roles (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2003:379). Joint decision-making for grocery shopping is, however, much higher among younger aged households (Dholakia, 1999:162). This change in family structure is owing to the fact that more women are currently changing from being the traditional 'homemaker', as they enter the workforce (Lee & Beatty, 2002:25). For some women, these changes result in role overload, as they have to work in the office, as well as at home caring for family members (Arnould *et al*., 2004:513). Career pressures, therefore, mean that women have less time to shop (Cant *et al*., 2002:84).

Since women have both work and family responsibilities, husbands and wives tend to share certain roles in an attempt to relieve women of some of their work overload. Men have become increasingly willing to take on food shopping, and academic data indicates that 25 to 45% of husbands share the food shopping role with their wives (Polegato & Zaichkowsky, 1994:278). Joint decisions are less likely among upper and lower socio-economic groups. However, joint decision-making is likely among middle socio-economic families, younger families and families with no children. Once children arrive, parental roles become more divided and defined, and there is subsequently a decreased need for joint decisions (Batra & Kazmi, 2008:317).

Gender influences consumers' values, preferences and shopping behaviour (Cant *et al*., 2006:94). Females are normally more efficient at searching for and obtaining lower prices compared to men. This may be because many habits and skills are acquired from parents, and females are more likely to be trained informally by their mothers in the practice of food shopping. This can further be confirmed by earlier estimated results, which indicate that male shoppers spend approximately R10 more per person weekly on food than females (Blaylock & Smallwood, 1987:189). These results support the findings from a survey, which was

conducted for the Food Marketing Institute (1983) (cited in Blaylock & Smallwood, 1987:195), which indicated that females were found to prepare shopping lists, use advertisements to plan shopping and price-off coupons, budget, and compare unit prices more often than males.

The use of these cost-saving techniques contribute to the fact that females, on average, are more efficient shoppers in terms of time and monetary costs compared to men. Woman also attach a greater importance to stores that have "specials" and act as "gatekeepers" in managing at-home tasks related to economical and valuable food-buying practices (Polegato & Zaichkowsky, 1994:296). However, Davies and Bell (1991:27) report that the number and proportion of males that do the grocery shopping are not only growing, but that males also tend to spend less per shopping trip, and spend less time in the store. In addition to this, Lee and Beatty (2002:25) state that because an increasing number of women contribute to their family resources by working and more women are motivated to succeed in their careers, this coupled with the responsibility of running a household, has caused changes in women's decision and buying behaviour patterns.

Women and men, therefore, demonstrate different attitudes and practices towards food shopping (Polegato & Zaichkowsky, 1994:296). However, should shopping be done in a hurry, consumers (of both genders) tend to become more brand conscious and loyal only to the brands with dependable quality and easy availability (Stanton *et al*., 1992:106, 144).

(iii) Co-shopping with friends and children

Social influence is an important factor, which shapes consumer behaviour (Mangleburg *et al*., 2004:102). Adults who shop with others may purchase more, and spend more money than when shopping alone (Granbois, 1968:30; Sommer, Wynes & Brinkley, 1992:287). Mangleburg *et al*. (2004:103), as well as Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:316) state that consumers who are relatively inexperienced and lack confidence in their ability to evaluate products and brands, usually shop with purchase friends who are knowledgeable and able to provide relevant information regarding the products and brands that are purchased. This increases the buyer's confidence in their purchase decision. Purchase friends are more likely to be non-family members. However, shopping with family members fosters a sense of responsibility, discourages wastefulness and extravagance (Mangleburg *et al*., 2004:111), and decreases the likelihood of impulsive purchasing (Luo, 2005:289). Rich and Jain (1968:44) found husbands to be more important as a shopping influence for middle and upper class consumers than for the lower class consumers.

Children, in general, influence parental food shopping and spending habits (Arnould *et al.,* 2004:504; Nørgaard, Bruns, Christensen & Mikkelsen, 2007:200), but when mothers shop with their children, they are even more prone to be influenced by their children's product preferences than when shopping alone (Hawkins *et al*., 2001:479). Co-shopping with children may be related to general socio-economic and lifestyle factors. For example, parents who co-shop with their children often may do so because they have (i) older children who are easier to take along; (ii) low family income or fewer older children, which makes it more difficult to pay or find others to supervise children; (iii) fewer children, no work outside the home, or no professional duties, which provides more time for socialization with their children; or (iv) some parents feel that it is important to consider children's opinions on family purchases, and are thus more inclined to co-shop with their children in order to show them products, discuss alternatives and allow them to choose between brands. It is usually more educated, higher socio-economic consumers who feel that it is an important part of their child's development. Some parents may also avoid shopping with their children owing to inconvenience, shopping time and psychological costs that may increase when children ask questions, make requests, and handle products or walk away to explore the store (Grossbart, Carlson & Walsh, 1991:156).

2.3.3.3 Social class

Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:358) define social class as "the division of members of a society into a hierarchy of distinct status classes so that members of each class have relatively the same status and members of all other classes have either more or less status." Social class is, therefore, measured in terms of social status, which refers to honour or prestige attached to one's position in society (Noel, 2009:68). Lamb, Joseph and McDaniel (2002:157) state that a group of people who are considered equal in status, who share the same behaviour patterns, and who socialise on a regular basis, both formally and informally, are part of the same social class. Hoyer and MacInnis (2007:330, 334) mention that because members of a social class interact regularly with each other (both formally and informally) and can relate to each other, they are likely to exhibit similar values, lifestyles and behaviours, which differ from those of members of the other classes.

Consumers' buying behaviour is thus often strongly influenced by the class to which they belong or aspire to (Stanton *et al*., 1992:140). A typical class structure portrays an upper, middle and lower class (Strydom, 2004:54). In South Africa, a small minority of the population is in the upper class, a larger minority in the middle class, and the majority in the lower class (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:151). The three classes are further described below.

(i) Upper class

The upper class consists of people who have greater wealth, influence and power (Wright, 2006:349), and includes socially prominent “old families” or “old money” consumers whose ancestors acquired great wealth and power, and these people now live on inherited wealth, as well as the newly rich who comprise corporate executives, owners of large and medium sized businesses and professionals. These consumers are usually well educated, tend to save and invest money more than members of other classes, and are price-conscious. They are also more likely than other classes to research their purchases and to use product characteristics, and not price, as an indicator of quality (Arnould *et al*., 2004:486; Hoyer & MacInnis, 2007:343; Batra & Kazmi, 2008:289).

(ii) Middle class

The middle class has a large disposable income (Wright, 2006:349), and consists of office workers, mostly sales people, teachers, technicians and small business owners (as a group, they are often referred to as white collar workers), many of whom have attended college/university – although some have not earned a degree. They tend to save money to send their children to tertiary institutions and their values determine the types of products and brands that they acquire and consume (Hawkins *et al*., 2001:126; Hoyer & MacInnis, 2007:345). They like to use credit cards and tend to spend much of their disposable income on clothing, household goods and holidays (Batra & Kazmi, 2008:289).

(iii) Lower/Working class

The lower class on one end consists of the “blue collar” working class of production workers, semi-skilled workers and service personnel. At the other end, this class comprises unskilled workers, the unemployed and those who are on welfare. The lower class is typically poorly educated with low incomes. Consumers in this class are more likely to spend than to save; however, when they do save, many choose savings accounts over investments. These consumers are also more likely to judge product quality according to its price (higher price means higher quality), shop in supermarkets or bulk stores, and tend to have less product information when shopping (Stanton *et al*., 1992:142; Hoyer & MacInnis, 2007:345).

2.3.3.4 Measurement of social class

The social class concept helps to understand consumer values and behaviour and is also helpful for segmenting markets (Peter & Olson, 2008:330). In order to examine how social class affects consumer behaviour, consumers must be classified into different social classes (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2007:334). There is, however, no general agreement as to how social class should be measured (Batra & Kazmi, 2008:287). A wide range of measurement techniques is available and logical methods for measuring social class fall into the following broad categories: subjective measures, reputational measures, and objective measures of social class (Arnould *et al*., 2004:481). The living standards measure (LSM) is similarly also a measure of social class (Cant *et al*., 2006:77).

(i) Subjective measures

In the subjective approach, individuals are asked to estimate their own social class positions (Hanna & Wozniak, 2001:503). This method is, therefore, based on participants' self-perceptions and self-images, and usually results in most people classifying themselves as middle class (Arnould *et al*., 2004:481; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:361). Conversely, according to the 2008 South African Social Attitudes Survey, a sizeable share of the South African adult population places itself in the lower class (Roberts, 2009:12).

(ii) Reputational measures

The reputational approach requires selected members of the community to judge to which social class other people within the community (Arnould *et al*., 2004:481; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:363), and with whom they are familiar (Hanna & Wozniak, 2001:503), should be classified.

(iii) Objective measures

Objective measures of social class consist of selected demographic and socio-economic variables that are used to assess (mainly through questionnaires) individuals' social class membership. These variables, as well as other factors, can be used separately or in combination to evaluate an individual's social class (Hanna & Wozniak, 2001:503). Objective measures of social class fall into the following two categories: single-variable indexes and composite-variable indexes (Hawkins *et al*., 2001:131).

- A single variable index uses only one variable to evaluate social class membership (Hawkins *et al*., 2001:131). Occupation is the variable, which is most commonly used, as it reflects occupational status (wealth, power and prestige). The level of education that an individual has acquired is another commonly accepted single variable measure. It is generally viewed that the more education a person has, the more likely it is that the person is well paid (or has a higher income), or has a respected position (high occupational status) (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2007:335).

Individual or family income may also be used to measure social class. It has been argued that the use of income may, however, not be an appropriate single variable to measure social class. For instance, a blue collar mechanic and a white collar assistant bank manager may both have the same yearly income, yet because of (or as a reflection of) social class differences, each will spend their income differently. Within this context it is the personal values of the individual or family that will classify to which social class they belong, and not their level of income. This has led to the opinion that affluence may be more a function of attitude or behaviour rather than of income level. Consumers who, therefore, have the attitude and behaviour of an affluent individual are said to be 'adaptationally affluent', and represent a group of individuals who may not have the amount of income, which is required to be considered as affluent, yet their purchases give reason to believe that they are of a higher social class (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:367).

- Composite-variable indexes combine a number of socio-economic factors to form one overall measure of social class. Because of the close correlation between level of education, occupation and amount of income, these variables are often combined into an index of social class (Hupkens, Knibbe & Drop, 2000:109; Cant *et al.,* 2002:163). Two of the most commonly used composite indexes are the Index of Status Characteristics and the Socio-economic Status Score (Hawkins *et al*., 2001:134).

    - Index of Status Characteristics (ISC) is a weighted measure of the following socio-economic variables: occupation, source of income (not amount of income), house type and dwelling area (quality of neighbourhood) (Hawkins *et al*., 2001:134).

    - The Socio-economic Status (SES) score was developed by the United States Bureau of the Census. It is an economic and sociological combined measure of an individuals' work experience, and of an individual's or family's economic and social position relative to others (Hawkins *et al*., 2001:136). The American Psychological Association (APA) (2007) describes socio-economic status as an intersecting measurement of education, occupation, and income, which determines the social standing or class of an individual or group (APA,

2007). Kamakura and Mazzon (2012:2) further elaborate on this and state that socio-economic status emphasises status achievement by using education and income as the cause and effect of occupational status, respectively. Education qualifies an individual for occupations, and income is the consequence of occupational status.

A SES score model (see Figure 2.7 presented on the next page) was developed at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology and was successfully implemented in a previous study by Atel Koch. This model can be adapted to various types of research, and permits the researcher to easily identify and represent the SES-level of many people in spite of any independent variations amongst them. According to this model, there is a relationship between thinking- and behavioural patterns and SES levels (Koch, 1997:12).

The three single variable index indicators (educational level, occupational level and income) are used in this model. According to Koch (1997:12), these three indicators do not exert the same influence on people's cognitive processes; however, since there is some correlation between educational level and level of occupation, a relationship between thought processes, which is influenced by these two variables, can be expected. Thus, level of education and occupation are two primary factors that are used to measure respondents' level of social class, while income is used as a secondary determining factor (Koch, 1997:13).

Should a person have a low level of education and occupation, it could be expected that they would have a certain pattern of thought that correlates with a low SES frame of reference, irrespective of income. They would be affiliated with a low SES-group, and would, therefore, be taxed accordingly. The same applies to those who fall within the middle and high SES-groups (Koch, 1997:13).

Should person X have a middle class level of education, but function within a high level occupation, that person (and their household) would fall within block number 5, where the two vectors (middle education and high occupation) of the model cross each other. In this situation the individuals' income level will determine whether the person functions within a middle or high social class frame of reference. In the unusual circumstance where a person falls within a low level of education, but functions within a high level occupation (or vice versa), their level of income would again be used to determine whether the person should be classed in the low, middle or high SES-group (Koch, 1997:13).

It is apparent from the abovementioned explanation that an individuals' income group (or level) can be used as a single indicator of their SES, should their level of education and income not correspond (cases 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6) (Koch, 1997:13).

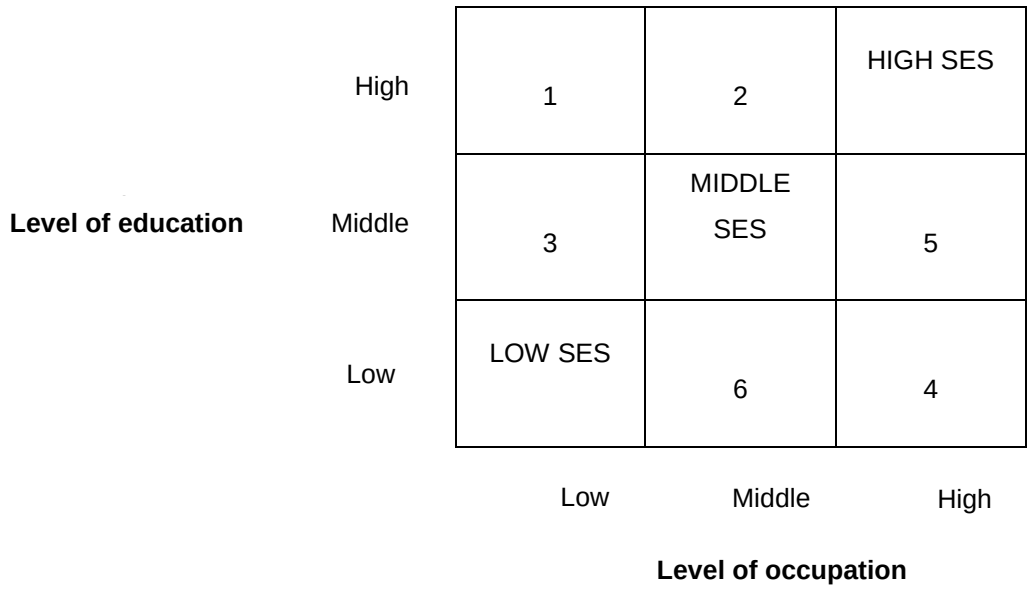


Figure 2.7: Socio-economic status model
(Source: Koch, 1997:13)

(iv) Universal living standards measurement (LSM groups)

The Living Standards Measure (LSM) was developed specifically for the South African population. It measures social class, or living standards regardless of race, income, or education (Strydom, 2004:68). Instead, a composite measure of social class is formed by using living standards or conveniences in the home such as access to services, ownership of certain durable goods and various geographic indicators (Rousseau & Du Plessis, 2007:226). It is essentially a measure of wealth or social class, which is based on standards of living rather than income (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:151, 206).

It must be understood that although income is part of the LSM, it is not an alternative indicator of level of income for a particular LSM group. Income is, therefore, not used to identify the particular LSM group to which an individual belongs (as many other variables are also used), but is rather an estimation that individuals who fall within a specific LSM obtain the typical associated level of income. Furthermore, level of income does not identify whether people in a certain LSM group are predisposed towards spending or saving their money. For example, a stingy business person who earns a fortune may sleep on a mattress on the floor and warm up television dinners in the microwave. A pensioner may have all the modern equipment, which places their household into LSM 10, but whether they have a high disposable income or a propensity to spend, is not known (Haupt, 2006:1).

There are ten LSM groups, which range from group ten, which has the highest living standards to group one, which has the lowest (Strydom, 2004:68). To indicate the differences

between the LSM groups, and to illustrate the characteristics, evaluated and summarised information for three of the ten groups are presented in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Livings Standards Measurement groups 1, 5 and 10 in comparison to each other
(Adapted from South African Audience Research Foundation [SAARF], 2011)

Living Standards Measurement Level	Percentage of population	Gender	Age	Education	Household income (per month)	Urban/rural area	Media	General
1	1.9	Male & Female	50 plus	Primary school completed	R 1 369	Small urban/ rural Traditional hut	Radio	Minimal access to services Minimal ownership of durables except radios Activities: Minimal participation in activities, singing
5	17.4	Male & Female	25-34	Some high school	R 4 200	Small urban/ rural	Radio Television (TV): South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC) 1,2,3, e-TV, Top TV	Electricity, water, flush toilet TV, radio, stove, fridge Activities: singing, bake for pleasure, go to night clubs, buy lottery tickets
10	3	Male	35 plus	Grade 12 and tertiary	R 33 590	Urban	Wide range of commercial radio TV: SABC 1,2,3, e-TV, Electronic Media Network (M-Net), Digital Satellite Television (DStv) Daily & weekly newspapers, magazines Internet, cinema & outdoor	Full access to services and bank accounts Full ownership of durables: personal computer, Digital Versatile / Video Disk (DVD), satellite dish Increased participation in all activities

The research study entitled Project Reboot, which was conducted by the University of Cape Town's Unilever Institute of Strategic Marketing and their research partners Bateleur Khanya Research Solutions (BKRS), was the largest and most comprehensive of its kind that was ever carried out in South Africa during the recession in 2009. The aim of the study was to investigate how South Africans were coping with the "Big Squeeze". Even though many consumers stated that they were indeed experiencing the consequences of the recession, many others claimed that they had not yet (at the time) experienced the impact of the economic crisis. To understand these differences, Project Reboot segmented the LSM 5 plus

market into six groups, namely: Strugglers, Youth, Pre-family, Young families, Older Black middle class and Prime timers (Egan, 2010:1). Each group is further discussed below.

(a) Strugglers

This group is at the lower end of the earning spectrum (LSM 5 to 7) and is being squeezed the most. It was estimated that approximately half of economically active South Africans may be considered as 'Strugglers'. Strugglers are despondent and have no financial flexibility owing to the fact that food, transport and energy costs are high. Their wages and salaries are fixed, which means that they have to cut back on all non-essential categories of spending (Egan, 2010:1).

(b) Youth

The youth market (18 to 25 year olds, LSM 8 plus) comprises young adults who are either studying or have just entered the job market. This group is fairly accustomed to living in a relative state of permanent recession, as they are often reliant on student loans or parental hand outs and are used to being financially flexible (financial flexibility is the amount of room that consumers have with regard to spending) in order to maintain their lifestyle (Egan, 2010:2).

(c) Pre-families

This group (LSM 8 plus, 25 to 40 years of age, no children) generally has a reasonable amount of financial flexibility. Pre-families generally have fewer financial commitments and are free to indulge, but are aware that financial flexibility has been shortened. Their socialising behaviour has changed with many now choosing to socialise at home, and to place major purchases - such as cars - on hold (Egan, 2010:2).

(d) Young families

Like pre-families, young families (LSM 8 plus, children under 12 years) also have some financial flexibility. Family values and children's needs direct decision-making. Their financial flexibility is more limited and they are the sector that is most dependant on credit. Young families tend to make emotional compromises in relation to the needs of their children (for example, they will purchase luxuries instead of necessities) (Egan, 2010:2).

(e) Older black middle class

This group (black, LSM 7 plus, 40 plus years of age) enjoys the comforts of middle class lifestyle. They focus on repaying debt and avoid accumulating further debt. These consumers still readily purchase products and services that they perceive and experience as having excellent quality and value for money (Egan, 2010:2).

(f) Prime timers

Financially, wise prime timers (LSM 8 plus, 40 to 69 years) have lived through previous recessions and although not personally affected by the economic downturn, they are aware of its effects. Prime timers have the lowest reported level of debt, and are unlikely to reduce their monthly debt repayments (Egan, 2010:3).

The findings of the research revealed two population segments that are more recession resistant, namely the affluent and over 40-year-olds (prime timers) and the pre-family segment. Since pre-families have no children, they have no resulting financial obligations, while the affluent and over 40-year-olds are at a life-cycle stage, where they are essentially debt-free (Egan, 2010:1).

2.3.3.5 Social class and socio-economic status

Social class and socio-economic status are two terms, which are often used interchangeably to indicate individual social differences. Historically, social class has been used to refer to social boundaries that could not be crossed owing to conditions from birth (for example, social group/social standing). As societies around the world have advanced, many individuals during their lifetime have acquired the resources to move upward, and to achieve power beyond their inherited class (APA, 2007). For this reason, researchers have distinguished between inherited status, which is adopted from parents at birth, and earned status, which a person may acquire through personal achievements during their life (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2007:336).

The concept of socio-economic status is, therefore, considered as a more meaningful term, since one's social standing could be measured based on their social and economic power at a given stage in their life (APA, 2007). Social class, therefore, influences socio-economic status, which is in turn used to measure levels of social class. A socio-economic class is thus a group of individuals who have the same socio-economic status (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:369). Figure 2.8 has been compiled to illustrate the distinction between social class and socio-economic status/class.

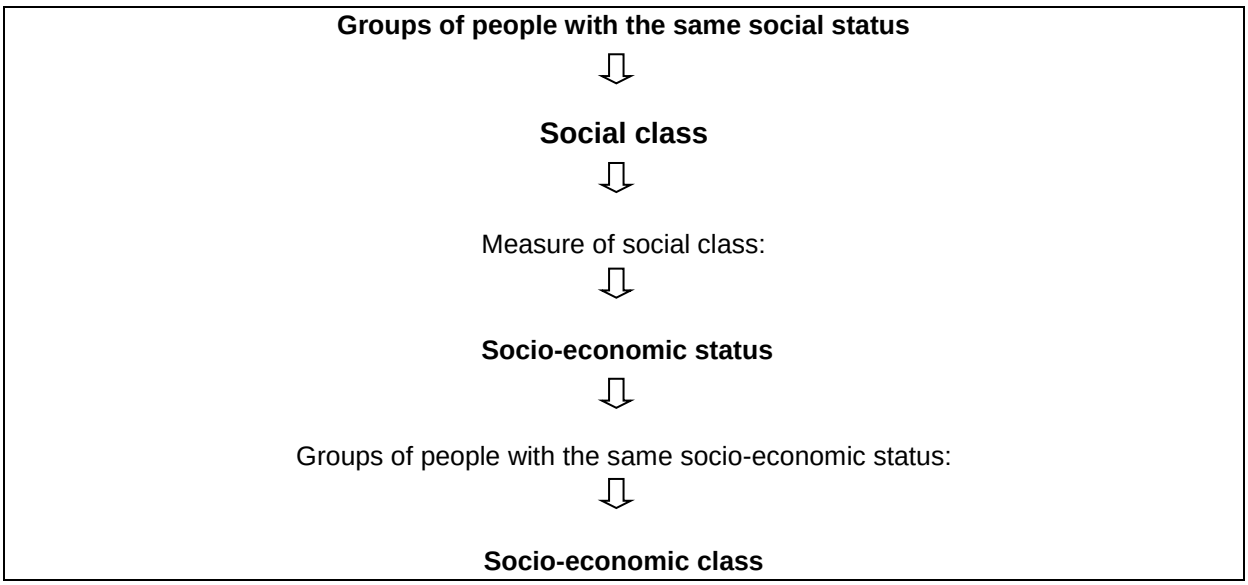


Figure 2.8: Diagram of the link between social class and socio-economic status/class

2.4 Time and economic resources

Geographic, demographic and socio-cultural segmentation variables influence consumers' food-buying preferences and behaviour (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:44, 48, 54). Many other external factors also influence consumer behaviour, yet they are beyond the scope of this study. The concepts of time, as well as the economic environment, are two external factors that are highly relevant to this study, and are discussed further.

2.4.1 Time

Consumers not only allocate income to goods, but also time to activities involved in obtaining them (Robinson & Nicosia, 1991:184). Time is a precious resource for consumers, and must be divided among activities (Solomon, 2011:376). Grocery shopping is typically perceived as a time-consuming activity. The total amount of time, which is spent on shopping overall varies, but it occupies, on average, five hours per week. Approximately half of that total time (two and a half hours) is spent on grocery shopping. How consumers allocate their time in order to make purchases depends on their attitude towards time, known as their 'time style'. For the term 'time style' to be understood, it must first be recognised that time is not a single concept and can be perceived in different ways. Time can be perceived as duration (clock time); as succession (a series of events); or as social time (discretionary time) (Chetthamrongchai & Davies, 2000:81, 84; Blackwell, Miniard & Engel, 2001:149). These time perceptions are associated with subcultural differences in society, which influence the way that individuals approach each stage of the decision-making process (Graham, 1981:338).

2.4.1.1 Time styles

Individuals with duration (clock time) as a dominant time concept will be concerned with how long an activity takes, while those who perceive time as succession will see life as organized around a series of events, where the length of time that is taken to complete an activity is less important than the activity itself (Chetthamrongchai & Davies, 2000:84). Individuals have social or discretionary time available when they feel no sense of economic, legal, moral, social or physical compulsion or obligation to perform an activity (Blackwell *et al*., 2001:149).

Within this 'time style', each individual has a preferred 'time orientation' – defined by events of the past, the present or those expected in the future – where the individuals' thoughts tend to focus. For example, past-orientated individuals are more conscious of tradition and the ways of their parents, while future-orientated individuals are more likely to consider the impact of current actions on what might occur subsequently. Present-orientated individuals are unlikely to plan ahead or to be dominated by traditional values. Each individual has elements of all three orientations in their life, one of which may dominate to give a distinct orientation (Davies & Madran, 1997:80; Chetthamrongchai & Davies, 2000:84).

Modern, Western societies are dominated by the concept of duration or clock time. Consumers feel that they are experiencing greater demands on their time, which leads to a feeling of time pressure. Time-pressed people are generally always in a rush and are constantly looking for ways to save time. They tend to adopt time-saving strategies, which include: the purchasing of convenience food, bulk buying and shopping at less busy times in less busy locations. They also tend to purchase fewer products than intended, make fewer unplanned purchases (as they buy only what they need), spend less time comparing product brands, prices and attributes (Davies & Madran, 1997:80; Chetthamrongchai & Davies, 2000:83; Blackwell *et al*., 2001:151). A hasty and insufficient search for items may in turn lead to inaccurate conclusions about the availability of a product, and cause consumers to give up many of their purchase plans (Park, Iyer & Smith, 1989:423). Time can, therefore, affect a consumer's ability and opportunity to process information and make decisions (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2007:67).

2.4.1.2 Frequency and duration of grocery shopping trips

Demands on everyday personal and professional life have increased for most people, causing greater time pressures and increasing the need for shoppers to optimize their time, which is spent on shopping. Subsequently, there have been changes in shopping behaviours and a reduction in the number of shopping trips that are made by households. Many shoppers, especially highly time-sensitive shoppers, economize on the amount of time that is

spent shopping, by making multi-purpose shopping trips and purchasing considerably higher quantities per item. Households may purchase in larger quantities to not only save time, but also travel costs (Popkowski Leszczyc, Sinha & Sahgal, 2004:85, 88, 95). According to the Nielsen's August 2012 Global Shopping Report, more than 35% of consumers, globally, consider the cost of travelling to buy groceries a major obstacle owing to rising fuel prices (Nielsen Company, 2012:3). Households that have greater access to stores are likely to have lower travel costs (in the form of less travel time and lower transportation costs). The frequency of shopping trips can thus be expected to increase with accessibility to grocery stores (Bawa & Ghosh, 1999:153).

Frequency of shopping trips may also be related to consumers' demand for products (MacKay, 1973:84). MacKay (1973:84, 89) investigated the relationship between consumers' frequency of shopping trips to supermarkets and their demand for products, as well as time available for shopping (disposable time). It was found that households with a low demand for products and little disposable time are characterized by regular or consistent shopping patterns, while households with a high demand for products and plenty of disposable time have a high degree of variance in their shopping patterns. Thus, households under high time pressure tend to adhere to a regular shopping plan (to shop once a week or month) and tend to not demand unnecessary products, whereas households with more time available tend to have a higher demand for products (since they have more time available, they may purchase products that are not necessarily needed), and have no pre-determined or specific shopping pattern (MacKay, 1973:84, 89). It was found in studies, which were conducted by Bassler and Newell (1982:148), Smith and Carsky (1996:78), Yoo, Baranowski, Missaghian, Baranowski, Cullen, O Fisher, Watson, Zakeri and Nicklas (2006:387), as well as East, Wright and Vanhuele (2008:60) that one weekly main trip and one or more secondary 'quick' trips were the most common food-shopping patterns among respondents.

In a study, which was conducted by McDonald (1994:355), the role of personal characteristics in time use in shopping, was investigated. An association between various demographic variables and duration of grocery shopping trips was identified. It was found that the amount of time spent in store is less for men, those who work, and those with higher incomes. Those with larger households tend to spend more time in stores (McDonald, 1994:355). Each of these variables is discussed further below.

- Women, in general, have the primary responsibility of household shopping and thus search for information more so than men. It is, therefore, logical that, compared to men, women spend more time in stores (McDonald, 1994:355; Dholakia, 1999:154).

- A household in which both adults have full-time employment is likely to have less time available to shop and, therefore, make fewer trips and spend less time in stores compared to a household, which has one or no members employed full-time (Bawa & Ghosh, 1999:152,157).

- According to Blackwell *et al*. (2001:149) and Bawa and Ghosh (1999:152,157), studies show that the higher an individual's or household's income, the busier they are, thus increasing the value of their time. As a result, the amount of time that the consumer is willing to spend on shopping activities often decreases. In an older study, which was conducted by Strober and Weinberg (1980:347), it was found that income, as well as life-cycle stage combined, are more accurate determinants of time use.

- Larger households are likely to require a larger quantity and greater variety of products, since they consume more than smaller households and have more individual product likes and dislikes. Larger households may need to make more shopping trips and spend more time in stores selecting products compared to smaller households (Bawa & Ghosh, 1999:153).

Time and money are essential resources for human life. Although these two resources are closely related, they impact on consumer behaviour differently (Liu & Aaker, 2008:543). It must be noted that time and money is somewhat interchangeable, since time may be converted into money by working (Arndt & Gronmo, 1977:230). It is generally only during pre-purchase and post-purchase activities that consumers experience the worth of time and money given to an activity. Consumers will decide whether or not the amount of time spent on an activity is worth its perceived monetary cost (Robinson & Nicosia, 1991:182). Herrington and Capella (1995:13) further add that, in general, shoppers tend to spend less time making a purchase, and more money in the time that is available to them.

2.4.2 Economic

Economic resources (money or income, credit and wealth) provide consumers with an ability to make purchases (Pride & Ferrell, 2012:70) and are, therefore, an important variable in explaining why, what and when consumers buy (Blackwell *et al*., 2001:202; Joubert, 2007:137). The method of payment that is used may also be interpreted as an economic resource that may potentially affect consumer behaviour. However, it can be inferred from prior research concerning consumers' preferred method of payment that the payment instrument that is selected does not necessarily *influence* consumer behaviour, but is rather a *reflection* of consumer preference and ability to access certain means of payment (Jonker,

2007:271; Borzekowski, Kiser & Ahmed, 2008:149; Klee, 2008:526; Arango & Taylor, 2009:1). The method of payment that is used is discussed further below.

2.4.2.1 Method of payment

In deciding how often to use their method of payment, consumers may consider the following factors, which ultimately impact consumer behaviour and the method of payment, which is used.

- Acceptance: Some merchants or grocery stores do not accept certain methods of payment. If consumers think that the merchant may not accept debit or credit cards, they will carry cash with them (Jonker, 2007:284; Arango & Taylor, 2009:2).

- Speed and convenience: Recent studies by Borzekowski *et al.* (2008:158) and Borzekowski and Kiser (2008:892) show that speed and convenience is a significant driver of consumers' method of payment. Estimates of payment time at the till point show that, on average, cash is the fastest payment method, followed by debit cards and credit cards (Jonker, 2007:284).

- Security: When using cash, consumers face the risk of theft, counterfeit, or loss (Arango & Taylor, 2009:2). However, as Kahn, McAndrews and Roberds (2005:2) show, consumers may prefer the anonymity of cash for privacy reasons, or because using debit or credit cards may increase their exposure to vulnerability to fraudulent activities, including the unauthorized use of a stolen card.

- Access to funds: In order to make a cash payment, instant physical money is required. Debit and credit cards provide consumers with secure and immediate access to "electronic" money at the point of purchase (Arango & Taylor, 2009:3).

- Fees and rewards: Paying by means of cash implicates many costs such as withdrawal fees, cost of time spent obtaining cash, and the interest that is forgone from carrying cash balances. When using debit cards consumers may face per-transaction costs, or they may experience interest costs if credit card balances are not paid in full by the due date (Arango & Taylor, 2009:3). Most consumers in the study, which was conducted by Schuh and Stavins (2010:1755) rate cheques lower than other payment methods (cash, debit and credit cards) in cost and convenience.

- Record keeping: Debit and credit cards enable consumers to keep record of all payments that are made and, in the case of credit cards, build a credit history. In contrast, it is difficult to keep record of cash payments, as it leaves no electronic trace of payment (Arango & Taylor, 2009:3; Schuh & Stavins, 2010:1755).

- Budgeting control: Using cash or debit cards may help consumers to control their budget, and to avoid overspending (Arango & Taylor, 2009:3). In a Dutch study, which was conducted by Jonker (2007:284), a reason cited by many consumers who paid mostly in cash was that it helped them to monitor their expenses (they could see their purses emptying). Jonker (2007:284) concluded that this may be a major reason why some consumers prefer cash to electronic payments.

Consumers use cash and debit cards most often (Jonker, 2007:283). Even though South Africans perceive cash as a status symbol (Visa, 2012), debit cards have begun to replace cash and substitute for cheques at the point of sale (Humphrey, 2004:211; Borzekowski *et al.,* 2008:149). A strong predictor of debit card usage, is income (Borzekowski *et al.,* 2008:156). This has been confirmed by Klee (2008:537) who identifies that the probability of consumers using a debit card increases as income increases, whereas the probability of them using a cheque or credit card decreases. Even so, some consumers may pay by credit card if they do not have sufficient cash available, or they want to postpone payment until a later date (Jonker, 2007:286).

Compared to low income consumers, high income consumers may have more positive attitudes towards credit card use, because they are less likely to have restricted access to credit and have a greater ability to repay their debts (Chien & Devaney, 2001:162). According to Klee (2008:538), cheque writers and credit card users may be more price sensitive than consumers who use other forms of payment. However, some consumers may use fewer cheques because of the increased availability and acceptance of alternative payment methods (Schuh & Stavins, 2010:1757; Kamhunga, 2012).

In general, consumers have four choices of how to pay for everyday purchases: cash, debit card, credit card and cheque (Klee, 2008:528). Some consumers also have access to buy aids. Cape Consumers, previously known as the State Employees' Buy-Aid Association (SEBAA) may be one of the most recognised buy aid organizations. Cape Consumers issues consumers with a Cape Consumers/b-Smart or Buy Aid card, which consumers may use when shopping. The company negotiates discounts with selected retailers on behalf of cardholders. This discount is then paid as a bonus (in November each year) to the cardholders based on their purchases for the previous purchase year (16 June - 15 June) (Cape Consumers, 2013).

The economic environment has a vast impact on private consumption expenditure. Although income plays a major role in determining consumer spending and method of payment used, there are many other contributing factors such as prices, the availability of credit and wealth (Joubert, 2007:137; Pride & Ferrell, 2012:69). Consumer spending is further influenced by the extent to which people are optimistic or pessimistic about the future of the economy, which is referred to as consumer confidence (Solomon, Bamossy, Askegaard & Hogg, 2006:430). Consumer confidence influences whether consumers will decide to increase their debt, or defer spending to pay off debt (Blackwell *et al*., 2001:202). Levels of income, debt, wealth and savings within the household, as well as the availability of credit, have a vast impact on consumers' spending patterns and behaviour (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:256).

2.4.2.2 Effects of employment and income on consumer spending

For an individual, income is the amount of money that is received through wages, investments, pensions, and subsidy payments for a given period such as a month or a year (Pride & Ferrell, 2012:69). Consumers' level of income is vastly affected by their employment status. The severe recessionary conditions in the first half of 2009 were reflected in massive job losses and a subsequent high level of unemployment in 2010 (SARB, 2011:13). Stats SA's household-based Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS), Quarter 1, 2012, estimated that over a million jobs were lost between the end of 2008 and the middle of 2010. By the beginning of 2012, only 447 000 of these employment opportunities were regained (Stats SA, 2012c:vii). The Census 2011 results further show that among the Black African and Coloured population, the unemployment rate is higher than among any other population group, while among the White population group the unemployment rate is the lowest (Stats SA, 2012a:51). It can be inferred that a sustained period of high growth will, therefore, be required in order to obtain a significant improvement in employment opportunities within the country.

Purchasing power and expenditure patterns are represented mainly by the size of consumers' personal disposable income. Personal disposable income (PDI) is the portion of personal income, which households can spend or save once direct income tax and credit (loans from banks and other institutions) have been deducted. Purchasing power is thus described as the amount of disposable income that is available after fixed commitments (debt, rent, and so on) and essential household needs are taken care of (Smit, Cronjé, Brevis & Vrba, 2007:65). The amount of purchasing power that a consumer has is directly related to their employment status and level of income. For example, should an individual be unemployed, and/or receive a low income, they would be more likely to use their money sparingly (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2003:416).

Because of major differences in people's educational levels, abilities, occupations and wealth (Pride & Ferrell, 2012:69), South Africa has one of the most unequal distributions of personal income in the world, which is clearly evident in the population groups (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2003:425; Altman *et al*., 2009:7). Figure 2.9 illustrates the average annual household income across different population groups within South Africa for 2001 and 2011. Although there has been an increase in household incomes across all population groups, there remains an unequal distribution of income. Black African-headed households were found to have an average annual income of R60 613 in 2011. Coloured-headed households had an average of R112 172 in 2011, while the figure for Indian/Asian-headed households stood at R251 541. White-headed households had the highest average household income at R365 134 per annum (Stats SA, 2012a:39).

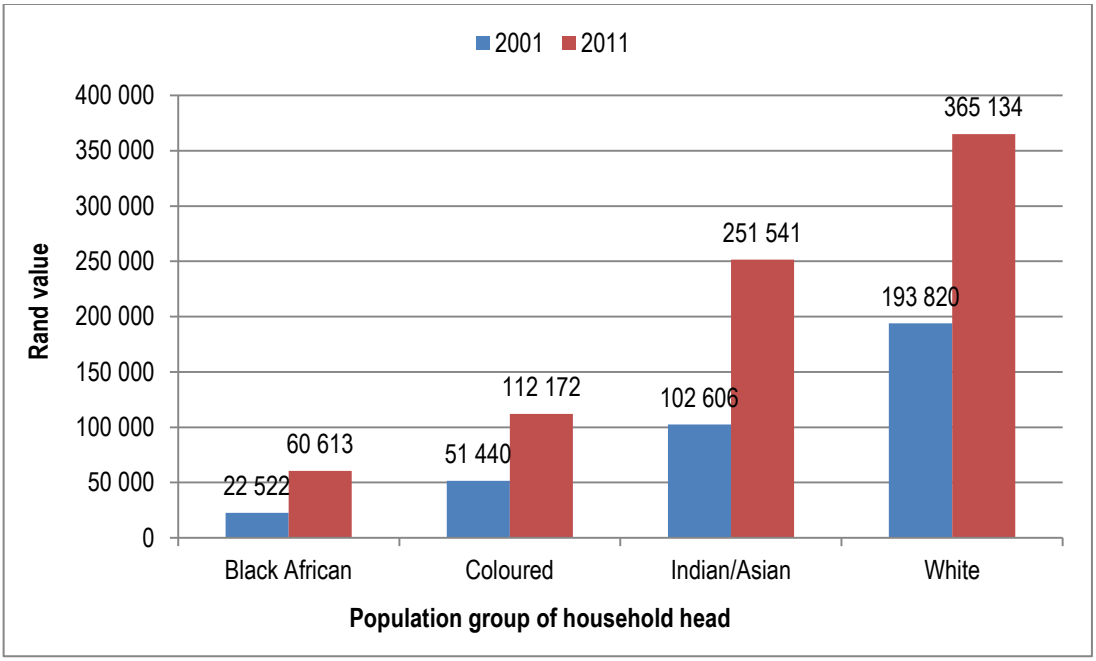


Figure 2.9: Average annual household income by population group of household head, 2001 and 2011 in comparison to each other
(Source: Adapted from Stats SA, 2012a:39)

It is generally accepted that there is an inverse relationship between income level and the amount of money, which is allocated to food purchasing. Low-income earners (who earn less than R30 000 per annum) have expenditure patterns that are different to those of high-income earners (who earn above R10 000 per month) (Sanlier & Karakus, 2010:140). As income increases, food spending also increases, but the proportion of income, which is devoted to food declines. Lower-income households thus devote a larger percentage of their total expenditure to food, while in each successively higher income group the amount that is

spent on food declines as a percentage of total expenditure (Frazao *et al*., 2007:3). This statement has been verified by Stats SA (2005/2006:18), which states that in low-income households, 37% of personal disposable income is allocated to food and non-alcoholic beverages, while high-income households allocate only 10%. Low percentages indicate that households have more discretionary income available to spend on other products and services than on food (Martins, 2007:210).

Household income directly affects a family's ability to afford and procure food (Turrell *et al*., 2004:209) and is subsequently associated with budget constraints on grocery shopping behaviours (Kim & Park, 1997:509). In the study, which was conducted by Dinkins (1997:35), consumers who adhered to strict food budgets were significantly more likely to have a lower education and household income, as well as more people within their household. These consumers were also significantly less likely to complete a list before shopping, stock up when brands were on sale, comparison shop, and redeem coupons.

2.4.2.3 Household debt, credit, wealth and saving

In general, spending and saving behaviour of individuals is determined by various factors such as their material and social needs, tradition, standard of living, existing indebtedness, wealth and disposable income. As previously mentioned, a household's consumption expenditure is mostly determined by the level of actual and anticipated changes in consumers' income, as well as their ability to make use of credit (Prinsloo, 2002:62).

Since consumers are unable to make purchases without money or credit (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2003:415), increased food prices, as well as the restricted ability of certain consumers to access credit, has influenced household spending on non-durable goods to shift away from generally higher-priced categories (Egan, 2010:1). This change in spending behaviour is not indicative of a confident consumer; instead, it is reflective of weak consumer confidence and an anticipated low growth in personal disposable income (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2003:418). This is supported by the SARB March 2012 Financial Stability Review Report, where it was indicated that there has been a declining level of consumer confidence within the country. This may be owing to uncertainties caused by rising fuel and electricity prices, coupled with the possibility of increased transport costs resulting from the predicted toll fees in the Gauteng Province, and the fear of introducing toll fees in other major cities (SARB, 2012b:37). Furthermore, it is important to measure household debt, credit, wealth and savings appropriately in order to evaluate consumer spending behaviour (Prinsloo, 2002:63).

(i) Household debt and credit

The recent economic recession in South Africa has prevented shoppers from purchasing items that they cannot afford, which has caused them to avoid debt (Deon, 2011:5432). Generally, debt (including household debt) refers to an obligation or liability, which arises from borrowing money or taking goods or services 'on credit' (Prinsloo, 2002:63). Credit cards offer the convenience of purchasing things 'now' by borrowing money and paying it back at a later stage (Frank, 1997:B1; Norum, 2008:271). The use and availability of credit is thus mainly related to consumers' eagerness and the convenience to purchase 'now' rather than postponing buying for the future when sufficient cash is available. The availability of credit, therefore, makes it easier and convenient for households to spend. Essentially, households surrender future purchases. This is because the amount of income that is available at that later stage would become less, as it will be used to settle credit debts and meet interest commitments (Prinsloo, 2002:63).

The National Credit Act (NCA) has both positive and negative influences on access to credit. While the act allows credit providers to provide credit to those who could not profitably have been served before, the NCA now requires some form of affordability assessment, which can inhibit the granting of credit (Hawkins, 2009:2). An individual's ability to purchase on credit is determined by their current income, as well as past income (wealth) (Hawkins *et al*., 2001:117). The distribution of credit within South Africa remains unequal owing to unequal income distribution within the country (Hawkins, 2009:2). Therefore, not all South African consumers have access to credit cards or are eligible to receive credit (Joubert, 2007:13).

(ii) Household wealth

Wealth is a measure of the total value of an individual's or family's net worth (also known as equity), which can be determined by their total assets in things such as bank accounts, stocks and property minus their total liabilities. Net worth influences the willingness to spend, but not necessarily ability to spend, since most wealth is not in cash or credit and cannot be spent easily (Blackwell *et al*., 2001:202).

Like income, wealth is unevenly distributed. A person can have a high income and little wealth. It is also possible, but not likely, for a person to have great wealth, but little income (Pride & Ferrell, 2012:70). Household wealth in South Africa has risen sharply since the mid-1980s, but more specifically from 1993 onwards. This rise was caused by increases in both equity and housing prices. The low saving rate among households is consequently a sign

that consumers feel comfortable with the growth of their net worth, and find little motivation to limit their expenditure in order to increase their net worth even further (Prinsloo, 2002:74).

Furthermore, there is a known relationship between income and net worth, but the amount of wealth from income that people accumulate over time, is more a function of how much they save rather than how much they earn (Blackwell *et al*., 2001:202). Although household net wealth within South Africa is gradually increasing once again since the recession (SARB, 2012c:12), an immense *inequality* of wealth within the country remains a problem (Martins, 2007:216).

(iii) Household saving

Saving can be defined as that part of income, which follows the payment of taxes that is not consumed or transferred as part of household expenditure. An increase in the utilization of consumer credit will consequently lead to a decline in the saving of private households, unless the amount of credit is counteracted by a similar or stronger increase in the assets or income of the consumer (Prinsloo, 2002:73).

According to the March 2012 Financial Stability Review Report, there continues to be high levels of household debt and low levels of saving amongst South African households. The recession has, however, made consumers reconsider their financial priorities and review their spending habits more carefully (SARB, 2012b:37). Carl Fischer, Capitec Bank Executive: Marketing and Corporate Affairs states that the negative effects of the recession affected many South Africans, rich and poor alike. He further adds that "…it is important that consumers become prudent spenders, that they learn to *really* stick to a budget and that they take a long, hard look at the importance of living within their means." Mr Fischer further advised consumers to make use of money-saving practices in order to guard against uncertain financial times (Capitec Bank, 2009).

Households have begun to exercise caution with their finances (SARB, 2012b:37) and moderate their purchases in response to recent strong food, petrol and electricity price increases (SARB, 2012d:6, 7). In addition to this, consumer credit facilities have become less freely available owing to the NCA, which makes it more difficult for consumers to spend money without considering their financial position (Hawkins, 2009:2). Decisions about household budgets can, therefore, influence the economic well-being of families (Dinkins, 1997:34).

Every household has a main decision-maker, though some may have more than one. This is the person or people with the financial authority or power to choose how the household's

money will be spent (Solomon, 2011:461), and on which products or brands. In most homes, the main decision-maker is also the buyer or shopper, as they visit the store and make the actual purchase. The main decision-maker may influence the price that is paid for food. In turn, this affects the household's budget constraints and; hence, the quantity of goods that are consumed. The household's welfare can, therefore, be increased, should the food shopping activities be allocated to household members who are more efficient in terms of obtaining a lower price for items (Blaylock & Smallwood, 1987:189). The household member who shops for food often depends not so much on who wants to do it, but on who has the most time available and/or is most efficient in searching for the lowest prices (Herrington & Capella, 1995:13). The main decision-maker, therefore, has an influence on the spending and saving behaviour of the household (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:365).

The consumer decision-making process, which forms an integral part of consumer behaviour (Lamb *et al*., 2004:142), focuses on how consumers spend their available resources (such as time and money) on personal and household products in order to satisfy their needs (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000:7). The decision-making process too has a vast impact on consumer spending patterns and behaviour (Lamb *et al*., 2004:142), and is discussed in detail in the next section.

2.5 Consumer decision-making process

When consumers purchase goods or services they experience a decision-making process, which begins with the realization that they need or want something, and ends with the purchase, usage and evaluation of the item that was purchased (Wright, 2006:27). Consumer decision-making is a cognitive process that cannot be observed. It consists of mental activities that determine what actions are undertaken to fulfil a need (Cant *et al*., 2006:193).

In analysing the types of decisions that consumers make, Wilkie (1990:563) suggests two dimensions that should be considered: the substance of the decision (what is decided) and the complexity of the decision.

2.5.1 Substance variations in decisions

There are four basic types of decisions that must be made: budget allocations, product purchase (or not), store patronage and brand and style choice (Wilkie, 1990:563).

- *Budget allocation* involves consumers' choices of how to spend (or save) their money, how to time their spending, and whether to loan money in order to purchase. Consumers do not give the same amount of consideration to budget constraints. Some will pre-plan effectively and thoroughly, and always consider their budget, while other consumers rarely consider their budget constraints when making a decision. Most consumers, however, are somewhere in-between. These "in-between" consumers may allocate a portion of their budget to necessities, and use the remaining (discretionary) funds for spending or saving, as they see fit (Wilkie, 1990:563).

- *Product purchase or not* reflects choices that are made regarding each specific product or service category. The consumer must decide which product to purchase, as well as when to purchase it (Wilkie, 1990:563).

- *Store patronage* refers to the decision of which source (store) to shop at to purchase the product (Wilkie, 1990:563).

- *Brand and style decisions* differ depending on a variety of variables, including the consumer's personal preference, past experience, and of course their budget (if it is taken into consideration) (Wilkie, 1990:563).

2.5.2 Complexity variations in decisions

The consumer decision-making process is generally perceived as long and tedious, but not all consumer decision-making situations require the same degree of information search and effort (Solomon, 2011:332). On a scale of effort, which ranges from high to low, the following three levels of consumer decision-making can be distinguished (Cant *et al*., 2002:180):

2.5.2.1 Extensive decision-making

When the decision process is detailed and the consumer has no established criteria to evaluate a product, extensive problem solving often occurs. The consumer frequently requires a great deal of external and internal search for product information in order to make the right decision. A lot of thought and evaluation of multiple alternatives, therefore, precedes the act of purchase. Many consumers face this process when making their first purchase in an important product category (for example, house buying and purchase of a car) (Wilkie, 1990:565; Hawkins *et al*., 2001:507; Cant *et al*., 2002:180; Blackwell *et al*., 2006:89; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:526).

2.5.2.2 Limited decision-making

At this level of problem solving, consumers have previously established basic criteria to evaluate the specific product, but have not completely established their product or brand preferences. This is because consumers place more emphasis on searching for a suitable alternative and are less concerned about investigating the product itself. With limited problem solving, there is, therefore, little information search or evaluation of the actual product. Most consumer decisions involve this level of decision-making (Wilkie, 1990:565; Hawkins *et al*., 2001:506; Blackwell *et al*., 2006:89; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:526).

2.5.2.3 Habitual decision-making

At this level, consumers are familiar with the product and have a developed set of criteria with which to evaluate the brands that they are considering. Repeat purchases are thus generally made on the basis of habits or routines that simplify life for the consumer. In some circumstances, the consumer may search for additional information; but in most, they simply review what they already know (Wilkie, 1990:565; Blackwell *et al*., 2006:91; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:527). Most low-priced and frequently purchased items (for example, groceries), which are frequently consumed, involve this type of decision-making (Batra & Kazmi, 2008:391).

Habitual decisions can be categorised into brand-loyalty and repeat buying (Cant *et al*., 2002:180).

- With brand-loyalty, consumers become committed to the brand that they have chosen through a previous decision-making process, because they feel that it meets their overall needs. There is some degree of psychological commitment to the brand (Cant *et al*., 2002:180; Batra & Kazmi, 2008:391).
- Repeat buying behaviour is not the same as brand-loyalty. Repeat buying behaviour refers to a pattern of brand choice over time simply because consumers continuously buy the same brand out of convenience, and do not have a psychological commitment to the brand (Cant *et al*., 2002:180).

2.5.3 Decision-making models

Before presenting an overview model of how consumers make decisions, it must be noted that consumer decision-making is depicted by researchers in different ways. The term “models of consumers” refers to a general view or perspective as to how (and why)

consumers behave the way that they do. Models of consumers regarding their decision-making process have been examined in terms of the following four views (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:528), which are outlined below.

2.5.3.1 Economic view

The theory of economics portrays a world of perfect competition in which the consumer is considered to make rational decisions. To behave rationally, in an economic sense, a consumer would have to be aware of all available product alternatives, have the capability to correctly rank product alternatives in terms of benefits and disadvantages, and be able to identify the best alternative. Some argue that consumer behaviour cannot be rational, as consumers possess limited knowledge and skills; certain values may dominate their goals and decisions; and consumers operate in an imperfect world, where the consumer is generally unwilling to engage in extensive decision-making. The economic view and rational consumer behaviour seem too idealistic and simplistic (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:528).

2.5.3.2 Passive view

In the passive view, consumers are perceived as impulsive and irrational purchasers who are submissive to the promotional efforts of marketers. The main limitation of the passive model is the fact that consumers play a dominant role in most buying situations by either seeking information regarding the product and product alternatives, or by selecting the product that offers the greatest personal satisfaction. Consumers are, therefore, rarely victims of marketing manipulation. The passive view is also considered as unrealistic (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:528).

2.5.3.3 Cognitive view

The cognitive view model depicts consumers as having ability to think and solve problems. Consumers are described as falling between the economic and passive views, as they are unlikely to even attempt to obtain all available information concerning every product alternative and, therefore, cannot make “perfect” decisions, but rather seek information and attempts to make satisfactory decisions (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:529).

2.5.3.4 Emotional view

An emotional view involves the evaluation of product alternatives within more abstract parameters. Consumers are likely to associate feelings or emotions with certain purchases, and these abstract elements should be taken into consideration when considering consumers' purchase decisions. When consumers make an emotional purchase decision, they tend to concentrate less on searching for pre-purchase information and more on their current mood and feelings at the time of the purchase (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:530).

Consumers possess and implement a variety of consumer decision-making views and strategies, depending on the product, situation and their previous experience (Solomon, 1996:269). However, consumers, in general, engage in both cognitive and emotional information processing prior to a purchase (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:530).

2.5.4 Consumer decision-making models

Consumer decision-making models are widely used in consumer behaviour research to structure theory (Erasmus, Boshoff & Rousseau, 2001:82). These models have been described as flow charts of behavioural processes (Du Plessis, Rousseau & Blem, 1991:18). Some of the most well-known consumer decision-making models were developed in the 1960's and 1970's. Howard developed the first model in 1963 (Du Plessis *et al*., 1991:10). Others include the Nicosia- (1966); Howard– Sheth– (1969); Engel, Kollat and Blackwell– (1968); Andreason- (1965); Hansen- (1972); and Markin-models (1968/1974) (Erasmus *et al*., 2001:83). Differences between models lie mainly in their emphasis on certain variables, and in the manner of presentation (Du Plessis *et al*., 1991:32).

Consumer decision-making is depicted as a multi-staged process with many factors, which trigger problem recognition before initiating a sequence of actions that ultimately leads to a final outcome of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Many of the consumer behaviour text books, which contain consumer behaviour models classify the elements of the consumer decision process into the following five steps: (i) problem recognition / pre-search stage; (ii) information search; (iii) evaluation of alternatives; (iv) choice or decision and purchase; and (v) outcome evaluation (Wilkie, 1990:567; Blackwell *et al*., 2006:70; Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:260; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:531). Some prefer to include one or more additional stages to place importance on certain activities such as blocking mechanisms, which are obstacles that consumers could face when making a decision. Blocking mechanisms may occur at any stage in the process, and may include a lack of funds or credit facilities or the simple unavailability of a product or need for more information (Du Plessis & Rousseau,

2003:263,266). It must be noted that no one consumer decision-making model could fully reflect all stages of the consumer decision-making process in a purchase decision, and that consumers use different decision-making strategies in different situations (Erasmus *et al*., 2001:86). Figure 2.10 below is an overview model of consumer decision-making that reflects the cognitive (or problem-solving) consumer and, to some degree, the emotional consumer, while tying together various factors, which influence consumer behaviour, and the consumer decision-making process. This model complements and combines consumer decision-making models, which were established by Wilkie (1990:567), Blackwell *et al*. (2006:70), Du Plessis and Rousseau (2007:260), Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:531), as well as Noel (2009:134), and represents a different approach. Furthermore, it serves to illustrate the decision-making process, which relates to the purchase of food products.

The model, depicted in Figure 2.10, has three major components: input, pre-purchase processes and output. The specific stages in the decision-making process are present in each component and have been indicated as “Stage one, Stage two” and so on in the text.

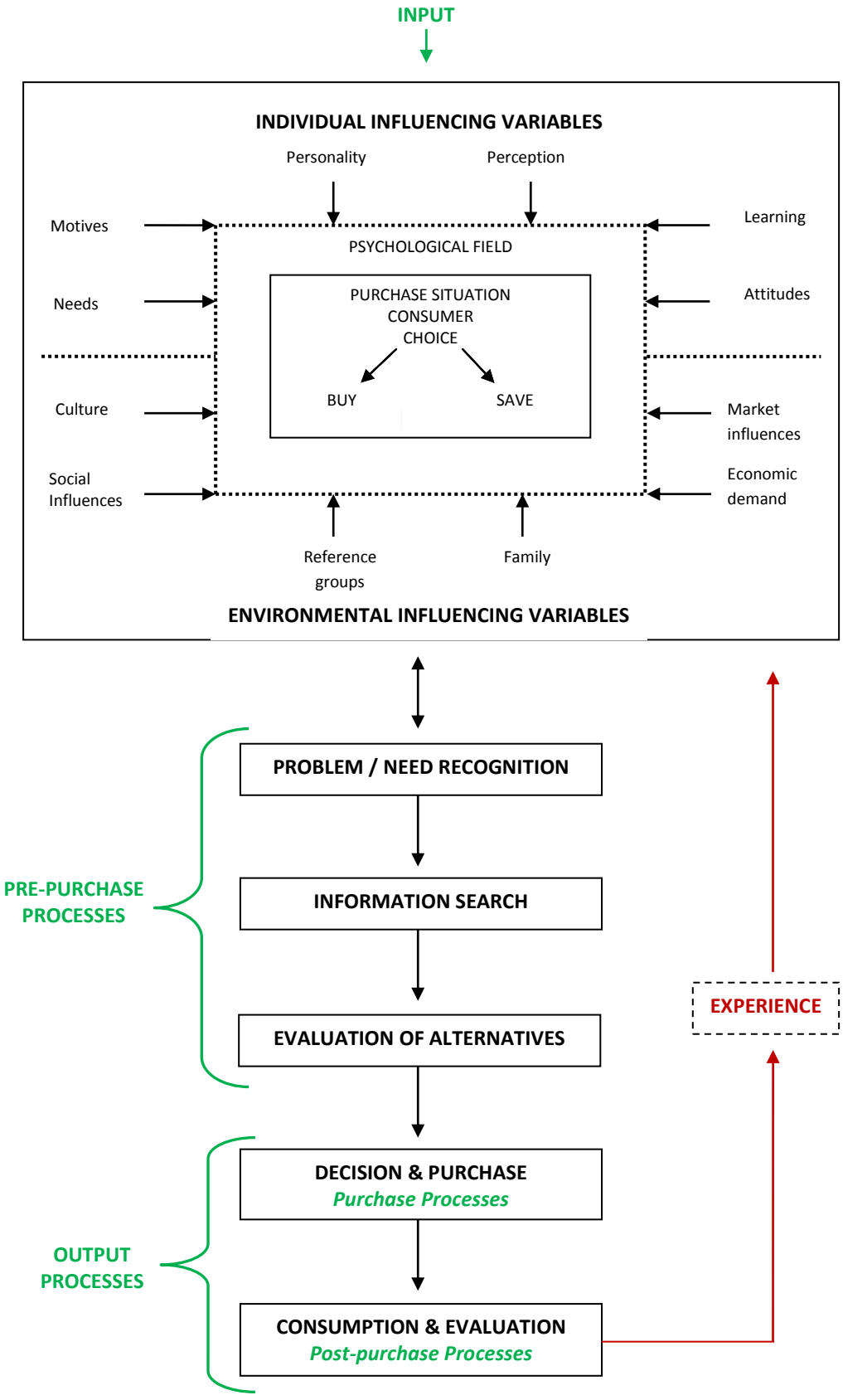


Figure 2.10: Consumer decision-making process model
(Source: Adapted from Wilkie, 1990:567; Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:70; Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:260; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:531; Noel, 2009:134)

2.5.4.1 Input

When in a buying situation, the primary decision that consumers make is whether to spend or save their money. The outcome of this decision will depend on many influencing variables, which can be divided into two broad categories: internal or individual influencing variables, and external or environmental influencing variables (Cant *et al*., 2002:174; Batra & Kazmi, 2008:379). These variables serve as sources of information about products and influence consumers' product-related values, attitudes and behaviour (Rousseau, 2007:260; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:531; Blackwell *et al*., 2006:87).

The psychological field surrounding the consumer represents their internal frame of reference which determines how they will act or make a decision in a given situation (Rousseau, 2007:262; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:532). This psychological field comprises all influencing variables that continuously and simultaneously interact together to play an important role in the final outcome of a consumer's choice in a purchase situation. An individual will combine information from their external environment with their inner needs, motives, perceptions and attitudes (Cant *et al*., 2006:194). Slama and Taschian (1985:72) remind us that individual differences make some consumers more interested, concerned, or involved in the decision-making process, and that consumers' level of involvement in the purchasing activity influences their purchase behaviour.

2.5.4.2 Pre-purchase processes

The pre-purchase process component of the model focuses on the initial decision-making stages that consumers experience prior to making the final purchase decision. To understand this process, the influence of the psychological field must be considered. The pre-purchase process consists of three stages (Wilkie, 1990:567; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:532), which are presented below.

(i) Stage one: Problem/Need recognition

The starting point of any purchase decision is a consumer need or problem (Thiagarajan, Ponder, Leug, Worthy & Taylor, 2009:208). A problem exists when a consumer has some purchasing needs and is uncertain about how to satisfy them (Rousseau, 2007:263). The recognition of a need, however, is likely to occur when a consumer is faced with a problem (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:532). Problem/need recognition represents the first step in the consumer decision-making process (Wilkie, 1990:568), and varies depending on the impact of various influencing variables (Cant *et al*., 2006:196). The remainder of the decision-

making process is then invoked to determine exactly how the consumer will solve the problem and satisfy the need (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:71). It must be noted that in the context of consumer decision-making, the term "problem" may not necessarily be something unpleasant, but it may represent an opportunity such as the chance to obtain good savings on a product (Wilkie, 1990:568).

(ii) Stage two: Information search

At this stage, the decision process to solve the problem begins (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2007:198). Wilkie (1990:572) states that the phrase *consumer information search* refers to a deliberate attempt to gain knowledge about a product, store or purchase. The gatekeeper within the household is usually the person with the most interest and/or expertise in searching for information. This person controls the information gate or point at which information enters the household and can thereby influence product selection (Lantos, 2011:265). Information is evoked and sought from internal, as well as external sources and then organized within the individual's frame of reference (Hanna & Wozniak, 2001:295; Hoyer & MacInnis, 2007:198; Rousseau, 2007:267). Wilkie (1990:575) further adds that the overall theory of information search is based on costs versus benefits. Gathering information involves an investment of time and effort of the part of the consumer (Govindasamy, Kumaraswamy, Puduri & Onyango, 2007:49). Consumers will search more if they perceive either high benefits from the search, or perceive the cost of the search to be low. When an opposite scenario exists, consumers tend to search less for information (Putrevu & Ratchford, 1997:475).

Consumers' search for information, in the context of grocery shopping, may include comparing prices of different brands, reading advertised "specials" or seeking advice from friends. Information search can also yield psychological satisfactions such as a greater sense of personal value (due to caution and consequent saving), and pride in making responsible decisions (Putrevu & Lord, 2001:127,129). In a study, which was conducted by McDonald (1994:355) in which time used for shopping and the role of personal characteristics were evaluated, it was found that women tend to search for information more than men; singles search more than those who are married; those who are employed search less than those who are unemployed or retired; brand and store loyal consumers search less; older consumers search more than younger consumers; and households with higher incomes search less than those with lower incomes. Noel (2009:140) further adds that consumers weigh the cost of searching for information (time and effort) against the benefit that the information provides such as a cheaper product. In general, consumers gather information to make improved shopping decisions. This is supported by Putrevu and Ratchford's

(1997:475) study, which indicates that consumers' search for information is positively related to benefits that are obtained such as an opportunity to save. Consumers who anticipate significant savings from searching for information are more likely to engage in search than those who lack such an expectation (Putrevu & Lord, 2001:129). Where consumers do not search for information, it is because they perceive low benefits and/or high costs, which relate to the search activity (Putrevu & Ratchford, 1997:475).

(iii) Stage three: Evaluation of alternatives

At this stage of the process, alternative options identified during the search process are evaluated by consumers, and the relative merits and demerits of each are determined (Cant *et al*., 2006:201). When consumers evaluate and select from various items, they seek answers to questions such as "what are my options?" and "what is the best?" in order to narrow the field of alternatives before deciding, which to purchase. Different consumers employ different evaluative criteria (standards and specifications, which are used to compare different products and brands). How individuals evaluate their options is influenced by both internal and external influences and, as a result, evaluative criteria become a product-specific manifestation of an individual's internal, as well as external influences (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:79). Many consumers are, however, unable to weigh-up or compare alternatives and at times consumers simply may not "feel like" comparing alternatives or become obsessed with buying a product and disregard this step in the process (Rousseau, 2007:268). Furthermore, a consumer may simply follow their past practices for certain products owing to brand-loyalty of habitual buying (Williams, 2002:249), whereas the same consumer may evaluate several brands when engaged in extensive decision-making (Solomon, 2011:346).

2.5.4.3 Output processes

The output component of the consumer decision-making model includes two kinds of decision activity: purchase processes (as final decision and purchase, stage four) and post-purchase processes (as consumption and evaluation, stage five) (Wilkie, 1990:567; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:545).

(i) Stage four: Final decision and purchase

After evaluating the alternatives, consumers must make the final decision of whether or not to purchase. Should the consumer decide to make a purchase, they must choose the most

desirable alternative (Rousseau, 2007:269). A consumer may go through the initial stages in the decision process according to plan, and intend to purchase a particular product or brand, but end-up buying something different or decide not to buy at all, because of what happens during the purchase stage. For example, a consumer may prefer to shop at a specific retailer, but because of a sale, choose another store. Once in the store, the consumer may come across a coupon or price discount for another product, fail to find the product or brand that they usually purchase, or lack the funds to make a "routine" purchase or the purchase that they normally make (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:82).

(ii) Stage five: Consumption and evaluation

Consumption is the point at which consumers use or consume the product, which they have purchased (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:81). During or after consumption of the product, consumers evaluate its performance in light of their own expectations rather than actual product performance (Hanna & Wozniak, 2001:307). A positive evaluation (when the product's performance exceeds the consumers' expectations) will result in satisfaction, a negative evaluation (when the product's performance is below the consumers' expectations) will result in dissatisfaction, and a neutral evaluation (when the product's performance matches the consumer's expectations) will result in a feeling of indifference or neutrality (Rousseau, 2007:269; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:547). How satisfied consumers are with their purchases affects how likely they are to buy that particular product or brand in future (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:82). When a product meets or exceeds a consumer's expectations, they are likely to purchase it again. However, when a product's performance is disappointing or does not meet expectations, consumers will search for other alternatives. The consumer's post-purchase evaluation, therefore, "feeds back" and serves as an experience to the consumer's psychological field and influences future decisions (Arnould *et al*., 2004:341).

Consumers may be confronted with various obstacles or blocking mechanisms during the decision-making process, which may hinder them from passing through each stage as precisely as described (Rousseau, 2007:266). Erasmus *et al.* (2001:86) further add that no one consumer decision-making model could fully reflect all decision processes, since all shoppers have their own decision-making style, which, according to Sproles and Kendall (1986:268), is "a mental orientation characterizing a consumers' approach to making choices".

It is evident from the model that when making a particular purchasing decision, consumers are initially faced with two options: they can either do the purchase or save their money (Cant *et al*., 2002:174). Once the decision to purchase has been made, it can lead to various

outcomes. The outcome would be the result of consumers' purchasing plan or their type of purchase decision-making, as well as their decision as to whether a certain product should be purchased instead of another (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:150).

2.6 Consumers' purchasing plans/decision-making strategies

Various types of purchasing plans or decision-making strategies exist. They can be categorised as follows: (i) a fully planned purchase; (ii) a partially planned purchase; (iii) a routine purchase; or (iv) an unplanned purchase (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:150). Each purchasing plan is discussed in further detail below.

2.6.1 Fully planned purchase

A fully planned purchase involves extensive problem solving and conscious planning before the consumer enters the store and makes the actual purchase decision (Block & Morwitz, 1999:367; Blackwell *et al*., 2006:150). In this case both the product and the brand decision are made prior to entering the store (Kollat & Willet, 1967:21; Inman, Winer & Ferraro, 2009:19).

2.6.2 Partially planned purchase

Consumers may plan the products that they intend to purchase, but delay the chosen brand until they are in the store (Kollat & Willet, 1967:21). The final product or chosen brand may then be influenced by price reductions, special displays or packaging, or all three (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:150).

2.6.3 Unplanned, impulsive purchase

An unplanned purchase occurs when consumers suddenly decide to purchase an item that they had not planned to buy prior to entering a store (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2007:268). According to Blackwell *et al*. (2006:151), studies indicate that 68% of items that are bought during major shopping trips and 54% on smaller trips, are unplanned. Consumers who make use of unplanned purchasing often utilize the supermarket aisle layout as a shopping organiser instead of a written shopping list. Once consumers begin to experience buyer dissatisfaction, regret and feel that the purchase was unnecessary and wasteful, the unplanned purchase becomes an impulsive one (Wood, 1998:298). Wood (1998:299) describes impulse buying as unplanned purchases, undertaken with little or no deliberation,

and accompanied by mood states, which are not compelled, and are contrary to the consumers' better judgement.

The terms unplanned purchases and impulse purchases are generally used interchangeably, since an item that is purchased on impulse is essentially an item, which is purchased without prior planning (Mortimer, 2012:795). Impulsive purchases are elaborated on in greater detail further in the review.

2.6.4 Routine purchase

Routine purchases are strategies of decision-making that simplify daily activities and tasks (Jastran, Bisogni, Sobal, Blake & Devine, 2009:128). A routine purchase generally occurs when a consumer with or without consciously thinking about it, constantly purchases the same branded products (Cant *et al*., 2006:200).

Grocery shopping, in general, constitutes a routine/habitual type of consumer behaviour and purchasing plan (Park *et al.,* 1989:422; Urbany, Dickson & Kalapurakal, 1996:91; Bassett*,* Beagan & Chapman, 2008:210; Thompson, Cummins, Brown & Kyle, 2013:117). However, not all shopping trips are routinely deployed. Kollat and Willet (1967:28) found in their study that frequently purchased products such as bread, milk and eggs have relatively high planned purchase rates, and infrequently purchased products such as toiletries, have relatively high unplanned purchase rates. The type of product that is purchased by the consumer, therefore, has an influence on the consumer decision-making process and purchasing plan. These products are further classified according to how consumers go about buying them (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:236).

2.7 Consumer products

Consumer products are designed for direct use by the consumer and are classified based on consumers' buying habits. Consumer products can be divided into convenience products, shopping products and speciality products (Boone & Kurtz, 2011:389).

2.7.1 Convenience products

Consumers will not spend much time or money to purchase these products (Avlonitis & Papastathopoulou, 2006:14) and typically purchases them without any pre-purchase planning, information gathering or comparison between different brands. Consumers are, however, aware of the brand names of popular convenience products. These products are

bought immediately and frequently and are most often low-priced and readily available (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:236). Examples include groceries, batteries and chewing gum (Avlonitis & Papastathopoulou, 2006:14).

2.7.2 Shopping products

These are less frequently purchased consumer products that customers compare carefully with regard to suitability, quality, price and style (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:237). When buying shopping products, consumers are willing to spend time and money to gather information and make comparisons. Examples include furniture, clothing and cars (Avlonitis & Papastathopoulou, 2006:14).

2.7.3 Speciality products

These are consumer products with unique characteristics or brand identification for which a significant group of buyers is willing to make a special purchase effort. The consumer is already familiar with the item and considers it to have no substitute. An example would be purchasing a Rolex watch (Boone & Kurtz, 2011:389). The type of consumer or shopper that the main decision-maker is further influences, which of the consumer products are purchased (Evans *et al*., 2006:19).

2.8 Types of consumers or shoppers

Evans *et al*. (2006:19) have classified consumers or shoppers into different shopper segments based on their mental orientation, which, in conjunction with the above mentioned factors, influence their shopping choices (Bawa & Ghosh, 1999:149). Consumers' mental orientation is influenced by their mood, thoughts and feelings, which play a major role in their attitude while shopping. Small changes in physical surroundings may influence consumers' moods while shopping (Gardner, 1985:281). Other internal factors such as motives (needs), perception and learning may influence consumers' shopping behaviour (Batra & Kazmi, 2008:77, 107, 132). These factors are described briefly below.

- Motives are inner states that energize, activate, motivate, and lead people to behave the way that they do (Noel, 2009:90). Maslow was one of the first psychologists to try to identify and classify specific human motives by formulating a hierarchy of needs in which levels of motives are specified (Cant *et al*., 2006:133). The hierarchical approach/structure implies that the order of development is fixed, which means that a

certain level must first be attained before activating a need for the next higher one (Solomon, 2011:161).

- Perception is a process by which people select sensory stimuli and organise and interpret them. For example, how consumers view products, brands and stores (Wright, 2006:106).

- Learning reflects changes in the way that consumers behave owing to past experience. Habitual buying behaviour, which is the behaviour of brand-loyal shoppers, emerges mainly owing to the process of learning (Rousseau & Du Plessis, 2007:261).

Based on consumers' mental orientations and attitude whilst shopping, the following types of shopper segments were identified by Evans *et al*. (2006:19):

- Quality-conscious shoppers look for the highest possible quality while shopping. They prefer to shop carefully and systematically;

- Brand-conscious shoppers search for more expensive and famous brands. They perceive that price is linked to quality;

- Novelty-fashion-conscious shoppers purchase novel and fashionable items. They find pleasure and excitement in discovering new things and aim to keep up to date with new styles and trends;

- Recreational shoppers seek out pleasure, fun, recreation and entertainment from shopping;

- Value-conscious shoppers look out for bargains and deals. They are concerned with getting the highest value for money and engage in comparative-shopping;

- Impulsive shoppers tend to buy on impulse and are not fond of planning their shopping. They remain unconcerned as to how much money they spend;

- Confused shoppers tend to feel confused when they have a variety of brands and information to choose from; and

- Brand-loyal shoppers like to purchase the same brands continually and have developed particular behaviours and habits when shopping.

According to the March 2011 Nielsen Global Private Label Report titled “The rise of the value conscious shopper”, there has been a global increase in the number of value conscious shoppers. The Nielsen Company further adds that this trend will continue even as economies begin to recover from the recent recession. Many shoppers will retain their “value mind-set” and prefer to shop at stores that offer everyday low prices (EDLP stores) rather than stores that offer temporary discounts or price “specials” on individual goods (known as Hi-Lo or HILO pricing stores) (Nielsen Company, 2011:2). The recession has thus caused consumers to become more economical. They refuse to buy at higher prices unless they clearly perceive quality advantage, and if they are loyal to certain brands, they may prefer to wait for a price reduction (Voinea & Filip, 2011:17).

Different types of shoppers have different shopping strategies (Guiltinan & Monroe, 1980:746). Shopping strategies are activities that reflect the motives and decision processes, which govern shopping behaviour (Thiagarajan *et al.,* 2009:209). This includes the amount of internal and external search (before and during shopping); the objectives of the search activity (for example, wanting to save money); and the planning activities involved before a shopping trip (Guiltinan & Monroe, 1980:746).

A variety of food-buying practices have been recommended by consumer educators (Friedman & Rees, 1988:285). These practices, principles or guidelines are essentially shopping strategies that aim to assist various types of shoppers, the value-conscious shopper in particular, to make wise food-buying decisions that will reduce food costs, increase satisfaction with their food choices, and improve dietary quality (Herrmann & Warland, 1990:307).

2.9 Recommended food-buying practices

In the study, which was conducted by Friedman and Rees (1988), 110 food-buying principles were initially identified from 18 published consumer education textbooks. These principles were then decreased to the 20 most frequently mentioned ones, which are presented in Table 2.2. All of the 20 principles appear in at least 33% of the textbooks.

Table 2.2: **Food-buying principles**
(Source: Obtained from Friedman & Rees, 1988:289)

(i)	Read labels	(xii)	Consider time/cost/nutrition of convenience foods
(ii)	Use generic brands		
(iii)	Read nutrition information	(xiii)	Use foods in season
(iv)	Use a shopping list	(xiv)	Do not shop while hungry
(v)	Use open dating	(xv)	Buy in large quantities
(vi)	Use unit pricing	(xvi)	Choose grades or quality based on needs or use
(vii)	Plan menus ahead		
(viii)	Use advertisements to plan shopping	(xvii)	Compare prices of different forms
(ix)	Use coupons	(xviii)	Use grades to compare food items
(x)	Compare prices of different brands	(xix)	Plan menus around “specials”
(xi)	Avoid impulsive buying	(xx)	Figure cost per serving

Three main objectives that these practices serve have been mentioned previously, namely to reduce food costs or spend less money, obtain good nutrition and good quality. These practices additionally aim to help the consumer:

- save time when shopping;
- make intelligent choices;
- avoid unnecessary or wasteful purchases;
- obtain good information;
- gain enjoyment from shopping;
- save effort and gain convenience;
- help satisfy their needs; and
- obtain the most value and quantity for the amount of money spent (Friedman & Rees, 1988:287).

It is important that these recommended food-buying practices do not only focus on the price paid for food, since price is not the only factor that consumers consider when shopping for food. Health factors, product availability and the amount of time spent shopping are also important considerations. The use of these food-buying practices essentially revolves around planned buying (Friedman & Rees, 1988:287). A planned purchase is described as a deliberate, thoughtful search and evaluation that normally results in rational, accurate and better decisions (Gutierrez, 2004:1061). Unplanned food shopping conversely results in negative consequences such as unhealthy food choices and overpaying (Thiagarajan *et al.,* 2009:208).

Shopping enjoyment, high price sensitivity, and good time management skills are three characteristics that influence proactive or planned shopping behaviour (Marmorstein, Grewal

& Fishe, 1992:58). As consumers become more experienced, their shopping habits begin to generate a specific decision-making style (Alagöz & Ekiei, 2011:173). When faced with multiple decisions and numerous distractions, consumers may rely on aids (such as these food-buying practices) to help simplify the decision-making process (Block & Morwitz, 1999:344).

The process of carrying out the task of food shopping moves from an at-home strategy, which is used to organise for the shopping trip, to the actual in-store experience and shopping strategies (Polegato & Zaichkowsky, 1994:279). Friedman and Rees (1988:290) have, therefore, separated the 20 principles into pre-store planning activities and in-store shopping activities.

2.9.1 Pre-store planning activities

Pre-store planning activities are purchasing principles, which fall under the following categories:

- The use of a shopping list.
- The planning of menus.
- The use of advertisements and menus to plan shopping.
- The use of coupons.
- The avoidance of impulsive buying.
- The avoidance of shopping when hungry.
- The planning of menus around “specials” (Friedman & Rees, 1988:290).

These activities are done before the shopper enters the store and are based mainly on the psychological aspect of the consumer (Friedman & Rees, 1988:292). A consumer’s psychological field is influenced by many variables, the number of which and type varies with each consumer. This, therefore, makes it difficult to describe exactly *how* consumers, in general, perform these activities, since their psychological processes differ (Rousseau, 2007:262).

2.9.2 In-store shopping activities

More than two-thirds of purchase decisions involve some sort of in-store decision-making (Inman *et al*., 2009:19). Hence, the remaining 13 food-buying principles can be considered as in-store shopping activities. These principles can be divided into two groups, namely

those that the consumer compares, according to dimension, and those that are based on the dimensional point principles. The dimension comparing principle recommends that consumers focus on an informational dimension and make comparisons among food products on that dimension. Food products are then compared in-store. Examples of these include: the cost per serving; nutritional value; product freshness; and comparing the prices of different brands. The second class of principles (dimensional point principles) recommend the following: use foods that are in season; buy in bulk; and make use of generic products (Friedman & Rees, 1988:295).

Friedman and Rees (1988:296) suggest that before an in-store principle can be successfully applied by the consumer, he or she must first answer all questions of the Multiple Gatekeeper Model positively. This model consists of five binary response questions, which are presented below.

- Is the information required by the principle present in the store environment?
- If present in the store environment, is the specified information readily accessible to consumers?
- Is the specified information understandable to consumers?
- Is the specified information usable in shopping decisions?
- Does the specified information help consumers to realise their food-buying objectives without incurring unduly high expenditures of time and money?

Consumers will be unwilling to apply the principles until they have become interested and perceive these principles to be useful and valuable in helping to meet their food-buying objectives. The cost, in terms of the time and energy involved in applying the information, must also be perceived as having significant value to the customer (Friedman & Rees, 1988:295).

A study, which was conducted by Herrmann and Warland (1990:307) aimed to extend Friedman and Rees' (1988:284) analysis of the 20 most frequently recommended food-buying practices in consumer information and education literature. Hermann and Warland's (1990:307) study, however, focused on examining consumers' acceptance and use of nine food-buying practices. Seven of the practices, or variants of them, were found by Friedman and Rees (1988:284), and the two remaining practices, "Look for new ideas about getting better food buys," and "Check menus for nutritional balance," were regarded as implicit

messages of most consumer education materials on food-buying. The practices, which were evaluated were:

- checking package sizes for the best buy (comparing forms);
- looking for bargains and “specials”;
- reading food advertisements in the newspaper;
- looking for new ideas about better food buys;
- going to several stores to get the best grocery values;
- checking menus for nutritional balance;
- checking nutrition and ingredient labels;
- planning menus before grocery shopping; and
- making a shopping list before shopping (Hermann & Warland, 1990:311).

Hermann and Warland (1990:313) then conducted a cluster analysis of group consumers who were similar in their use of the above mentioned practices, and formed the following five consumer groups:

- Compliant consumers
  Were actively involved using all nine of the recommended practices;

- Almost compliant consumers
  Were highly involved in using all but one of the nine practices;

- Economy specialists
  Utilized chiefly those practices that are useful in money saving;

- Planning specialists
  Emphasised on planning related practices such as making a shopping list; and

- Disinterested consumers
  Seldom utilized the recommended practices.

2.9.3 Analysis of four specific food-buying practices

The purpose of this section is to describe and elaborate on the following four food-buying principles, since they are applicable to this research: (i) the use of a shopping list; (ii) the use of advertisements to plan shopping; (iii) the comparison of prices of different brands; and (iv) the avoidance of impulse buying.

2.9.3.1 Use a shopping list

Bassett *et al*. (2008:214) established the definition of the shopping list as "… itemised products to be purchased to re-stock the household …". Shopping lists represent the purchase intentions of consumers, are an indicator of pre-shopping planning (Spiggle, 1987:242), and relate to the household's need for products, activities or specific events (for example, something for lunch) (Schmidt, 2012:38). List making serves the purpose of not forgetting things, avoiding over-buying, ordering shopping activities and controlling expenditure or budgeting (Thomas & Garland, 2004:624).

(i) Types of shopping lists

Focusing on the underlying meaning of a shopping list for consumers, Bassett *et al*. (2008:210) identify three types of shopping lists in their Canadian study, namely a written grocery list; a list that is verbally or visually embedded in the memory of the consumer by visually scanning the kitchen cupboards or refrigerator before leaving the house to do their shopping; and a combination list, where the consumer uses a combination of a written and memory shopping list. In addition to this, shoppers often intentionally use product displays and materials from catalogues as a surrogate shopping list. In other words, a display can remind a consumer of a need and trigger a purchase (Blackwell *et al*., 2001:128). Each of the three types of shopping lists has been elaborated on below.

(a) Physical or written lists

Written shopping lists are considered as external *memory aids,* which are specific to grocery shopping. Memory aids are devices or strategies that are deliberately used to enhance memory, and are classified into two general types: internal and external. External memory aids are physical, tangible memory prompts that are external to a person, whereas internal memory aids rely on systems or practices within a person such as mental rehearsing or using rhymes (Block & Morwitz, 1999:346). Gollwitzer (1993:177) found that specifying one's intentions (for example, stating or writing them down) increased the probability that the objective was achieved. This can be explained by Intons-Peterson and Fournier (1986:271) who suggest that the process of creating memory aid or writing the shopping list reinforces the likelihood of remembering to purchase those specific items, regardless of whether the memory aid (shopping list) is available at the time of action, or when the person is in the grocery store.

Block and Morwitz (1999:361), in their study regarding the use of shopping lists as an external memory aid, identified that the probability of an external memory aid or written list being used given that the item(s) are purchased, is:

- greater in product categories in which coupons are frequently used;
- greater in product categories in which advertising is frequently used;
- greater the more frequently consumers make purchases in a product category;
- greater if the consumer shopped in a familiar store;
- lower during holiday periods than non-holiday periods; and
- greater during fill-in trips than during major trips.

In their 1996 study, Thomas and Garland (1996:237) found that 93% of consumers who use a list during a major trip purchased 2.5 times more items than those specified. They suggested that the in-store environment contributed to this additional buying. This led them to believe that the role that the written shopping list plays in grocery shopping behaviour is that of a guiding action rather than a governing action.

The items or content of a shopping list indicate the degree of pre-shopping planning. The list may reflect consumer needs, broad product classes (for example, vegetables, dessert or cleaning products), product categories (for example, furniture polish) or even specific brand names (Spiggle, 1987:242). The presence of a brand name on a shopping list may be owing to the following:

- Shoppers who have coupons or who have been exposed to an advertised “special” for a specific branded product may identify that brand on their list (Schmidt, 2012:37). Block and Morwitz (1999:359) found that over 40% of consumers in their study wrote items down on their shopping lists because they had coupons, or because of information contained in local newspaper advertisements. In both cases the decision to list the brand name is, therefore, an outcome of recent information search and brand evaluation (Spiggle, 1987:242).
- Consumers may find it easier, more convenient or more natural to write the brand name of a product on their list rather than the general product name or category, for example, XXX brand, instead of furniture polish. The consumer may not intend to purchase that specific brand, but rather uses it as a surrogate for the product name or category (Spiggle, 1987:242).

- Brand names may also represent strong brand preferences. This means that the consumer may have listed XXX brand not because they associate furniture polish with this name, but because XXX brand is their preferred brand of choice. Brands listed for this reason mean that the consumer has shortened their decision-making process by eliminating the information search, and the brand evaluation stages (Spiggle, 1987:242).

In a study, which was conducted by Schmidt (2012:39), the use and content of consumers' shopping lists was evaluated. It was found that only 5.6% of items (447 out of 8047), which appear on a shopping list, were brands. This is discussed further under the comparison of prices of different brands as a food-buying practice.

Furthermore, in the study conducted by Bassett *et al*. (2008:210), shoppers who used a written list felt that it guided the shopping process. It gave them the sense of a shopping strategy, and encouraged them to shop isle by isle or, in some isles only, thereby avoiding buying unlisted or unplanned items.

(b) Memory lists

Memory lists are sometimes referred to as internal memory aids, which rely on devices internal to a person such as mental rehearsing and using rhymes or other mnemonic devices. Use of these activities helps the shopper to remember what items to purchase (Block & Morwitz, 1999:346). The shopping list is hence verbally or visually imbedded in the memory of a consumer rather than on a piece of paper (Bassett *et al.,* 2008:210).

Grocery shoppers in the study, which was conducted by Bassett *et al.* (2008:210) identified the following ways of compiling a memory list:

- The grocery shopper may ask family or household members what groceries are needed before leaving for the store.
- They may visually scan the kitchen cupboards and refrigerator before leaving the house to do their shopping.

Herbst and Lloyd (2007:185) further add that items are added to a shopping list once they are seen as missing in the kitchen. As with shoppers who use a written list, some memory list users in the study, which was conducted by Basset et *al.* (2008:210) mention that they used their list to control, plan and focus their shopping.

(c) Combination lists

Some consumers use a combination of written (external) and memory (internal) grocery shopping lists; this is referred to as a combination list. In general, few, higher income shoppers use this type of list. Products that are frequently purchased (for example, bread, milk and eggs) are embedded within the shopper's memory list, whereas products that are not regularly purchased, are written down (Bassett *et al.,* 2008:211).

(ii) Shopping list usage

Shoppers in the study, which was conducted by Thomas and Garland (2004:628) were grouped into the following four main list-user categories:

- Those who use a list to ensure that their shopping requirements are met. Since in-store influences can lead shoppers to deviate from their shopping plan (Block & Morwitz, 1999:362), these shoppers expressed that using a shopping list enables them to remember what, and if necessary, how much of an item to purchase (Thomas & Garland, 2004:628).
- Shoppers who feel that using a list simplifies the shopping experience and dictates this shopping process saves time (Thomas & Garland, 2004:628).
- Those who like to control their expenditure, stick to a budget, save and prevent overspending. Shoppers in Block and Morwitz's (1999:348) study also indicate that they write items on a shopping list to remember to take advantage of cost savings.
- Shoppers who use a list to remember "specials" and promotions. This also ensures that they obtain bargains and ultimately save money (Thomas & Garland, 2004:628).

(iii) Shopping list non-usage

Thomas and Garland (2004:627) found that non-list users are generally single or childless couples (including empty nesters or couples whose children no longer live at home). Higher levels of non-list usage were also found amongst 15 to 24 year-olds as well as 40 to 60 year-olds. Thomas and Garland (2004:627) suggest that these two age groups may have less complicated lives when it comes to grocery shopping, which means that the volume of groceries, which is required may be less, and hence the task is more easily managed and items that are needed, may be more easily remembered. However, memory deterioration in aging consumers leads to the use of memory strategies to help remember what tasks to

carry out (Cavallini, Pagnin, Vecchi, 2003:242). Therefore, it can be inferred that older consumers may use shopping lists for memory aid benefits.

Non-list users in studies that were previously conducted by Bassett *et al*. (2008:207), as well as Thomas and Garland (2004:630), state the following reasons for not using a shopping list:

- They either have a list committed to memory, always know exactly what they want, only buy a few items at a time and/or use store displays or specials to prompt their purchasing.
- They used their cellular phones to call the family while shopping, thus bypassing the need for a list.
- They bought the same foods each week, therefore, the repetitiveness and routine of picking up the same groceries negated the need for a list.
- Whenever they shop they simply choose whatever is on “special”.
- They had no budget or financial constraints, which made a shopping list unnecessary.
- They did not feel that it would be a hassle to return to the store, should they have forgotten to purchase an item.
- They simply did not find a shopping list useful; they are not bothered about using a list, as they are unorganised or they have enough time to browse around in the shop.

Therefore, the shopping list can play a different role depending on who might be using it and the circumstance that is faced. Mentioned below are a few findings, which identify trends in the use of a shopping list among consumers.

- According to Thomas and Garland (2004:627), females are more likely than males to create and use shopping lists. Although more men make the decisions on which groceries to buy, in most families women are still inclined to make the shopping decisions. Men have a tendency to get lost in the supermarket without a list, so the female in the household will provide them with a list of items to purchase. Men, however, tend to only purchase specific items on the shopping list while, women are more inclined to browse (DeNoon, 2012).

- Low-income households have been found significantly less likely to use a list when grocery shopping (Dinkins, 1997:35; Hersey, Anliker, Miller, Mullis, Daugherty, Das, Bray, Dennee, Sigman-Grant & Thomas, 2001:S17). Dinkins (1997:35) speculates that a restricted budget may limit shopping to required items, which eliminates the need for a grocery list.

Thomas and Garland (1993:12) assert that list and non-list usage impacts differently on the behaviour of the two groups regarding in store environments. For example, list users, on average, spent significantly less money than non-list users even when adjusted according to household size. The presence of a list is seen as synonymous with being more efficient (Putrevu & Ratchford, 1997:473), as shoppers who use a grocery list are thought to have engaged in more planning than shoppers without a list (Bassett *et al.,* 2008:207). The list enables the shopper to: remember items that are needed; avoid overbuying; order their shopping activities; and control their expenditure (Thomas & Garland, 2004:628). List users also spend less time shopping than non-list users, regardless of whether shopping alone or with company (Thomas & Garland, 1996:238).

2.9.3.2 Use advertisements to plan shopping

Weekly newspaper advertising "specials" by grocery store chains are a major source of consumer information about food prices (Zaichkowsky & Sadlowsky, 1991:98; Darko *et al*., 2013:26). Advertising of food "specials" offers an economic incentive to make a purchase (in the form of store coupons and price reductions). Consumers may, therefore, place these advertised items on their shopping list to remember to purchase them (Block & Motwitz, 1999:348). According to Smith and Carsky (1996:74), consumers who frequently use advertisements to plan their shopping believe this practice to be highly relevant and useful in terms of saving money. Furthermore, studies have shown that there is a general lack of customer loyalty towards any specific store chains (especially during or after a recession), and that a significant number of consumers switch stores to take advantage of price discounts (Shipchandler, 1982:34; Hampson & McGoldrick, 2013:834).

(i) Consumer trends in the use of advertisements to plan shopping

Consumers who use advertisements to search for price discounts and to plan their shopping around these discounts typically have an above-average concern for price (Govindasamy *et al*., 2007:49). Since a total of 72% of consumers who were surveyed in a study that was conducted by Govindasamy *et al.* (2007:13), and 63% of consumers who were surveyed in a study that was conducted by Zaichkowsky and Sadlowsky (1991:103) indicated that they

used food advertising to plan their shopping, it can be assumed that the use of this food-buying practice is quite popular among consumers and may, therefore, reflect a common concern for price. In previous studies certain factors were found to influence consumers' use of this food-buying practice, some of which are described below.

(a) Gender

The study, which was conducted by Zaichkowsky and Sadlowsky (1991:103), determined that women use advertisements more than men and older women more than younger women. Regarding the purchase of durable items, Alagöz and Ekiei (2011:179) found men to be information seekers and to have a higher tendency to obtain information about products, and to use the information to plan their purchases. Since finding advertised "specials" is a form of information acquisition (Govindasamy *et al.,* 2007:50), it can be inferred that men would have a high use of advertisements to plan their shopping, particularly concerning the purchase of durable items.

(b) Age

Of the consumers who participated in the study, which was conducted by Govindasamy *et al.* (2007:9), a majority who indicated that they read food advertisements and use these advertisements to plan their food shopping, were 51 years or older.

(c) Levels of income and education

Wilkinson and Mason (1976:220) found high response rates to advertised food "specials" among low-income Black consumers and higher-income White consumers. In a study, which was conducted by Govindasamy *et al.* (2007:9), consumers with higher levels of education tended to read or use food advertisements less than those with lower levels of education. Govindasamy *et al.* (2007:9) suggest that consumers with higher education levels tend to earn higher salaries and may be less price-sensitive. They further add that consumers with lower price-sensitivity would not have as much incentive to read food advertisements as consumers with higher price sensitivity (consumers with lower education levels).

Education may also include consumer education about products and prices. Grewal, Krishnan, Baker and Borin (1998:338) state that consumers who are more knowledgeable or educated about product and price information may make different decisions than consumers who are less knowledgeable. Interestingly, compared to the low knowledge group, the high knowledge group also used less information to make judgments. High knowledge consumers

were more prone to use brand names to assess product quality, compared to low knowledge consumers who instead predominantly used product and price information.

(d) Product quality

Consumers in Zaichkowsky and Sadlowsky's (1991:105) study who considered advertised brands to be of good quality reported high use of advertisements for select groceries; used advertisements to locate "specials" at different stores; used advertisements to compare the prices of different brands; and ultimately used advertisements to plan their shopping. These consumers had a lower education and household income.

(ii) Identification of non-usage among certain consumers

Consumers may be reluctant to respond to advertised "specials". There may be many reasons for this, and some of these are mentioned below.

- A standard practice among retailers is to present a "compare at" reference price alongside an advertised sale price (Alford & Engelland, 2000:93). When no reference price is provided in the advertisement, consumers may find it difficult to determine if the advertised price is indeed a reduced price, and hence if they can save by purchasing the item. This may be the reason why some consumers do not believe that the items that are advertised are on sale (Zaichkowsky & Sadlowsky, 1991:99).

- Zaichkowsky and Sadlowsky (1991:106) assert that certain grocery items may regularly go on "special". Jacobson and Obermiller (1990:421) add that a temporary price reduction may be so frequently offered that it lowers consumers' future reference price for the brand. As a consequence, consumers may underestimate non-sale price or perceive sale price, as the regular selling price and not act on the advertisement (Zaichkowsky & Sadlowsky, 1991:106).

There are consumers who simply do not believe that the item that is advertised is on sale. Of those consumers who do believe that the item is on sale, some do not necessarily believe the amount of savings claimed and, therefore, do not purchase the item if it is not needed at the time of the advertisement (Zaichkowsky & Sadlowsky, 1991:107). It must be understood that consumers have an internal reference price for various products or product classes, which are essentially used to judge the price of an item (Grewal *et al.,* 1998:348). There have been may definitions proposed for internal reference price, one of which is the expected price (Winer, 1986:255). Essentially, consumers' internal reference price is an internal standard

against which observed prices are compared (Kumar, Karande & Reinartz, 1998:403). Price discounts (and the advertised reference price in the price promotion or comparative price advertisements) shift consumers' internal reference prices. If the advertised reference price is close to the consumers' internal reference price range then the consumers' internal reference price range will shift upward (and vice versa). Consistent store price promotions and the sequential effects of such discounting (being exposed to lower sales prices) will lead to a lower reference price (Grewal *et al.,* 1998:336).

- Certain consumers believe that brands that are advertised as “special” are of lower quality than those not advertised (Zaichkowsky & Sadlowsky, 1991:106). This is because prior use of a brand and prior promotional activities can influence consumer response to promotional offers and brand choice. A consumer may have bought a product, which is advertised as “special”, and was dissatisfied with its quality. This may influence the consumer’s purchase feedback regarding price promotions causing it to be more negative than when following a non-price promotional purchase (Bridges*,* Briesch, Yim, 2006:295, 304). The question of whether or not there is a correlation between advertising and product quality was additionally investigated by Grewal *et al.* (1998:349). They agree that frequent price promotions may adversely affect a brand’s perceived quality.

- According to Govindasamy *et al.* (2007:57), consumers who purchase organic produce are less likely to read food advertisements than those who do not buy certified organic produce. This may be because consumers expect certified organic products to be more expensive than non-organic produce and are willing to pay a higher price for organic foods based on perceived health, nutritional and taste benefits (Ward *et al.,* 2012:462). Since these consumers are less concerned about the price, they may also be less concerned about reading food advertisements for “specials” on organic produce (Govindasamy *et al.,* 2007:57).

2.9.3.3 Compare prices of different brands

Since brands are so similar and there tends to be a variation in prices within a product category, it is an efficient strategy for consumers to observe and compare prices when purchasing a product (Kumar *et al*., 1998:407). Methods of comparing food prices include; checking newspaper advertisements (most consumers use this method); shopping around from store to store; and taking notice of television, as well as radio advertisements and comparing prices of items on shelf in-store (Porter, Armentrout, Conrad, Dimit, Lyon, Swank & Ueland, 1961:14).

Consumers use both internal and external reference prices when comparing the prices of different brands. External reference prices are based on the prices of all brands in the product category at the time of the consumer's purchase. For example, the prices displayed on cans or on the shelf of different branded beans in-store. Many consumers struggle to recall prices accurately, as they may not have sufficient internal price knowledge to relate current prices to past prices (Kumar *et al*., 1998:407). This was evident in Dickson and Sawyer's (1990:49) study, where only half of the shoppers who were surveyed recalled prices accurately. However, a deal-prone consumer is one who is price conscious and, therefore, willing to compare prices of different brands. Deal prone consumers aim to save money by purchasing the cheapest product. These consumers consequently place more emphasis on external reference prices compared to internal references (Kumar *et al*., 1998:409).

Consumers in the study, which was conducted by Dickson and Sawyer (1990:47) mentioned the following specific reasons for comparing the prices of different brands. The response rate for each reason has also been provided to emphasise its prominence:

- Simply out of habit (44%).
- To help make a brand choice (32%).
- To help decide on the purchase quantity (29%).
- To aid in deciding whether or not to buy from the product category (22%).
- To remember until the next time they shop (14%).
- To compare the prices between supermarkets (13%).

In addition to these, the more frequent consumers purchase a specific item (for example, soap powder), the more likely they are to check prices and compare them to other brands (Dickson & Sawyer, 1990:48).

(i) Consumer trends in the comparison of prices of different brands

(a) Gender

Williams (2002:258) established in his study that, in general, compared to women, men rate low price as an important criterion when purchasing products. They may, therefore, compare the prices of different brands in order to ensure that they obtain the best quality product possible at a reasonable price. Conversely, Mortimer (2012:795), as well as Otnes and McGrath (2001:122), state that when men shop for groceries, they rarely compare prices. Thus men's tendency to shop comparatively may depend on the product(s) being purchased.

(b) Price and non-price benefits

Consumers may receive both price and non-price benefits from comparison shopping (Marmorstein *et al.,* 1992:52), and hence shops for many different reasons. Some consumers enjoy shopping and value the information that they learn, as it enables them to serve as sources of information for friends (Urbany *et al.,* 1996:91).

(c) "Specials"

In the conceptual model, which was developed by Dickson and Sawyer (1990:44), it was noted that should a specific brand be on "special", consumers would more likely compare the price of that specific brand against other brands in the same category in order to validate that the price is indeed a "special". Also, if the price of an item is viewed to be low and thus evaluated positively, it may be remembered better. Hence, consumers in their study were found to recall a "special" price better than a regular price.

(ii) Non-comparison of the prices of different brands by consumers

Almost half (43%) of consumers in the study, which was conducted by Marmorstein *et al.* (1992:58) stated that they did not enjoy price-comparison shopping. Dickson and Sawyer (1990:47) further identified the following reasons why consumers in their study did not compare prices of different brands:

- The majority (68%) felt that price was not that important.
- Many consumers already knew the approximate price and felt no need to check displayed prices.
- To some consumers the price was satisfactory or not significantly different from when it was last checked.
- The consumer felt too rushed and did not have time to compare prices.
- Coupons were mainly used, which bypassed the need to check the actual price of the item.
- Brand-loyalty or habitual repeat purchasing was the consumers' shopping strategy (elaborated on in the next section).
- They experienced difficulty in finding the price(s) of items.
- The total savings from comparing the price was not worth the time and effort required.
- They already knew the exact price.

Shoppers look for value among brands that they regularly buy. This may be why shoppers are unwilling to switch from their trusted brand to a substitute brand on sale or generally at a lower price (Smith & Carsky, 1996:79). Additional reasons why consumers may not compare the prices of different brands are mentioned below.

(a) Time

In Dickson and Sawyer's (1990:47) evaluation of price knowledge and search for information by supermarket shoppers, it was found that the average time between arriving at and departing from the product category display was less than 12 seconds. In 85% of the purchases the chosen brand was handled, and 90% of the shoppers inspected only one size. Consequently, the number of shoppers who reported price checking was not high. Less than one in four shoppers reported evaluating the price of an alternative brand. Consumers who are pressured for time search less for price information in grocery stores. This may be because convenience is a higher priority than saving money for these consumers, or because they simply do not like the effort that they must spend to find the lowest prices (Thiagarajan, 2009:209). Therefore, consumers who stay longer in shops may be more likely to engage in price comparisons (Tendai & Crispen, 2009:107).

(b) Discount stores

Consumers who shop at discount stores are less likely to stick to a particular brand or even compare prices of various branded products. This is because discount stores are generally small and subsequently stock a smaller number of products. Consequently, the number of brands available in a specific product category may also be less, which inhibits the consumer's ability to actually compare prices, since there may be only one brand available (Schmidt, 2012:40).

(c) Brand-loyalty

According to Kotler and Armstrong (2010:246), consumers sometimes bond closely with specific brands and become brand-loyal. Brand-loyal shoppers like to purchase the same brands continually and have developed particular behaviours and habits when shopping (the consumer prefers the specific product brand or brand, in general, and will not purchase any other brand) (Evans *et al*., 2006:19; Manzur, Olavarrieta, Hidalgo, Farias & Uribe, 2011:288).

Furthermore, Murthi and Rao (2012:44) found that, on average, based on approximately 40 to 50% of the purchase occasions, consumers seem to make their brand choice based on

past prices. Hence, they were found to be unobservant of current or most recent prices. Murthi and Rao (2012:44) also found that large and deal-prone families are more likely to evaluate prices frequently.

2.9.3.4 Avoid impulsive buying

Impulse buying occurs when a consumer experiences a sudden, often powerful and persistent urge to buy something immediately (Rook, 1987:191). The consumer consequently feels compelled to make the purchase (Karbasivar & Yarahmadi, 2011:177), and is less likely to consider the consequences of the purchase or to think carefully before buying the item (Rook, 1987:191). Major differences between an impulse and planned purchase include the amount of information that can be sought prior to the purchase decision and the length of time that is spent on the decision process (Lee & Kacen, 2008:266). Consumers who purchase on impulse do not engage in a great deal of evaluation. They are also not concerned about solving a pre-existing problem, or about finding an item to fill a predetermined need. As a result of their impulse buying consumers may experience financial problems, suffer a disappointment with their impulsively purchased product, and even feel guilty about the purchase (Rook, 1987:191, 196).

Credit cards, cash machines and home shopping networks make it easier for consumers to purchase on impulse (Rook, 1987:189). Although it is a common assumption that impulse buying is a frequent practice among consumers, most (72%) of the respondents in the study, which was conducted by Wood (1998:311) indicated that they in fact avoided buying on impulse. Consumers' shopping habits were further evaluated in a more recent study, which was conducted by Hampson and McGoldrick (2013:835). The results portrayed the image of a purposeful, knowledgeable shopper, more concerned about price than before. According to Hampson and McGoldrick (2013:835), this pattern reflects an increase in purchase planning and price consciousness with a simultaneous concern to reduce impulsive buying.

(i) Factors, which influence impulsive buying

Consumers' impulse buying behaviour or impulse buying tendency is further influenced by a number of factors, which are presented below.

(a) Affective states

A person's emotional state, mood and feelings can be recognized as their affective state (Youn & Faber, 2000:180). This affective force is beyond the control of the consumer and

may influence unconscious impulsive buying behaviour (Tendai & Crispen, 2009:103). Beatty and Ferrell (1998:185) examined the effects of consumers' moods on their tendency to purchase on impulse. They found that the tendency of a person to make an impulse purchase increased if they were happy, depressed or stressed.

(b) Store knowledge and the time available for shopping

The layout of the store, the aisles, and on which shelf products are found, are all part of store knowledge (Bassett *et al.,* 2008:214). Consumers' store knowledge and time available for shopping affect many types of in-store shopping decisions, including the decision whether an impulsive purchase will be made. The degree to which consumers' knowledge of a store's environment affects an impulse purchase varies depending on the time available for shopping. Should there be little time available for shopping; the presence of time pressure may result in low store knowledge, ultimately instigating an unplanned purchase. This occurs because under time pressure, exposure to in-store information is reduced, the time required for consumers to properly process in-store product information is limited, and the retrieval of information that is not well rehearsed, is hindered (Park *et al*., 1989:424, 431).

Conversely, Tendai and Crispen (2009:107) found that impulsive purchasing rises relative to the rise of shopping time. Thus the longer consumers took to shop, the greater the chance of them making an impulsive purchase. Thus too little or too much time can encourage impulsive buying behaviour. In addition to this, Bassett *et al.* (2008:214) identified that consumers who use a shopping list and base the contents of the list on their store knowledge (for example, flour in aisle four) are affected by changes in the store layout. Consumers took longer to shop and felt confused and frustrated all because their grocery list no longer matched the layout of the store.

(c) In-store stimuli

The in-store shopping environment plays an important role in consumers' tendency to buy on impulse. In-store stimuli such as background music, product displays, promotions, shop density or congestion and store personnel all make up the in-store shopping environment (Karbasivar & Yarahmadi, 2011:176). Some consumers use these in-store stimuli to help to remind them of what groceries to buy, whereas other consumers enter the store with an intention to buy only certain items, while these in-store stimuli lead them to purchase unplanned items (Inman *et al*., 2009:19). Bell, Corsten and Knox (2011:41) identified that during major shopping trips the shopper's needs are not well defined; hence the shopper is more receptive to in-store stimuli and is more likely to purchase items on impulse. Block and

Morwitz (1999:362) identified in their study that marketing efforts played a significant role in inducing impulse purchasing. In many cases respondents indicated that they purchased items that were not on their shopping list because they were on sale, because the item was on a special display, or because of the information provided on the item's label.

(d) Money availability

Beatty and Ferrell (1998:185) found a positive relationship between money availability and impulsive purchasing. Consumers who had less disposable income were less likely to make impulse buys. Additionally, Schneider and Lysgaard (1953:142) found that middle class consumers had a propensity to feel that they should save money and postpone purchases. They concluded that these consumers may be less inclined to buy on impulse.

(e) Shopping with friends or family

Lee and Kacen (2008:269) was able to establish that having a friend or family member with them while shopping enhanced consumers' satisfaction with their impulse purchase compared to their satisfaction with the impulse purchase made when shopping alone. They also found that consumers often decide not to make an impulse purchase after consulting with a friend or family member. However, the presence of a friend or family member at the time of a planned purchase did not provide additional information that influenced the consumer's satisfaction with their purchase.

(f) Gender

Furthermore, when considering gender, women have a greater tendency to shop impulsively compared to men (Wood, 1998:312; Coley & Burgess, 2003:293; Alagöz & Ekiei, 2011:176). However, women feel better, moreover they feel happy after impulsive shopping, but most men feel regret (Coley & Burgess, 2003:293; Alagöz & Ekiei, 2011:176). Although Coley and Burgess (2003:290) found that women have a greater tendency to buy impulsively, they additionally found that compared to men, women are more likely to think through purchase decisions and their possible consequences. This leads us to believe that although women may indicate that they frequently buy on impulse, the item that is bought impulsively has a purpose and is thus not necessarily a waste of money.

This may also relate to Schindler's (1989) study, where consumers' excitement around receiving a bargain was evaluated. The term "smart-shopper feelings" was created and used

to refer to the ego-related effect that may be generated in a consumer by price. A consumer may purchase a product on “special” impulsively to feed their ego, but may indeed save money at the same time. In this sense, impulsive buying has a positive influence on the consumer’s budget. However, consumers can become addicted to these smart-shopper feelings and begin to compulsively purchase items because they are on “special” and not because they are needed (Schindler, 1989:447).

2.9.3.5 Interrelation between the four food-buying practices

Past studies provide an indirect indication of how the advertisement for a “special” can have an undulate effect on the use of a shopping list, the comparison of prices of different brands and the avoidance of impulse buying. Heavy advertising within a product category may lead to a higher propensity among consumers to write down brand names on shopping lists (Schmidt, 2012:37). Prices may then be compared while compiling the list (using the advertisements). Also, when in-store, they may be more likely to recall the advertised price of a product on their list and compare it to the price of other branded products (Bassett *et al*., 2008:214). Use of planning tools such as shopping lists also decrease the likelihood of making impulse purchases because it commits the shopper to a set of purchases (Inman *et al.,* 2009:27). In addition to this, when a shopping list is based on advertised “specials”, the use thereof may further lead to less spending, because consumers are less inclined to deviate from a list, which is mostly comprised of items on “special” (Herbst & Lloyd, 2007:185). However, although grocery shoppers may use a shopping list, they cannot be certain of what products are available (products may be out-of-stock) until after they enter the supermarket. Consumers must, therefore, also be flexible and use their own discretion when shopping (Thomas & Garland, 1996:234).

Shoppers may use the presence of an advertised “special” price as an indicator of a good deal, but in actual fact have overestimated the savings from these price discounts (Dickson & Sawyer, 1990:49). In other words, shoppers may identify that a frequently purchased item is on “special”, but because they are not aware of the normal selling price, they do not really know if they are saving money. Hence, the importance of comparing the price of the advertised item to other brands that is available in both the store who made the advertisement, as well as at other stores in order to ensure that an actual saving is made (Dickson & Sawyer, 1990:49; Zaichkowsky & Sadlowsky, 1991:99). The cost of time, effort and money (especially when considering transport prices) involved in this exercise must also be accounted for (Friedman & Rees, 1988:295). It is further evident that the use of advertisements and the comparison of prices of different brands are particularly important practices that should be completed together.

Consumer behaviour is influenced by a multitude of factors. Food-buying practices are a further reflection of consumer identity, class and social relations that are transmitted, learned and reproduced in families across generations (Ward *et al.,* 2012:461). This complicates the identification of interrelations between the food-buying practices and further establishes that research in this field is essential.

2.10 Summary

The literature review has placed the consumer, and more specifically the South African consumer, into perspective by segmenting the consumer market geographically, demographically and socio-culturally. Hence, the various external, as well as internal factors that influence consumer decision-making, and ultimately shopping behaviour, were discussed.

The types of decisions that consumers make, as well as four views as to how (and why) consumers make decisions and behave the way that they do, were evaluated. A consumer decision-making model, which incorporates elements from various other established models, was presented and discussed.

Purchasing plans, consumer products, and the types of consumers or shoppers that exist, were also reviewed in order to identify the relationship between these variables and the use of food-buying practices. Evidence of previous studies, which analysed the use of food-buying practices by consumers, were provided in order to reveal the limited and outdated research of these practices and the use thereof, emphasising the need for further research to investigate present food-buying practices. The following chapter discusses the research study that was undertaken in order to evaluate consumers' use of food-buying practices within different socio-economic classes in the City of Cape Town.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The main aim of the research was to evaluate consumers' use of food-buying practices within different socio-economic classes in the City of Cape Town. This chapter provides a comprehensive overview of the research design and methodology, which was followed during the research process and includes the type of study and study design, the sample and sampling method, the questionnaire design (including the pre-testing thereof), data collection and analysis of the gathered data.

3.1 Type of study and study design

This study aimed to group and quantify consumers based on their use of food-buying practices and their demographic and socio-economic profile in relation to their food-buying practices. The researcher aimed to describe consumers, based on their socio-economic profile, and their use of certain food-buying practices. Compared to other study designs (such as exploratory or explanatory research) descriptive research allows the researcher to describe characteristics of individuals, as well as to assess the number of people who share similar behaviours accurately (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2010:84; Mitchell & Jolley, 2013:272). Depending on the size of the sample these descriptors can then be generalized to the population (Robbins, 2009:9). This study thus adopted a quantitative, descriptive approach by using a survey as the data collection method and a self-administered, structured questionnaire as the data collection tool. A structured questionnaire was used, as it enables researchers to obtain a great deal of complex information from respondents in a direct, open manner. Data, which is obtained from the questionnaires is also easily quantifiable and generally accurate (Rousseau, 2007:21; Kardes *et al*., 2008:25).

3.2 Sample and sampling method

The aspects that were considered to attain the sample and sampling method are presented below.

- Research population: The target population of this study comprised consumers *who shopped* (those visiting a shop with the intention of examining or purchasing merchandise) in the City of Cape Town.

- Sample frame and units: The sample frame included consumers who reside in Delft, Maitland or Meadowridge. Meadowridge, Maitland and Delft were selected for participation based on their demographic and socio-economic profile provided by Stats SA Census 2001 (Stats SA, 2001a; Stats SA, 2001b; Stats SA, 2001c). The SES model, which was described in Chapter 2, was utilised to determine the SES for each suburban area. Residents' level of education and occupation were used as the two primary determining factors, and their level of income as the secondary determining factor. The majority of responses for each SES element were considered. The combined level of education, occupation and income of residents was extracted from the Stats SA Census 2001 profiles (Stats SA, 2001a; Stats SA, 2001b; Stats SA, 2001c) to establish the overall SES of the suburb. Table 3.1 below demonstrates the levels of education, occupation and income of residents within each of the three suburban areas.

Table 3.1: Levels of education, occupation and income of residents in Meadowridge, Maitland and Delft
(Source: Adapted from Stats SA, 2001a, 2001b, 2001c)

Element of socio-economic status (SES)		Percentage of residents		
		Meadowridge High SES area	**Maitland** Middle SES area	**Delft** Low SES area
Education level of adults (20+)	No schooling	0.3	4.4	4.1
	Grade 1 - 6	0.7	6.6	17.0
	Grade 7	0.3	5.1	11.3
	Grade 8 -11	15.9	44.8	51.8
	Grade 12	38.9	23.2	14.4
	Certificate with less than grade 12	3.0	2.7	0.2
	Cert / Dip with grade 12	19.5	10.9	0.8
	Bachelor's degree	8.5	1.3	0.2
	Bachelor's degree and diploma	3.5	0.5	0.1
	Honour's degree	4.4	0.3	0.0
	Higher degree (master's or doctorate)	5.1	0.3	0.2
	Total	*100.0*	*100.0*	*100.0*
Occupation of labour force	Undetermined	4.8	12.6	10.2
	Elementary occupations	6.2	11.5	27.4
	Plant and machine operators and assemblers	0.0	8.6	15.6
	Craft and related trade workers	2.3	12.8	19.3
	Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	0.0	0.2	0.4
	Service workers, shop and market sales workers	8.4	13.6	9.7
	Clerks	13.0	20.7	8.9
	Technicians and associate professionals	14.9	10.4	4.8
	Professionals	29.8	4.5	1.7
	Legislators, senior officials and managers	20.6	5.1	2.0
	Total	*100.0*	*100.0*	*100.0*
Income of earners (per month)	0 - R1 600	14.6	31.5	66.2
	R1 601 - R6 400	31.3	56.4	32.9
	R6 401 - R25 600	42.0	10.8	0.8
	R25 601 - R102 400	9.6	1.2	0.1
	R102 401 or more	2.5	0.0	0.0
	Total	*100.0*	*100.0*	*100.0*

Many (38.9%) residents in Meadowridge completed Grade twelve. Even more (41%) obtained a certificate/diploma/degree/higher degree in addition to a Grade twelve level of education. There were noticeably more residents in Meadowridge than in Maitland (13.3%) and Delft (1.3%) who had obtained higher levels of education. Consistent with this, the main residential occupations in Meadowridge was of a professional (29.8%) legislator, senior official and manager (20.6%), while most of them (42%) earned between R6 401 and R25 600 per month.

Most of Maitland's residents had a Grade eight to eleven (44.8%) followed by a Grade twelve (23.2%) level of education. Most residents in Delft had a Grade eight to eleven (51.8%) followed by a Grade one to six (17%) level of education. Most residents in Maitland were clerks (20.7%), service workers, shop and market sales workers (13.6%), or technicians and associate professionals (10.4%). These are considered as intermediate occupations according to the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ILO, 2012:37). The most common (56.4%) monthly income was between R1 601 and R6 400 per month. Many residents in Delft had elementary occupations or other lower-level occupations (27.4%), and a correspondingly low level monthly income (0 – R1 600) (66.2%).

Residents in Delft displayed the lowest levels of education, occupation and income. Delft was, therefore, considered the lower SES suburban area. Since Maitland's residents' level of education, occupation and income was higher in comparison to Delft's, yet lower than Meadowridge's, Maitland was considered the middle SES suburban area. Residents of Meadowridge showed higher levels of education, occupation and income compared to those in Delft and Maitland, respectively. It is, therefore, evident that residents' levels of education, occupation and income gradually increased from Delft to Maitland to Meadowridge, thus displaying lower, to middle to higher SES areas.

Figure 3.1 is a map, which illustrates the location of Meadowridge, Maitland and Delft within in the City of Cape Town. Meadowridge, Maitland and Delft are a reasonable distance apart. In addition to this, Meadowridge is located within the southern suburbs, while Maitland and Delft are located in the northern suburbs. The three areas are also in different subcouncils. Delft is in subcouncil 23-Adelaide Tambo, Maitland is in subcouncil 01-Blaauwberg as well as 15-Pinelands, and Meadowridge is in subcouncil 20-Protea (Stats SA, 2001d). Subcouncils are specialised decentralised governmental structures that give residents a say in local government. There are 24 subcouncils in the City of Cape Town, which exercise many functions that are delegated to them by the City's Council (City of Cape Town, 2012).

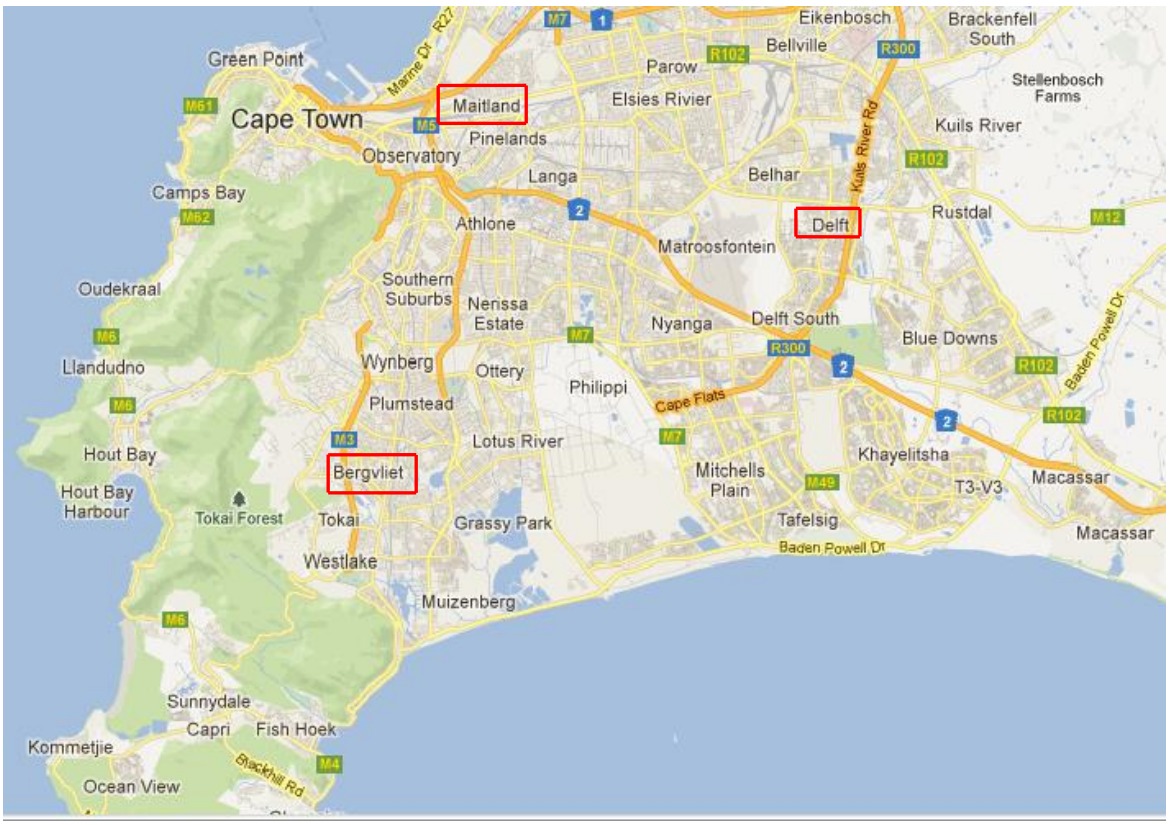


Figure 3.1: Map of the locations of Meadowridge, Maitland and Delft within the City of Cape Town
(Obtained from Google maps, 2013)

- Sample unit representation and size: Respondents (consumers) are adults aged between 18 to 66 plus years, and included 420 Cape Town consumers who reside in the Delft area and shop at the local Shoprite Usave grocery store, which is representative of a lower SES suburban area. A total of 420 consumers reside in the Maitland area and shop at the local Shoprite supermarket, which is representative of a middle SES suburban area, and 420 consumers reside in the Meadowridge area and shop at the local Checkers supermarket, which is representative of a higher SES suburban area. The participant number for each area was determined to provide for a 95% confidence level and a 0.8 confidence interval.

In order to ensure a 95% confidence level and a 5% margin of error, a minimum sample size of 400 was required for each area – as calculated by the SPSS (version 20) system. This ensured that the research was statistically representative. Fieldworkers were instructed to carefully scrutinise each questionnaire to ensure that it had been completed accurately before parting from the respondent. However, twenty additional questionnaires were available to compensate for any errors and incompleteness, which would result in elimination and replacement of the specific questionnaire. It was stressed that a minimum respondent sample of 400 per area was required and that a maximum of 20 questionnaires per area

were available to compensate for any possible errors or incomplete questionnaires. The questionnaires were checked hourly by the researcher to ensure that any problematic ones were immediately replaced and a record of the total number of problematic questionnaires was constantly kept, thus ensuring that it did not exceed 20. This amounted to the abovementioned sample size of 420 consumers within each of the three suburban areas.

Shoprite Usave, Shoprite, and Checkers belong to the Shoprite Holdings Ltd group and are the group's three leading grocery store chains (Engelbrecht, 2010:18). The Shoprite brand is one of the leaders in South African food retailing and is, according to independent market research, the brand of choice of the highest percentage of South African consumers (Shoprite Holdings Ltd, 2013a). Shoprite Usave is a small-format grocery store, which focuses on the lower-income consumer from living standards measurement one to five. The Shoprite chain is the original business of the Group and its main brand. Its main customers are from the lower-income to middle-income group in the living standards measurement four to seven. The Checkers chain caters for customers in the upper-income groups and targets living standards measurement seven to ten (Shoprite Holdings Ltd, 2013b).

Conducting the research within these three grocery store formats enabled the researcher to target lower, middle and higher income groups. It was also convenient to obtain permission to conduct the research from one organisation rather than from three different organisations. Since the Shoprite Holdings group is interested in consumers' buying and more specifically savings practices (Shoprite Holdings Ltd, 2013a), they were interested in the results of the research and use thereof for marketing purposes (see conflict of interest included in the thesis for the purpose of this research).

- Respondent identification: Three pre-screening questions were asked in order to identify possible respondents. Only respondents who lived in the respective areas (Meadowridge, Maitland or Delft), who indicated that they were one of the main decision-makers regarding the purchase of food products within their household, and who were one of the main buyers of food products within a household, was eligible to participate. See Appendices B and C for the English and Afrikaans versions of these pre-screening questions.

- Sampling method: In comparison to other sampling methods, purposive sampling provides a focused effort in gathering the data required to answer the research question. It allows the researcher to identify the specific individuals who have the information the researcher needs related to the research question; the researcher is then able to focus on collecting data from these people (Blankenship, 2010:86;

Gideon, 2012:67). Since specific individuals (see respondent identification above) were needed to be identified for this study in order to answer the research question, a purposive sampling procedure was used to obtain the envisaged sample number. Respondents comprised solely of volunteers who responded to an open invitation at the entrance of the supermarket to be part of the study. All respondents remained anonymous, and received a number code as a means of identification.

3.3 Permission to conduct research

Permission to conduct the research at Shoprite Usave, Shoprite, and Checkers was obtained from the General Manager at the Shoprite Holdings Ltd Head Office in Brakenfell, Cape Town. A concise consent form incorporating the minimum essential elements was attached to the cover page of the questionnaire, and each respondent was required to read and sign it before completing the questionnaire. Examples of the consent forms (available in both English and Afrikaans) can be found in Appendix D and E, respectively. Ethical approval was received from the Faculty of Applied Sciences' Research Ethics Committee at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology (Appendix F).

3.4 Questionnaire design

Since the residents of Delft were predominantly Afrikaans speaking (Statistics South Africa, 2001a), the questionnaire was available in both English and Afrikaans to avoid any comprehension difficulties, which may have been experienced by respondents answering questions in a second language (Rousseau, 2007:27). Reference can be made to Appendix G for the English version, and Appendix H for the Afrikaans version of the questionnaire. The content of the questionnaire comprised three sections. The first section consisted of four questions, which provided additional information regarding consumers' shopper characteristics. These four questions addressed how often consumers usually shopped for food, how long they usually took to shop for food, if they usually shopped alone and if not, who usually accompanied them to the shop, as well as their means/method of payment. In Chapter 2 literature regarding these issues provided support that these characteristics are related to consumers' use of food-buying practices.

The second section focused on consumers' use of the following four food-buying practices, as identified in the literature and obtained from Friedman and Rees (1988:289) with each represented by six structured questions in the questionnaire:

(i) Use of a shopping list.
(ii) Use advertisements to plan shopping.
(iii) Compare prices of different brands.
(iv) Avoid impulsive buying.

These four food-buying practices were selected based on a pilot study for a previous research project, which was conducted in 2011 (Harper & Crafford, 2011). The pilot study evaluated consumers' frequency of use of ten food-buying practices that were recommended by Friedman and Rees (1988). The results of the study among 189 consumers between 18 and 66 plus years of age, who shop at a supermarket in the Cape Town metropolitan area, indicated that these four practices were the ones most frequently used by the consumers who were surveyed. In addition to this, available consumer education literature regarding food-buying practices focuses on the use of these four practices. Shoprite has released a "Stretch your grocery budget" pamphlet, available electronically on their website, as well as a hard copy in store, focusing on these four practices (Shoprite Holdings Ltd, 2011). The Food Marketing Institute (2003:2) also released a report on popular consumer economizing behaviour, which indicated that these four practices were most popular among consumers.

Reliability is the degree to which measures are free from error and, therefore, yields consistent results. When asking questions in research, the purpose is to assess the response against a given construct or idea. Different questions that test the same construct should give consistent results. Therefore, two or more versions of a question that are equivalent in content and level of difficulty are usually constructed in order to increase the reliability of the construct that is measured (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2012:303). Each practice was thus represented by six structured questions, each in order to ensure that the evaluation and results pertaining to consumers' use of each practice was reliable. Structured questions are pre-established with a limited set of response options, which are recorded according to a coding scheme. Thus, all respondents received the same set of questions in the same sequence, which may help to yield reliable results (Denzin & Lincolin, 2003:68). Respondents were asked to indicate the frequency with which they used the food-buying practices from frequencies in the response options. Four response options ('1 = Frequently', '2 = Sometimes', '3 = Seldom', and '4 = Never') were provided. These options were used in a questionnaire for a similar study by Herrmann and Warland (1990:311) in which the

frequencies of use of nine food-buying practices were evaluated. These four response options proved to be useful and efficient to measure consumers' use of the practices.

A reliability assessment of the six structured questions representing each of the food-buying practices was undertaken by using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient (presented in the next section under the pre-testing of the questionnaire). Cronbach's alpha coefficient is the most widely objective measure of reliability (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011:53), and measures the degree of internal consistency between variables that measure one concept (Rousseau & Du Plessis, 2007:223). Internal consistency describes the degree to which different items, which measure the same variable, contain consistent results. It should be determined before a test is used for research purposes to ensure validity (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011:53).

The third section was related to the demographical details of the respondent, namely the gender, age, marital status, household size, level of education, employment status, population group and household monthly income. Income categories were adapted from those used in the Census 2011 household questionnaire (Questionnaire A) (Stats SA, 2011b). According to Rousseau (2007:71), researchers prefer to use the term *household* rather than *family* in surveys when referring to a spending unit. For the purpose of this study, the term *household* is used to denote all people who live under one roof and function as an economic unit. From this information a deduction can be made as to which respondents, based on certain demographics, used certain food-buying practices. When considering the review regarding market segmentation and various factors that influence consumer decision-making and behaviour, it could be expected that obtaining such information would be useful and essential to determine whether there was a difference between consumers' demographic details and their use of food-buying practices.

The questionnaire consisted mostly of close-ended questions, except for three, which were open-ended and related to who usually accompanied the respondent when shopping for food, the size of the respondent's household, as well as their number of household members. Semi-literate respondents also often experience problems with the completion of questionnaires. Therefore, where possible, questions were kept simple and straightforward, and respondents were asked to place a cross in or circle the appropriate block to indicate their responses, as advised by Rousseau (2007:29).

3.5 Pilot study of the questionnaire

The content validity of the questionnaire was evaluated by three reviewers who have extensive knowledge on the subject. Face validity is based on a brief review of items by untrained judges in order to assess whether the scale's content logically appears to reflect the concept that it was intended to measure. Before the final questionnaire was compiled, two respective pilot studies of the preliminary questionnaire were conducted by using 20 (total of 60) consumers (5% of the target sample number) within each of the selected sample areas and grocery stores. In order to ensure the face validity of the questionnaire, the consumer's/respondent's capability to understand the questions asked, as well as their overall judgement of the questionnaire, was determined in these pilot studies. Consumers were asked to participate in the pilot study by using the same sampling method (systematic sampling), which was outlined for the actual survey.

The first pilot study revealed that respondents took approximately eight to ten minutes to complete the questionnaire and experienced a number of comprehension difficulties. The following changes were made to this initial questionnaire in order to shorten the length of time taken to complete it, make it more comprehensible, and easier to capture.

- The instruction to answer all questions by marking a cross (x) in the numbered block next to the answer was changed to circling the number in the block. This change was made as the use of a circle enabled the researcher to more clearly identify the number compared to when a cross was used.

- Question three in the initial questionnaire asked respondents to indicate whether or not they usually shopped alone for food. If they indicated that they did not usually shop alone, the opening question was followed by "…how many people usually go with you to the shop?" However, this question seemed ineffective, as most respondents struggled to provide an answer, since the number of people who usually accompanied them varied according to a number of factors. Hence it was decided that a more appropriate and relevant question to ask would be "...who usually goes with you to the shop?" as who consumers' usually shop with may have more of an understandable and definitive effect on their buying behaviour.

- A definition was provided for each response option in question five ('Frequently' 'Sometimes' 'Seldom' 'Never'). It was, however, removed as it seemed to lengthen the questionnaire unnecessarily. Considering that question five consisted of 24 separate questions, it was further noted that consumers often referred to these definitions when answering the questions. This lengthened the amount of time that it took to complete the questionnaire.

- Question five was presented in tabular format in order to easily identify each of the 24 questions. Each question began with “How often do you…”, which was separate to the question and placed at the top of the table. The respondent had to refer to this initial part of the question above the table in order to make sense of or complete the full question. This created confusion and caused the respondent to take longer than necessary to complete the section. The phrase “How often do you…” was then included at the beginning of each question. This created an easier “flow” when reading the questions, eliminated confusion and resulted in a quicker reply.

- Questions 3, 15, 16, 18, 20, 21, 22, and 23 were amended to make them more understandable, and hence possibly increase the degree of internal consistency/reliability between the six questions.

- Question nine was omitted by some respondents presumably owing to the fact that it was unnoticed. This question was, therefore, underlined to make it more conspicuous.

The purpose of the second pilot study was to confirm the changes made to the initial questionnaire. The pilot included all amendments, especially those that were made to question five. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for respondents’ use of a shopping list as a food-buying practice reflected acceptable internal consistencies (>0.7) between the questions. Regarding the use of advertisements, as well as the comparison of prices of different brands, the coefficients were >0.9 representing strong internal consistencies between the questions. For the avoidance of impulse buying as the last food-buying practice, the Cronbach alpha coefficient reflected acceptable (>0.7) internal consistencies between the six items.

Overall, respondents completed the questionnaire in a shorter length of time (five to six minutes), and seemed to have a greater understanding of the content. Respondents did not struggle to understand any of the response options and felt that the options that were provided to them were sufficient. This version became the final questionnaire that was used for the main survey. It was further identified from a previous study conducted by Harper and Crafford (2011) that certain respondents may request assistance with the reading and completion of the questionnaire as they may be in a rush and not have time to read and fill-in the answers themselves. Provision for assistance or “personal interviews” was then made.

Two fieldworkers were trained and observed by the researcher during both pilot studies to ensure that they were apt for the main study. The fieldworkers were evaluated in terms of time utilisation, response rates obtained, quality of interviewing (as additional data collection method if requested by respondents) (see data collection section below), and quality of the gathered data.

- Time (total time taken for the respondents to complete the questionnaire, as well as total time per completed interview): All interviews were completed within the allocated time frame of five to six minutes.

- Response rate (percentage of completed questionnaires or interviews over contacts): Both fieldworkers maintained a rate of approaching every 2nd/3rd person who entered the store for participation.

- Quality of interviewing (as an additional data collection method if requested by respondents). (The appropriateness of the introduction, the precision in asking questions, ability to probe without bias, ability to ask sensitive questions, interpersonal skills, and manner of terminating the interview): Both fieldworkers' quality of interviewing was considered acceptable and fulfilled all abovementioned prerequisites.

- Quality of data (recorded legibly, followed instructions, precise recording of unstructured question responses, meaningful recording of unstructured question responses, and low incidence of item non-response): Quality of data obtained by fieldworkers was suitable and fulfilled most pre-established criterion.

Overall, it was concluded that both fieldworkers demonstrated acceptable skills in all of the above and proved to be suitable for the task.

3.6 Data collection

The survey was conducted over a period of five Saturdays from October to November 2012. In the order of events, two Saturdays were spent in Meadowridge, one in Delft and two in Maitland. A Saturday was chosen to include consumers who did not have sufficient time during the week to complete their grocery shopping (mainly owing to their occupation) and who, therefore, shopped for groceries on the weekend. In addition to this, studies, which were conducted by Kahn and Schmittlein (1989:66), as well as East, Lomax, Willson and Harris (1994:57), found that the majority of respondents indicated that they preferred shopping on a Saturday, as they had more time and could stock-up for the week ahead.

Questionnaires were distributed and completed from 08:00 to 17:00. Two fieldworkers were employed, trained and remunerated to assist with distributing and collecting the consent forms and questionnaires, and to aid respondents, on request, to complete the questionnaire. Reference can be made to Appendix I for the fieldworker guide. The fieldworkers were fluent in both English and Afrikaans. The fieldworkers, though considered apt to carry out the task, were nevertheless supervised throughout the survey days.

A majority (87%) of the respondents opted for the self-administered questionnaire as their chosen method to provide the requested information. Questionnaires were, to a great extent, provided to consumers to complete on their own while shopping in the grocery store. A primary advantage of using this method compared to the personal interview method is to enhance the validity of the information in order to reduce possible response bias introduced by interviewers. Respondents may also be more willing to disclose sensitive information such as their race and income (Bowling, 2005).

In response to requests by certain respondents, personal interviews were also used, following approximately the same procedure as above. The respondents, however, did not complete the questionnaire on their own. Instead, the interviewer asked each question and then indicated the respondent's answer for them. In both instances the researcher provided the respondent with a short, clear explanation of the purpose of the study, and explained any concepts within the questionnaire that the respondents might not have understood.

Regarding the open-ended questions, respondents' answers pertaining to question three (the question regarding who usually accompanied the respondent to the shop if they usually did not shop alone) was grouped and coded into the following suitable shopping partner categories:

1 = Husband;
2 = Wife;
3 = Partner;
4 = Children/grandchildren;
5 = Relative(s);
6 = Friend(s);
7 = Colleague(s); and
8 = Partner/husband and children.

Question four considered the respondent's main method of payment for food product purchases. The fifth response option provided for the question: "Other (Please specify)". The only "other" or additional answer that was provided was the Cape Consumers Buy Aid card. Respondents made mention of no other alternative method of payment. Question nine, the third and last open-ended question focused on the number of people who live in the respondent's household. These answers were not grouped or coded, but were instead left as individual numbers for statistical analysis.

3.7 Analysis of the results

The collected data was captured by using the statistical program SPSS (version 20) and was processed to firstly calculate the descriptive statistics (response frequencies, means and standard errors) in the quantitative analysis. The reliability of the food-buying practice related questions (represented by six items each) was evaluated by using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient as it provides a measure of reliability that can be obtained from one testing session or one administration of the questionnaire (Morgan, Gliner & Harmon, 2006:246). It was utilised to measure the degree of internal consistency between the six questions concerning each food-buying practice (see Appendix J). The Cronbach's alpha uses associations among a set of items to indicate how well the items, as a group, measure the same concept (the degree of internal consistency between items). The idea is that all the questions that aim to measure a single underlying construct should be answered similarly by respondents. Similar responses would indicate that the construct is being measured reliably (Urdan, 2005:116; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011:53). The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient ranges from 0 (although it can go beyond 0) to 1, with a higher value indicating a higher degree of internal consistency or reliability (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:506; Gravetter & Forzano, 2009:461; Vogt & Johnson, 2011:86).

The Generalised Linear Model (GLM) analysis of variance utilising the Wald statistic (StatSoft, 2012), which is based on the chi-square distribution (Katz, 2006:134) and Bonferroni pair-wise comparisons were used to determine any significant differences between respondents' use of the food-buying practices (with the food-buying practice usage scales as the dependant variables), and their socio-economic status area group, their shopper and demographic characteristics (with these characteristics as the predictive factors). The GLM analysis of variance allows the researcher to determine whether the observed frequencies, (which are the collected categorically coded data) are significantly different from the expected frequencies, (which are statistically generated frequencies that are expected to occur in each cell of a table by chance alone) (Cohen *et al*., 2007:525; Urdan, 2010:162). Bonferroni correction pair-wise comparisons post hoc tests were applied on the estimated marginal means. Pair-wise comparisons enable the researcher to compare one condition (or variable) with another, and thus find significant differences between smaller variables (for example, the difference between those who pay via cash or debit card) within a larger variable (for example, payment method) (Hinton, Brownlow, McMurray & Cozens, 2004:156). A significant level of $p<0.001$, as well as $p<0.05$ was used. In Chapter 4 the research findings are discussed and presented in the form of tables.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH FINDINGS

The main objective of this research was to determine the use of four selected food-buying practices among respondents in different socio-economic classes. The questionnaire consisted of three main sections. The first section focused on respondents' shopper characteristics, the second on their use of food-buying practices, and the third on their demographic characteristics. This chapter begins by reporting on the size, as well as the description of the respondent sample. The reliability (using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient) of the questions pertaining to each food-buying practice is provided thereafter. This is followed by an analysis of the use of food-buying practices incorporating the GLM to identify statistically significant differences of the use between the respondent's SES areas, shopper and demographic characteristics.

4.1 Sample size and description

This section focuses on the size of the final sample, as well as a description of the sample, which includes information regarding their demographic and shopper characteristics.

4.1.1 Sample size

Once permission was received to conduct the survey amongst consumers who shop at Shoprite Usave in Delft, Shoprite in Maitland and Checkers in Meadowridge, consumers were approached within each grocery store for participation by using a systematic sampling procedure. The envisaged sample was approximately 1 200 consumers. More consumers were, however, approached to allow for voluntary participation and the possibility of incomplete questionnaires. Ultimately, 1 330 consumers were approached for participation, of which 1 260 completed the questionnaire, providing a response rate of 95%. However, 60 questionnaires had to be rejected, as they were incomplete or not answered as instructed, providing a final respondent sample of 1 200 consumers. Of the 1 200 consumers, 400 were from Meadowridge (high SES area), 400 from Maitland (middle SES area) and 400 from Delft (low SES area).

4.1.2 Demographic characteristics

The findings pertaining to each demographic characteristic for the total sample, as well as for each SES area are presented in Table 4.1. This table presents and elaborates on the most prevalent demographics.

Table 4.1: Respondent sample demographic characteristics

Demographic characteristics		Total sample (n=1200)		High SES area[a] (n=400)		Middle SES area[b] (n=400)		Low SES area[c] (n=400)	
		Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Gender	Male	315	26.2	124	31.0	130	32.5	61	15.2
	Female	885	73.8	276	69.0	270	67.5	339	84.8
Age (years)	18 - 25	81	6.7	22	5.5	21	5.3	38	9.5
	26 - 35	246	20.5	52	13.0	99	24.7	95	23.7
	36 - 45	225	18.8	72	18.0	95	23.7	58	14.5
	46 - 55	318	26.5	90	22.5	87	21.8	141	35.2
	56 - 65	191	15.9	83	20.7	49	12.2	59	14.8
	>66	139	11.6	81	20.3	49	12.3	9	2.3
Marital status	Married	654	54.5	225	56.2	210	52.5	219	54.8
	Living together	63	5.3	23	5.7	26	6.5	14	3.5
	Single	258	21.5	73	18.3	96	24.0	89	22.2
	Widower/widow	107	8.9	31	7.7	38	9.5	38	9.5
	Separated	5	0.4	3	0.8	0	0.0	2	0.5
	Divorced	113	9.4	45	11.3	30	7.5	38	9.5
Number of household members	1	100	8.3	57	14.2	41	10.2	2	0.5
	2	218	18.1	121	30.3	66	16.5	31	7.7
	3	264	22.0	92	23.0	88	22.0	84	21.0
	4	273	22.7	73	18.2	100	25.0	100	25.0
	5	157	13.1	41	10.3	42	10.5	74	18.5
	6	94	7.8	10	2.5	31	7.7	53	13.2
	7	43	3.6	4	1.0	15	3.7	24	6.0
	8	29	2.4	2	0.5	6	1.5	21	5.2
	9	9	0.8	0	0.0	3	0.8	6	1.5
	10	5	0.4	0	0.0	3	0.8	2	0.5
	11	3	0.3	0	0.0	2	0.5	1	0.3
	12	2	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.3	1	0.3
	14	2	0.2	0	0.0	2	0.5	0	0.0
	17	1	0.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.3
Highest level of education	Grade 1 - 7	131	10.9	7	1.7	40	10.0	84	21.0
	Grade 8 - 11	452	37.6	56	14.0	155	38.7	241	60.2
	Grade 12	296	24.7	121	30.3	107	26.7	68	17.0
	Post-matric diploma or certificate	162	13.5	102	25.5	58	14.5	2	0.5
	Degree	98	8.2	65	16.2	33	8.3	0	0.0
	Post-graduate degree	61	5.1	49	12.3	7	1.8	5	1.3
Employment status	Employed (full-time)	563	46.9	191	47.7	221	55.2	151	37.7
	Employed (part-time)	82	6.8	27	6.7	26	6.5	29	7.3
	Self-employed	85	7.1	57	14.3	20	5.1	8	2.0
	Unemployed (looking for work)	73	6.1	5	1.3	18	4.5	50	12.5
	Unemployed (not looking for work)	51	4.2	3	0.7	7	1.7	41	10.3
	Housewife/homemaker	129	10.8	24	6.0	31	7.8	74	18.5
	Pensioner/retired	187	15.5	86	21.5	67	16.7	34	8.5
	Student	21	1.8	7	1.8	6	1.5	8	2.0
	Not working - other	9	0.8	0	0.0	4	1.0	5	1.2
Population group	Black African	134	11.2	24	6.0	70	17.5	40	10.0
	Coloured	804	67.0	134	33.5	312	78.0	358	89.5
	Indian/Asian	15	1.2	11	2.8	3	0.8	1	0.2
	White	238	19.8	227	56.7	10	2.5	1	0.3
	Other	9	0.8	4	1.0	5	1.2	0	0.0
Household monthly income[d]	Less than R800	63	5.3	2	0.5	9	2.3	52	13.0
	R801 - R3 200	356	29.7	28	7.0	100	25.0	228	57.0
	R3 201 - R6 400	241	20.0	43	10.7	116	29.0	82	20.5
	R6 401 - R12 800	190	15.8	67	16.8	94	23.5	29	7.2
	R12 801 - R25 600	183	15.3	115	28.7	61	15.2	7	1.8
	R25 601 - R51 200	105	8.7	86	21.5	17	4.2	2	0.5
	R51 201 - R 102 400	38	3.2	36	9.0	2	0.5	0	0.0
	R102 401 - R204 800	13	1.1	12	3.0	1	0.3	0	0.0
	R204 801 or more	11	0.9	11	2.8	0	0.0	0	0.0

[a] Meadowridge; [b] Maitland; [c] Delft

[d] Adapted from Statistics South Africa Census 2011, Questionnaire A, 2011b

4.1.2.1 Gender, age and marital status

The total respondent sample was largely (73.8%) female. Corresponding with this, most respondents in the high (69%), middle (67.5%) and low (84.8%) SES areas are female. However, there was double the percentage of male respondents in the high (31%), as well as middle (32.5%) in comparison to the low (15.2%) SES area (see Table 4.1). Within the total sample most (65.8%) respondents were between 26 to 55 years of age. This also applied to the middle (70.2%) and low (73.4%) SES areas. However, in the high SES area, most (63.5%) of the respondents were between 46 to 65 years of age, or in the 66 plus year age category (see Table 4.1). Regarding marital status (see Table 4.1), more than half of the respondents in total (54.5%), as well as within the high (56.2%), middle (52.5%) and low (54.8%) SES areas, indicated that they are married. Less than a quarter (18 to 24%) of the respondents in the total sample, as well as within each SES area, indicated that they are single.

4.1.2.2 Household size and level of education

The household sizes, in general (see Table 4.1), consisted of four (22.7%) and three (22%) members, followed by a two-member household (18.1%) with few households (less than 2% or 22 households) having nine and more household members. Compared to the high SES (14.2%) and middle SES (10.2%) areas, only a minimal number of respondents (n=2) in the low SES area indicated that their household consisted of a single occupant, (which was understandably the respondent themselves).

In total, the largest percentage of respondents indicated that they had a Grade 8 to 11 (37.6%) or a Grade 12 (24.7%) as their highest level of education, followed by having a post-matric diploma or certificate (13.5%). Referring to each SES area, most (60.2%) respondents in the low SES area indicated that they had acquired a Grade 8 to 11 level of education. Although many (38.7%) respondents in the middle SES area indicated that they had acquired a Grade 8 to 11 level of education, little more than a quarter (26.7%) of the respondents indicated that they had acquired a Grade 12 level of education and a little less than a quarter (24.5%) indicated that they had acquired a post-matric diploma or certificate, degree, or post-graduate degree. More than half (54%) of the respondents in the high SES area indicated that they had either acquired a post-matric diploma or certificate, degree or post-graduate degree (see Table 4.1).

4.1.2.3 Employment status

The greater part of respondents within the total sample (46.9%), as well as within the high (47.7%), middle (55.2%) and low (37.7%) SES areas indicated that they were employed full-time. There was nonetheless a noticeable difference between the percentage of respondents in each area who indicated that they were either unemployed and looking for work or unemployed and not looking for work. The lower SES area had more (12.5% and 10.3%, respectively) respondents within both categories, compared to the middle (4.5% and 1.7%, respectively) and higher (1.3% and 0.7%, respectively) SES areas (see Table 4.1).

More (14.3%) respondents in the high SES area, compared to the middle (5.1%) and low (2%) SES areas indicated that they were self-employed. Those who indicated that they were self-employed may possibly have been employed on a full-time basis, but did not indicate so under the “employed (full-time)” category, since the self-employed option was available and may have been more applicable to them. In addition to this, the high SES area had a greater pensioner/retired category of respondents (21.5%) in comparison to the middle (16.7%) and low (8.5%) SES areas (see Table 4.1).

4.1.2.4 Population/racial grouping and household monthly income

Referring to population/racial grouping (see Table 4.1), the Coloured group was the most dominant. Most (67%) respondents in the total sample and the majority (78% and 89.5%, respectively) in the middle and low SES areas indicated that they associated themselves with the Coloured population group. On the contrary, over half (56.7%) of the respondents in the high SES area indicated that they associated themselves with the White population group.

Overall, nearly half (49.7%) of the respondents had a household income between R801 to R6 400 per month. However, the household monthly income for many (65%) respondents in the high SES area was within the higher income categories (from R12 801 upward). In the middle SES area, most (77.5%) respondents’ monthly household income was located within the lower to middle income groupings (from R801 to R12 800) and more than half (57%) of the respondents in the low SES area indicated that their average monthly household income was located within the lower income groupings (less than R800 to R3 200) (see Table 4.1).

4.1.3 Shopper characteristics

Table 4.2 represents the findings, which relate to each shopper characteristic for the total sample, as well as within each SES area. The most predominant shopper characteristics are described in the table below.

Table 4.2: Respondent sample shopper characteristics

Shopper characteristics		Total sample (n=1200)		High SES area [a] (n=400)		Middle SES area [b] (n=400)		Low SES area [c] (n=400)	
		Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Shopping frequency	Every day	272	22.6	87	21.7	94	23.5	91	22.7
	2 - 4 times a week	318	26.5	137	34.2	103	25.8	78	19.5
	Once a week	467	38.9	132	33.0	141	35.2	194	48.5
	2 - 3 times a month	68	5.7	21	5.3	31	7.7	16	4.0
	Once a month	75	6.3	23	5.8	31	7.8	21	5.3
Length of time taken to shop	Less than ½ an hour	538	44.8	169	42.2	162	40.5	207	51.8
	½ to 1 hour	497	41.4	165	41.3	181	45.2	151	37.7
	1 - 2 hours	135	11.3	56	14.0	49	12.3	30	7.5
	More than 2 hours	30	2.5	10	2.5	8	2.0	12	3.0
Co-shopping	Shop alone	827	68.9	282	70.5	265	66.2	280	70.0
	Husband	87	7.2	29	7.2	34	8.5	24	6.0
	Wife	75	6.3	31	7.7	38	9.5	6	1.5
	Partner	12	1.0	3	0.8	3	0.7	6	1.5
	Children/grandchildren	120	10.0	25	6.2	31	7.8	64	16.0
	Relative(s)	31	2.5	10	2.5	11	2.8	10	2.5
	Friend(s)	21	1.8	6	1.5	6	1.5	9	2.2
	Colleague(s)	1	0.1	1	0.3	0	0.0	0	0.0
	Family	26	2.2	13	3.3	12	3.0	1	0.3
Payment method	Cash	801	66.7	147	36.8	282	70.5	372	93.0
	Debit card	309	25.8	173	43.2	112	28.0	24	6.0
	Credit card	73	6.1	68	17.0	3	0.7	2	0.5
	Cheque	9	0.7	6	1.5	1	0.3	2	0.5
	Cape consumers (buy aid)	8	0.7	6	1.5	2	0.5	0	0.0

[a] Meadowridge; [b] Maitland; [c] Delft

4.1.3.1 Frequency of shopping

For all three SES areas combined, many (38.9%) respondents indicated that they shopped once a week. This was followed by those who indicated that they shopped two to four times a week (26.5%), and every day (22.6%). A near equal percentage of the respondents indicated that they shopped two to three times a month (5.7%), or once a month (6.3%), totalling 12% of the respondents.

When comparing the results for each SES area (see Table 4.2), almost half (48.5%) of the respondents in the low SES area indicated that they shopped once a week compared to a third of the respondents in the middle (35.2%) and high (33%) SES areas. More respondents in the high SES area (34.2%) indicated that they shopped two to four times a week, compared to the middle (25.8%) and, in particular, the low (19.5%) SES areas. There was a

relatively equal distribution of respondents in the high, middle and low SES areas (21.7%, 23.5% and 22.7%, respectively) who indicated that they shopped every day.

4.1.3.2 Length of shopping trip

Corresponding with the total sample findings, there was an almost equal percentage of respondents in both the high (42.2% and 41.3%, respectively) and middle (40.5% and 45.2%, respectively) SES areas who indicated that they either took less than half an hour or a half to one hour to shop for food. Conversely, just over half (51.8%) of the respondents in the low SES area indicated that they took less than half an hour to shop for food, and over a third (37.7%) stated that they took a half to one hour. Few (2 to 3%) respondents in each of the three areas stated that they took longer than two hours when shopping for food (see Table 4.2).

4.1.3.3 Shopping with others/co-shopping

It is evident (see Table 4.2) that for all three SES areas combined, more than two thirds (68.9%) of the respondents indicated that they usually shopped alone for food. The combined percentage of husband (7.2%), wife (6.3%) and partner (1%) as co-shoppers, amounted to 14.5%. Those who stated that they shopped with their children or grandchildren amounted to 10% of the total sample that was surveyed.

Consistent with the results of the total respondent group, most respondents in the high (70.5%), middle (66.2%) and low (70%) SES areas indicated that they usually shopped alone. About double the percentage of respondents in the high (15.8%), as well as middle (18.8%), compared to the low (9%) SES area, indicated that they shopped with their husbands, wives or partners. More than double the percentage of respondents in the low SES area (16%) than in the high (6.2%) and middle (7.8%) SES areas, however, indicated that they shopped with their children or grandchildren.

4.1.3.4 Payment method used

In total, two thirds (66.7%) of the respondents indicated that they mainly paid for their food product purchases by means of cash. A quarter (25.8%) of the respondents indicated that they paid by means of a debit card, and a mere 6.1% indicated that they made use of a credit card when paying for food. Less than one per cent (0.7% or 8) of the respondents indicated that they paid via cheque or via a Cape Consumers (Buy Aid) card (see Table 4.2).

When considering the results for each area (see Table 4.2), almost all (93%) of the respondents in the low SES area and most (70.5%) in the middle SES area indicated that they mainly paid for their food product purchases by cash. However, the largest (43.2%) percentage of respondents in the high SES area indicated that they paid by means of a debit card. Far less (28%) respondents in the middle SES area and few (6%) respondents in the low SES area indicated that they made use of a debit card when paying for food. The use of a credit card was also more popular among respondents in the high SES area (17%), in comparison to the use thereof in the middle (0.7% or 3 respondents) and low (0.5% or 2 respondents) SES areas.

4.2 Internal reliability of the structured questions pertaining to each food-buying practice

Responses for the question regarding the compilation of a mental shopping list, which was included as an item within the use of a shopping list as a food-buying practice, displayed a low corrected item-total correlation. The item was subsequently deleted to increase the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the shopping list as a food-buying practice. Concerning the other items (n=5) representing the use of a shopping list, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was >0.9 for all three areas combined (the total sample), as well as within the high and low SES areas reflecting strong internal consistencies between the items. The coefficient of this practice for the middle SES area was >0.8 reflecting good internal reliability. Each food-buying practice's six structured items (questions) (except for the use of a shopping list, which has five) along with the Cronbach alpha coefficient, are indicated in Table 4.3 and accompanied by the number and percentage of responses within each of the four response options ('frequently', 'sometimes', 'seldom' and 'never') for each item.

Table 4.3: Measurement of internal reliability between structured questions

Food-buying practice		Total sample (n=1200)								Cronbach's alpha	High SES area[a] (n=400)								Cronbach's alpha	Middle SES area[b] (n=400)								Cronbach's alpha	Low SES area[c] (n=400)								Cronbach's alpha
		Frequently		Sometimes		Seldom		Never			Frequently		Sometimes		Seldom		Never			Frequently		Sometimes		Seldom		Never			Frequently		Sometimes		Seldom		Never		
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	
Use a shopping list[d]	Write down a list	497	41.4	177	14.8	79	6.6	447	37.2	0.915	237	59.3	52	13.0	21	5.2	90	22.5	0.931	141	35.3	67	16.8	33	8.2	159	39.7	0.863	119	29.8	58	14.5	25	6.2	198	49.5	0.936
	Check at home first	425	35.5	460	38.3	154	12.8	161	13.4		188	47.0	133	33.3	30	7.5	49	12.2		112	28.0	185	46.2	72	18.0	31	7.8		125	31.2	142	35.5	52	13.0	81	20.3	
	Having a list while shopping	482	40.2	199	16.5	87	7.3	432	36.0		219	54.7	71	17.7	25	6.3	85	21.3		146	36.5	72	18.0	35	8.8	147	36.7		117	29.2	56	14.0	27	6.8	200	50.0	
	Know exactly what to buy	583	48.6	326	27.2	119	9.9	172	14.3		208	52.0	107	26.8	35	8.7	50	12.5		261	65.3	98	24.5	26	6.5	15	3.7		114	28.5	121	30.3	58	14.5	107	26.7	
	Make a mental list[e]																																			
	Purchase according to a list	448	37.3	224	18.7	91	7.6	437	36.4		225	56.3	67	16.8	23	5.7	85	21.2		115	28.8	94	23.5	34	8.5	157	39.2		108	27.0	63	15.7	34	8.5	195	48.8	
Use advertisements to plan shopping[d]	Look for advertisements	786	65.5	199	16.6	90	7.5	125	10.4	0.935	188	47.0	71	17.8	54	13.5	87	21.7	0.957	275	68.7	74	18.5	29	7.3	22	5.5	0.913	323	80.7	54	13.5	7	1.8	16	4.0	0.853
	Plan to shop for advertised "specials"	694	57.8	278	23.2	96	8.0	132	11.0		147	36.7	103	25.8	59	14.7	91	22.8		234	58.5	113	28.2	29	7.3	24	6.0		313	78.2	62	15.5	8	2.0	17	4.3	
	Pay attention to advertisements	708	59.0	267	22.3	107	8.9	118	9.8		160	40.0	94	23.5	68	17.0	78	19.5		226	56.5	121	30.3	30	7.5	23	5.7		322	80.5	52	13.0	9	2.2	17	4.3	
	Shop knowing about "specials"	458	38.2	461	38.4	167	13.9	114	9.5		101	25.2	135	33.8	88	22.0	76	19.0		168	42.0	156	39.0	54	13.5	22	5.5		189	47.2	170	42.5	25	6.3	16	4.0	
	Use advertisements to plan shopping	352	29.3	457	38.1	252	21.0	139	11.6		91	22.8	110	27.5	106	26.5	93	23.2		108	27.0	192	48.0	72	18.0	28	7.0		153	38.3	155	38.7	74	18.5	18	4.5	
	Immediately plan to shop once you know there is a "special"	330	27.5	370	30.8	307	25.6	193	16.1		89	22.3	97	24.2	99	24.8	115	28.7		78	19.5	154	38.5	114	28.5	54	13.5		163	40.8	119	29.7	94	23.5	24	6.0	
Compare prices of different brands[d]	Compare prices for same type of products	581	48.4	300	25.0	175	14.6	144	12.0	0.926	134	33.5	121	30.3	75	18.7	70	17.5	0.953	222	55.5	88	22.0	57	14.2	33	8.3	0.899	225	56.2	91	22.8	43	10.7	41	10.3	0.899
	Buy a cheaper food brand	533	44.4	369	30.8	123	10.3	175	14.5		147	36.7	106	26.5	51	12.8	96	24.0		170	42.5	136	34.0	56	14.0	38	9.5		216	54.0	127	31.7	16	4.0	41	10.3	
	Compare prices of brands	677	56.4	274	22.8	108	9.0	141	11.8		166	41.5	108	27.0	59	14.7	67	16.8		242	60.5	97	24.3	31	7.7	30	7.5		269	67.3	69	17.2	18	4.5	44	11.0	
	Look for cheapest brand	486	40.5	377	31.4	196	16.3	141	11.8		141	35.2	104	26.0	79	19.8	76	19.0		143	35.8	155	38.7	70	17.5	32	8.0		202	50.5	118	29.5	47	11.7	33	8.3	
	Consider the price difference	501	41.7	404	33.7	172	14.3	123	10.3		127	31.7	140	35.0	66	16.5	67	16.8		178	44.5	150	37.5	52	13.0	20	5.0		196	49.0	114	28.5	54	13.5	36	9.0	
	Purchase the cheapest brand	314	26.2	433	36.1	272	22.6	181	15.1		113	28.2	112	28.0	70	17.5	105	26.3		62	15.5	164	41.0	131	32.7	43	10.8		139	34.7	157	39.2	71	17.8	33	8.3	
Avoid impulse buying[d]	Only buy planned products	417	34.8	339	28.3	235	19.5	209	17.4	0.944	111	27.8	113	28.2	86	21.5	90	22.5	0.960	142	35.5	102	25.5	103	25.7	53	13.3	0.932	164	41.0	124	31.0	46	11.5	66	16.5	0.939
	Consider if a product on special is needed	389	32.4	356	29.7	239	19.9	216	18.0		100	25.0	124	31.0	85	21.3	91	22.7		127	31.7	114	28.5	101	25.3	58	14.5		162	40.5	118	29.5	53	13.3	67	16.7	
	Resist buying unplanned products	374	31.2	381	31.7	226	18.8	219	18.3		98	24.5	119	29.8	88	22.0	95	23.7		108	27.0	145	36.2	91	22.8	56	14.0		168	42.0	117	29.3	47	11.7	68	17.0	
	Only buy products intended	238	19.8	407	33.9	321	26.8	234	19.5		100	25.0	115	28.8	98	24.5	87	21.7		41	10.3	150	37.5	131	32.7	78	19.5		97	24.2	142	35.5	92	23.0	69	17.3	
	Avoid buying appealing or tempting products	172	14.3	341	28.4	382	31.8	305	25.5		90	22.5	106	26.5	108	27.0	96	24.0		25	6.2	106	26.5	147	36.8	122	30.5		57	14.2	129	32.2	127	31.8	87	21.8	
	Only purchase products on list	350	29.2	315	26.3	303	25.2	232	19.3		107	26.7	107	26.8	95	23.7	91	22.8		103	25.7	93	23.3	131	32.8	73	18.2		140	35.0	115	28.7	77	19.3	68	17.0	

[a] Meadowridge [b] Maitland [c] Delft

[d] Questions established for food-buying practice abbreviated into the adjacent statements

[e] Item displayed a low corrected item-total correlation and subsequently deleted to increase the alpha coefficient

The Cronbach alpha coefficients for respondent's use of advertisements as a food-buying practice reflected strong internal consistencies (>0.9) between the items for the total sample and in the high and middle SES areas. In the low SES area the coefficient was 0.853, which demonstrated a good (>0.8) internal consistency between the six items. Regarding the comparison of prices of different brands as a further food-buying practice, the Cronbach alpha coefficients for the total sample, as well as the high SES area reflected strong (>0.9) internal consistencies. In the middle and low SES areas the coefficients were >0.8, which represented good internal consistencies between the items. For the avoidance of impulse buying as the last food-buying practice, the total sample's Cronbach alpha coefficient, as well as the coefficients for each area reflected strong (>0.9) internal consistencies between the six items.

4.3 Frequency of use of each food-buying practice related 'activities'

In order to describe the response frequencies for each of the items related to each food-buying practice, these items (or questions) are referred to as 'activities'. The percentages, which represent how many of the respondents either frequently, sometimes, seldom or never used a specific food-buying practice 'activity' (see Table 4.3) within a practice, were determined to assess how the respondent frequency of use of each 'activity' differed. There were five different 'activities' or questions, which represented the use of a shopping list as a food-buying practice, and thereafter six 'activities' or questions, which represent the other three food-buying practices.

4.3.1 Frequency of shopping list usage related 'activities'

For the frequency of shopping list usage as food-buying practice (see Table 4.3) there was the overall occurrence that for each of the 'activities', namely writing down a list, checking at home first, having a list while shopping, knowing exactly what to buy, and purchasing according to a list, most respondents of the total sample (41.4%, 35.5%, 40.2%, 48.6% and 37.3%, respectively) and even more of the high SES area (59.3%, 47%, 54.7%, 52% and 56.3%, respectively) indicated that they use these frequently. However, the checking at home first 'activity' was also used to a great extent sometimes, and the purchase according to a list 'activity' never by the total sample of respondents (38.3% and 36.4%, respectively), as well as respondents within the middle (46.2% and 39.2%, respectively) and low (35.5% and 48.8%, respectively) SES areas. A shift occurs, since the 'activities' of writing down a shopping list and taking a list with while shopping, were used by most respondents in the middle SES area either frequently (35.3% and 36.5%, respectively) or never (39.7% and

36.7%, respectively), whereas in the low SES area most respondents indicated that they never write down a list (49.5%) or have a list while shopping (50%).

4.3.2 Frequency of advertisement usage related 'activities'

Concerning the frequency of advertisement usage (see Table 4.3) far less than half of the respondents within the high SES area (47%, 36.7% and 40%, respectively); more than half of the respondents within the total sample (65.5%, 57.8% and 59%, respectively); as well as the middle SES area (68.7%, 58.5% and 56.5%, respectively); and the majority of the respondents in the low SES area (80.7%, 78.2% and 80.5%, respectively) indicated that they frequently look for advertisements, plan to shop for advertised "specials", and pay attention to advertisements. The shopping knowing about "specials" 'activity' was also frequently used by many respondents within the middle SES (42%) and low SES (47.2%) areas, whereas fewer respondents within the total sample (38.2%) and high SES area (25.2%) indicated using this 'activity' frequently.

Most respondents within the total sample (38.1%), high SES area (27.5%) and middle SES area (48%) indicated that they sometimes use advertisements to plan shopping. In the low SES area most respondents, which represent a similar respondent percentage indicated that they either frequently (38.3%) or sometimes (38.7%) use advertisements to plan shopping (see Table 4.3). In correspondence with this, most (40.8%) of the respondents within the low SES area indicated that they frequently immediately plan to shop once they know that there is a "special". Most respondents within the total sample (30.8%), as well as middle SES area (38.5%) indicated that they sometimes used this practice. In contrast, not only did most (28.7%) of the respondents within the high SES area indicate that they never immediately plan to shop once they know that there is a "special", but there was as many respondents who indicated that they either frequently (22.3%), sometimes (24.2%) or seldom (24.8%) use this practice (see Table 4.3).

4.3.3 Frequency of comparison of prices of different brands related 'activities'

Most of the respondents in total (48.4%, 44.4% and 56.4%, respectively), within the high SES area (33.5%, 36.7% and 41.5%, respectively), middle SES area (55.5%, 42.5% and 60.5%, respectively) and low SES area (56.2%, 54% and 67.3%, respectively) indicated that they frequently compare prices for the same type of product, buy a cheaper food brand and compare prices of brands. In addition, most of the respondents within the total sample (40.5%), high SES area (35.2%) and low SES area (50.5%) also indicated that they frequently look for the cheapest brand. Most of the respondents within the middle SES area

(38.7%), however, indicated that they sometimes look for the cheapest brand. Over a third to nearly half of the respondents within the total sample (41.7%), middle SES area (44.5%) and low SES area (49%) indicated that they frequently consider the price difference. In the high SES area, however, only approximately one third (35%) of the respondents indicated that they sometimes did this. Most of the respondents within the total sample (36.1%), middle SES area (41%) and low SES area (39.2%) indicated that they sometimes have a greater tendency to purchase the cheapest brand. In the high SES area most of the respondents and a near equal number indicated that they frequently (28.2%) or sometimes (28%) purchase the cheapest brand (see Table 4.3).

4.3.4 Frequency of avoidance of impulse buying related 'activities'

Regarding the avoidance of impulse buying related 'activities' (see Table 4.3), most of the respondents in the total sample (34.8%, 32.4% and 31.2%, respectively) and even more in the low SES area (41%, 40.5% and 42%, respectively) indicated that they frequently only buy planned products, consider if a product on "special" is needed, and resist buying unplanned products, whereas most of the respondents in the high SES area (28.2%, 31% and 29.8%, respectively) indicated that they sometimes practice these three 'activities'. Most of the respondents in the middle SES area indicated that they frequently only buy planned products (35.5%) and frequently consider if a product on "special" is needed (31.7%), but only sometimes resist buying unplanned products (36.2%).

Most of the respondents in the total sample (33.9% and 31.8%, respectively), high SES area (28.8% and 27%, respectively) and middle SES area (37.5% and 36.8%, respectively) indicated that they sometimes only buy products that they intend to, and seldom avoid buying appealing or tempting products. Within the low SES area most of the respondents indicated that they sometimes only buy products that they intend to (35.5%), and sometimes avoid buying appealing or tempting products (32.2%). Within the total sample and low SES area, most (29.2% and 35%, respectively) of the respondents indicated that they frequently only purchase products on their list, whereas most (32.8%) of the respondents within the middle SES area indicated that they seldom only purchase products that are on their list. Within the high SES area most of the respondents and an equal number (n=107) indicated that they either frequently (26.7%) or sometimes (26.8%) only purchase products indicated on their list.

4.4 Effect of SES area, shopper and demographic characteristics on respondents' use of the food-buying practices

This section indicates the statistically ($p<0.05$) significant differences that were found by using the GLM between the three SES areas, and between the respondent's shopper and demographic characteristics and their respective use of each of the four selected food-buying practices.

4.4.1 Shopping list usage as a food-buying practice

4.4.1.1 Effect of SES area

The SES areas revealed a significant ($p<0.001$) difference in the respondents' propensity to use a shopping list. Respondents within the low SES area displayed a significantly ($p<0.001$ and $p<0.05$, respectively) lower propensity to use a shopping list, compared to the high and middle SES area respondents (see Table 4.4 for this food-buying practice).

Table 4.4: Effect of SES area on respondents' use of the food-buying practices

Food-buying practice and area		Total sample	
		M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.
Use of a shopping list	High SES area[a] (1)	1.73 (0.23)	0.001[e]
	Middle SES area[b] (2)	1.93 (0.24)	(1) - (3)[g]
	Low SES area[c] (3)	2.18 (0.25)	(2) - (3)[h]
Use of advertisements	High SES area[a] (1)	2.36 (0.16)	0.002[f]
	Middle SES area[b] (2)	2.21 (0.16)	(1) - (3)[g]
	Low SES area[c] (3)	2.04 (0.17)	(2) - (3)[h]
Compare prices	High SES area[a] (1)	2.27 (0.17)	0.030[f]
	Middle SES area[b] (2)	2.06 (0.18)	(1) - (2)[h]
	Low SES area[c] (3)	2.07 (0.18)	
Avoid impulse buying	High SES area[a] (1)	2.43 (0.19)	
	Middle SES area[b] (2)	2.52 (0.19)	
	Low SES area[c] (3)	2.36 (0.20)	

[a] Meadowridge; [b] Maitland; [c] Delft

[d] Mean and standard error with a mean value of 1=Frequently; 2=Sometimes; 3=Seldom and 4=Never

[e] Wald Chi-square test showed a significant difference at $p<0.001$

[f] Wald Chi-square test showed a significant difference at $p<0.05$

[g] Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons of the estimated marginal means for identification of pair-wise contrasts on overall significance ($p<0.001$) in the Generalized Linear Model (GLM)

[h] Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons of the estimated marginal means for identification of pair-wise contrasts on overall significance ($p<0.05$) in the Generalized Linear Model (GLM)

4.4.1.2 Effect of respondents' shopper characteristics

In the low SES area (see Table 4.5) there was a significant ($p<0.05$) difference that was identified for the respondent's length of time taken to shop and their use of a shopping list. Respondents who indicated that they took *less than half an hour* had a significantly ($p<0.05$) lower propensity to use a shopping list, compared to those who indicated that they took *one to two hours* to shop for food. A significant ($p<0.05$) difference within this area (see Table 4.5) was additionally noted for the method of payment that was used and the use of a shopping list. Those who paid via cash had a significantly ($p<0.05$) lower propensity to use a shopping list compared to those who paid via debit card.

Table 4.5: Effect of respondents' shopper characteristics on shopping list usage as a food-buying practice

Respondent shopper characteristics	Total sample		High SES area[a]		Middle SES area[b]		Low SES area[c]	
	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.
Shopping frequency								
Everyday (1)	1.98 (0.24)		2.05 (0.32)		2.01 (0.35)		2.85 (0.60)	
2 - 4 times a week (2)	1.97 (0.24)		2.02 (0.30)		1.96 (0.36)		2.99 (0.59)	
Once a week (3)	1.95 (0.24)		1.99 (0.31)		1.97 (0.35)		2.97 (0.60)	
2 - 3 times a month (4)	2.01 (0.26)		1.89 (0.34)		1.87 (0.39)		3.24 (0.64)	
Once a month (5)	1.81 (0.26)		2.00 (0.34)		1.74 (0.38)		2.75 (0.63)	
Shopping length								
Less than ½ an hour (1)	2.08 (0.24)		1.92 (0.29)		2.11 (0.36)		3.24 (0.59)	0.041[e]
½ to 1 hour (2)	1.95 (0.24)		1.94 (0.29)		1.95 (0.35)		3.05 (0.59)	(1) - (3)[f]
1 - 2 hours (3)	1.92 (0.24)		1.95 (0.31)		2.08 (0.35)		2.65 (0.62)	
More than 2 hours (4)	1.83 (0.29)		2.14 (0.43)		1.50 (0.47)		2.89 (0.66)	
Co-shopping								
Shop alone (1)	2.03 (0.21)		2.16 (0.28)		2.01 (0.34)		2.85 (0.59)	
Husband (2)	2.09 (0.23)		2.21 (0.35)		1.69 (0.37)		3.21 (0.61)	
Wife (3)	2.05 (0.24)		2.29 (0.34)		1.95 (0.36)		2.22 (0.75)	
Partner (4)	1.94 (0.37)		2.17 (0.67)		1.31 (0.64)		2.74 (0.75)	
Children/grandchildren (5)	2.16 (0.22)		1.99 (0.31)		2.04 (0.37)		3.15 (0.60)	
Relative(s) (6)	2.00 (0.27)		1.96 (0.40)		2.16 (0.43)		2.62 (0.68)	
Friend(s) (7)	2.22 (0.29)		1.80 (0.47)		2.44 (0.51)		3.13 (0.68)	
Colleague(s) (8)	1.16 (1.04)		1.35 (1.00)					
Family (9)	1.86 (0.29)		1.94 (0.38)		1.70 (0.43)		3.76 (1.23)	
Payment method								
Cash (1)	2.02 (0.21)		1.95 (0.27)		2.20 (0.26)		2.98 (0.54)	0.031[e]
Debit card (2)	1.97 (0.21)		2.15 (0.28)		2.24 (0.26)		2.31 (0.58)	(1) - (2)[f]
Credit card (3)	1.98 (0.24)		2.12 (0.30)		1.21 (0.58)		2.47 (0.96)	
Cheque (4)	1.86 (0.39)		1.89 (0.47)		1.02 (0.91)			
Cape consumers (Buy Aid) (5)	1.90 (0.41)		1.83 (0.48)		2.88 (0.68)		4.07 (1.00)	

[a] Meadowridge; [b] Maitland; [c] Delft

[d] Mean and standard error with a mean value of 1=Frequently; 2=Sometimes; 3=Seldom and 4=Never

[e] Wald Chi-square test showed a significant difference at $p<0.05$

[f] Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons of the estimated marginal means for identification of pair-wise contrasts on overall significance ($p<0.05$) in the Generalized Linear Model (GLM)

4.4.1.3 Effect of respondents' demographic characteristics

Significant ($p<0.05$ and $p<0.001$, respectively) differences were found for the use of a shopping list and the respondent's gender, as well as for the use of a shopping list and the respondent's *employment status* within the high SES area (see Table 4.6). Female respondents within this area displayed a significantly ($p<0.05$) higher propensity to use a shopping list, compared to male respondents, while self-employed respondents had a significantly ($p<0.05$) lower propensity to use a shopping list compared to pensioner/retired persons.

Table 4.6: Respondents' demographic characteristics and the effect thereof on shopping list usage as a food-buying practice

Respondent demographic characteristics	Total sample		High SES area[a]		Middle SES area[b]		Low SES area[c]	
	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.
Gender								
Male (1)	1.96 (0.24)		2.14 (0.31)	0.012[e]	1.86 (0.35)		2.98 (0.59)	
Female (2)	1.93 (0.23)		1.83 (0.29)	(1) - (2)[g]	1.96 (0.35)		2.94 (0.60)	
Age								
18 - 25 (1)	1.98 (0.26)		2.06 (0.35)		2.11 (0.40)		2.97 (0.61)	
26 - 35 (2)	1.92 (0.24)		1.89 (0.34)		2.06 (0.36)		2.95 (0.58)	
36 - 45 (3)	1.80 (0.24)		1.72 (0.31)		1.85 (0.36)		2.92 (0.60)	
46 - 55 (4)	2.00 (0.24)		2.13 (0.32)		2.04 (0.37)		3.01 (0.60)	
56 - 65 (5)	2.07 (0.24)		2.13 (0.31)		1.96 (0.37)		2.94 (0.61)	
>66 (6)	1.90 (0.26)		1.99 (0.33)		1.44 (0.42)		2.97 (0.71)	
Marital status								
Married (1)	1.91 (0.22)		1.93 (0.28)		1.73 (0.36)		3.06 (0.58)	
Living together (2)	1.91 (0.25)		1.74 (0.34)		1.98 (0.38)		2.62 (0.66)	
Single (3)	2.03 (0.23)		2.18 (0.29)		1.76 (0.36)		3.01 (0.59)	
Widower/widow (4)	2.02 (0.24)		1.92 (0.34)		2.02 (0.38)		3.15 (0.60)	
Separated (5)	1.93 (0.50)		2.55 (0.64)				2.80 (0.96)	
Divorced (6)	1.87 (0.24)		1.60 (0.31)		2.06 (0.39)		3.12 (0.60)	
Number of household members								
1 (1)	2.05 (0.24)		2.26 (0.32)		1.84 (0.38)		3.45 (1.01)	
2 (2)	1.96 (0.21)		2.09 (0.29)		1.89 (0.35)		3.20 (0.59)	
3 (3)	1.87 (0.21)		2.02 (0.28)		1.89 (0.36)		2.96 (0.57)	
4 (4)	1.97 (0.21)		2.03 (0.30)		2.04 (0.36)		3.11 (0.57)	
5 (5)	2.02 (0.22)		2.20 (0.31)		1.91 (0.37)		3.18 (0.58)	
6 (6)	1.93 (0.23)		1.46 (0.41)		2.13 (0.37)		3.15 (0.58)	
7 (7)	1.89 (0.25)		2.11 (0.55)		1.84 (0.42)		3.16 (0.61)	
8 (8)	1.80 (0.28)		1.73 (0.76)		1.48 (0.50)		2.82 (0.61)	
9 (9)	2.13 (0.39)				1.73 (0.62)		3.23 (0.71)	
10 (10)	1.26 (0.49)				1.62 (0.62)		1.64 (0.96)	
11 (11)	2.04 (0.61)				1.72 (0.72)		3.62 (1.23)	
12 (12)	1.58 (0.74)				2.45 (0.93)		1.37 (1.28)	
14 (13)	2.55 (0.75)				2.30 (0.83)			
17 (14)	2.20 (1.02)						3.59 (1.27)	
Highest level of education								
Grade 1 - 7 (1)	2.09 (0.25)		2.32 (0.48)		2.16 (0.38)		2.85 (0.60)	
Grade 8 - 11 (2)	1.99 (0.24)		2.09 (0.32)		1.75 (0.35)		2.82 (0.59)	
Grade 12 (3)	1.93 (0.24)		1.99 (0.30)		1.84 (0.36)		2.71 (0.60)	
Post-matric diploma or certificate (4)	1.87 (0.25)		1.96 (0.30)		1.61 (0.37)		3.28 (0.99)	
Degree (5)	1.86 (0.25)		1.83 (0.30)		1.85 (0.37)			
Post-graduate degree (6)	1.93 (0.26)		1.71 (0.31)		2.25 (0.49)		3.14 (0.73)	
Employment status								
Employed (full-time) (1)	1.97 (0.23)		2.00 (0.29)	0.001[f]	1.93 (0.35)		3.05 (0.58)	
Employed (part-time) (2)	2.05 (0.25)		2.15 (0.32)		1.96 (0.39)		3.02 (0.62)	
Self-employed (3)	2.16 (0.25)		2.23 (0.31)	(3) - (7)[g]	1.90 (0.39)		2.88 (0.70)	
Unemployed (looking for work) (4)	2.01 (0.26)		1.85 (0.52)		1.94 (0.40)		3.12 (0.61)	
Unemployed (not looking for work) (5)	2.13 (0.27)		2.99 (0.62)		1.76 (0.49)		3.17 (0.61)	
Housewife/homemaker (6)	1.86 (0.24)		1.77 (0.35)		1.71 (0.38)		3.01 (0.61)	
Pensioner/retired (7)	1.72 (0.25)		1.43 (0.32)		2.30 (0.38)		2.84 (0.63)	
Student (8)	1.82 (0.32)		1.47 (0.48)		2.08 (0.53)		2.52 (0.70)	
Not working - other (9)	1.77 (0.41)				1.60 (0.56)		3.03 (0.77)	
Population group								
Black African (1)	2.02 (0.25)		2.16 (0.34)		2.00 (0.36)		2.35 (0.47)	
Coloured (2)	2.09 (0.23)		2.04 (0.28)		2.01 (0.34)		2.34 (0.44)	
Indian/Asian (3)	2.08 (0.33)		1.96 (0.39)		2.04 (0.60)		3.27 (1.18)	
White (4)	1.80 (0.23)		1.75 (0.28)		1.83 (0.44)		3.88 (1.24)	
Other (5)	1.74 (0.40)		2.02 (0.58)		1.67 (0.51)			
Household monthly income								
Less than R800 (1)	1.93 (0.26)		2.52 (0.78)		2.46 (0.44)		2.93 (0.61)	
R801 - R3 200 (2)	1.88 (0.24)		1.86 (0.32)		1.67 (0.35)		2.94 (0.60)	
R3 201 - R6 400 (3)	1.97 (0.24)		2.02 (0.33)		1.71 (0.35)		3.15 (0.62)	
R6 401 - R12 800 (4)	1.81 (0.24)		1.81 (0.32)		1.69 (0.35)		3.11 (0.64)	
R12 801 - R25 600 (5)	1.97 (0.24)		1.91 (0.30)		1.75 (0.35)		3.63 (0.72)	
R25 601 - R51 200 (6)	2.03 (0.25)		1.98 (0.31)		1.65 (0.40)		1.99 (0.99)	
R51 201 - R 102 400 (7)	2.11 (0.29)		2.10 (0.35)		2.16 (0.72)			
R102 401 - R204 800 (8)	2.29 (0.36)		2.34 (0.40)		2.19 (1.27)			
R204 801 or more (9)	1.51 (0.38)		1.35 (0.41)					

[a] Meadowridge; [b] Maitland; [c] Delft

[d] Mean and standard error with a mean value of 1=Frequently; 2=Sometimes; 3=Seldom and 4=Never

[e] Wald Chi-square test showed a significant difference at $p<0.05$

[f] Wald Chi-square test showed a significant difference at $p<0.001$

[g] Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons of the estimated marginal means for identification of pair-wise contrasts on overall significance ($p<0.05$) in the Generalized Linear Model (GLM)

4.4.2 Advertisements usage as a food-buying practice

4.4.2.1 Effect of SES area

There was a significant ($p<0.05$) area difference for the respondent's use of advertisements as a food-buying practice. Both the high and middle SES area's respondents had a significantly ($p<0.001$ and $p<0.05$, respectively) lower propensity to use advertisements in comparison to the low SES area respondents (see Table 4.4 for this food-buying practice).

4.4.2.2 Effect of respondents' shopper characteristics

A significant ($p<0.05$) difference was identified for advertisement usage as a food-buying practice and respondents' shopping frequency within the low SES area. Those who shopped once a week displayed a significantly ($p<0.05$) higher propensity to use advertisements, compared to those who shopped two to three times a month (see Table 4.7). For the factor of *co-shopping,* a significant ($p<0.05$) difference was identified within the high SES area. Respondents who shopped alone or with their children or grandchildren had a significantly ($p<0.05$) lower propensity to use advertisements to plan their food shopping compared to those who shopped with their wives (see Table 4.7).

The effect of the method of payment on respondents' use of advertisements was found to be significant ($p<0.001$) in the low SES area. A significant difference ($p<0.05$ and $p<0.001$, respectively) was identified among respondents who paid by means of cash and those who paid via credit card or cheque and their use of advertisements with cash users having a higher propensity to use advertisements. Those who paid via debit card were also found to be significantly ($p<0.05$ and $p<0.001$, respectively) different in their use of advertisements, compared to those who paid via credit card or cheque, with those who paid via debit card having the higher propensity to use advertisements. Although the results indicate significant differences between these methods of payment, the high standard error (SE) for payment via credit card and cheque must also be considered in this regard (see Table 4.7).

While there was a significant ($p<0.05$) difference revealed for co-shopping and advertisement usage within the total sample, the post hoc Bonferroni pair-wise comparison test identified no significant differences between the co-shopping characteristics. Hence, no specific amongst respondents' co-shopping characteristics and the use of advertisements were identified (see Table 4.7).

Table 4.7: Effect of respondents' shopper characteristics on the use of advertisements as a food-buying practice

Respondent shopper characteristics	Total sample		High SES area[a]		Middle SES area[b]		Low SES area[c]	
	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.
Shopping frequency								
Everyday (1)	2.09 (0.16)		2.06 (0.29)		1.49 (0.27)		2.71 (0.29)	0.032[e]
2 - 4 times a week (2)	2.21 (0.16)		2.28 (0.28)		1.54 (0.27)		2.74 (0.29)	(3) - (4)[g]
Once a week (3)	2.18 (0.16)		2.21 (0.28)		1.69 (0.26)		2.67 (0.29)	
2 - 3 times a month (4)	2.25 (0.18)		2.25 (0.32)		1.55 (0.29)		3.13 (0.32)	
Once a month (5)	2.29 (0.18)		2.54 (0.32)		1.48 (0.28)		2.82 (0.31)	
Shopping length								
Less than ½ an hour (1)	2.27 (0.16)		2.32 (0.26)		1.74 (0.26)		2.78 (0.29)	
½ to 1 hour (2)	2.20 (0.16)		2.26 (0.26)		1.57 (0.26)		2.75 (0.29)	
1 - 2 hours (3)	2.18 (0.16)		2.26 (0.28)		1.56 (0.26)		2.91 (0.30)	
More than 2 hours (4)	2.17 (0.21)		2.23 (0.40)		1.33 (0.36)		2.81 (0.33)	
Co-shopping								
Shop alone (1)	2.39 (0.13)	0.045[e]	2.60 (0.24)	0.002[e]	1.69 (0.25)		2.78 (0.28)	
Husband (2)	2.29 (0.16)		2.22 (0.32)	(1) (5) - (3)[g]	1.52 (0.28)		3.07 (0.29)	
Wife (3)	2.07 (0.16)		1.82 (0.30)		1.50 (0.27)		3.34 (0.37)	
Partner (4)	2.38 (0.27)		2.87 (0.65)		1.36 (0.50)		2.33 (0.36)	
Children/grandchildren (5)	2.45 (0.15)		2.80 (0.27)		1.71 (0.28)		2.83 (0.29)	
Relative(s) (6)	2.17 (0.19)		2.10 (0.38)		1.49 (0.33)		2.75 (0.33)	
Friend(s) (7)	2.20 (0.21)		2.29 (0.44)		1.51 (0.38)		2.69 (0.34)	
Colleague(s) (8)	1.65 (0.79)		1.32 (0.97)					
Family (9)	2.22 (0.20)		2.40 (0.35)		1.63 (0.32)		2.72 (0.62)	
Payment method								
Cash (1)	2.11 (0.14)		2.22 (0.25)		1.74 (0.19)		2.08 (0.26)	0.000[f]
Debit card (2)	2.09 (0.14)		2.23 (0.25)		1.74 (0.19)		1.98 (0.28)	
Credit card (3)	2.24 (0.17)		2.31 (0.26)		1.28 (0.45)		3.19 (0.48)	(1) (2) - (3)[g]
Cheque (4)	2.12 (0.29)		1.85 (0.45)		1.20 (0.71)		4.00 (0.50)	(1) (2) - (4)[h]
Cape consumers (Buy Aid) (5)	2.46 (0.30)		2.74 (0.46)		1.80 (0.52)			

[a] Meadowridge; [b] Maitland; [c] Delft

[d] Mean and standard error with a mean value of 1=Frequently; 2=Sometimes; 3=Seldom and 4=Never

[e] Wald Chi-square test showed a significant difference at p<0.05

[f] Wald Chi-square test showed a significant difference at p<0.001

[g] Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons of the estimated marginal means for identification of pair-wise contrasts on overall significance (p<0.05) in the Generalized Linear Model (GLM)

[h] Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons of the estimated marginal means for identification of pair-wise contrasts on overall significance (p<0.001) in the Generalized Linear Model (GLM)

4.4.2.3 Effect of respondents' demographic characteristics

For the total sample (p<0.001), as well as within the middle SES area, a significant (p<0.05) difference was identified between male and female respondents' use of advertisements as a food-buying practice. In both the samples male compared to female respondents had a lower propensity to use advertisements (see Table 4.8).

Considering the population groups in the total sample, as well as within the lower SES area, significant (p<0.05) differences were found in their use of advertisements to plan shopping. Within the total sample there was a significant (p<0.05) difference between White and Coloured respondents. White respondents were found to have a lower propensity to use advertisements than Coloured respondents (see Table 4.8). Within the low SES area there were significant (p<0.001 and p<0.05, respectively) differences between the White population group and the Black African, Coloured and Indian/Asian population groups with

again the White population group having the lower propensity to use advertisements as a food-buying practice (see Table 4.8). Although the White population group in the low SES area had a lower propensity to use advertisements, their diminutive presence in the low SES area must be taken into consideration (see Table 4.1).

Within the total sample there was a significant ($p<0.05$) respondent household monthly income difference in respect of respondents' use of advertisements. Respondents with a household monthly income of between R25 601 and R51 200 displayed a significantly ($p<0.05$) lower propensity to make use of advertisements compared to those with a monthly income of between R801 and R6 400, and R12 801 and R25 600 (see Table 4.8).

Significant ($p<0.05$) differences for marital status and household size within the high SES area, household size within the total sample and household monthly income within the middle SES area emerged for the use of advertisements as a food-buying practice. However, no significant differences in terms of the Bonferroni pair-wise comparisons could be identified amongst these respondent demographic characteristics and the use of advertisements as a food-buying practice (see Table 4.8).

Table 4.8: Effect of demographic characteristics on advertisement usage as a food-buying practice

Respondent demographic characteristics	Total sample		High SES area[a]		Middle SES area[b]		Low SES area[c]	
	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.
Gender								
Male (1)	2.33 (0.16)	0.000[e]	2.36 (0.28)		1.69 (0.26)	0.003[f]	2.85 (0.29)	
Female (2)	2.08 (0.16)	(1) - (2)[g]	2.18 (0.26)		1.42 (0.26)	(1) - (2)[h]	2.77 (0.29)	
Age								
18 - 25 (1)	2.24 (0.18)		2.21 (0.33)		1.69 (0.30)		2.89 (0.30)	
26 - 35 (2)	2.29 (0.16)		2.41 (0.31)		1.62 (0.27)		2.85 (0.28)	
36 - 45 (3)	2.14 (0.16)		2.09 (0.28)		1.61 (0.27)		2.75 (0.29)	
46 - 55 (4)	2.22 (0.16)		2.25 (0.29)		1.56 (0.27)		2.84 (0.29)	
56 - 65 (5)	2.20 (0.16)		2.38 (0.28)		1.46 (0.28)		2.72 (0.30)	
>66 (6)	2.13 (0.18)		2.27 (0.30)		1.37 (0.31)		2.84 (0.35)	
Marital status								
Married (1)	2.14 (0.15)		2.25 (0.25)	0.023[f]	1.54 (0.27)		2.85 (0.28)	
Living together (2)	2.03 (0.17)		1.77 (0.30)		1.45 (0.28)		2.94 (0.32)	
Single (3)	2.12 (0.15)		2.08 (0.27)		1.46 (0.27)		2.93 (0.29)	
Widower/widow (4)	2.18 (0.16)		2.36 (0.31)		1.69 (0.28)		2.68 (0.29)	
Separated (5)	2.68 (0.37)		3.26 (0.61)				2.62 (0.48)	
Divorced (6)	2.06 (0.16)		1.89 (0.29)		1.61 (0.29)		2.86 (0.29)	
Number of household members								
1 (1)	2.43 (0.18)	0.042[f]	2.51 (0.31)	0.006[f]	1.53 (0.30)		2.44 (0.51)	
2 (2)	2.32 (0.17)		2.41 (0.28)		1.51 (0.28)		2.96 (0.30)	
3 (3)	2.30 (0.16)		2.30 (0.27)		1.69 (0.28)		2.83 (0.29)	
4 (4)	2.32 (0.17)		2.39 (0.29)		1.67 (0.28)		2.76 (0.29)	
5 (5)	2.15 (0.17)		1.85 (0.30)		1.51 (0.29)		2.78 (0.29)	
6 (6)	2.25 (0.18)		1.84 (0.40)		1.68 (0.29)		2.79 (0.29)	
7 (7)	2.30 (0.20)		1.97 (0.54)		1.57 (0.33)		2.91 (0.31)	
8 (8)	2.19 (0.21)		2.25 (0.74)		1.87 (0.40)		2.62 (0.31)	
9 (9)	2.34 (0.30)				1.14 (0.48)		2.97 (0.36)	
10 (10)	1.99 (0.38)				1.19 (0.48)		2.77 (0.49)	
11 (11)	2.15 (0.47)				1.57 (0.56)		2.20 (0.62)	
12 (12)	2.12 (0.57)				1.72 (0.73)		3.01 (0.65)	
14 (13)	1.79 (0.57)				1.08 (0.65)			
17 (14)	1.87 (0.78)						2.50 (0.64)	
Highest level of education								
Grade 1 - 7 (1)	2.22 (0.17)		2.47 (0.45)		1.74 (0.28)		2.88 (0.29)	
Grade 8 - 11 (2)	2.16 (0.16)		2.18 (0.29)		1.60 (0.27)		2.87 (0.28)	
Grade 12 (3)	2.13 (0.16)		2.20 (0.27)		1.59 (0.27)		2.87 (0.29)	
Post-matric diploma or certificate (4)	2.13 (0.17)		2.15 (0.27)		1.57 (0.27)		2.75 (0.49)	
Degree (5)	2.31 (0.17)		2.29 (0.28)		1.79 (0.27)			
Post-graduate degree (6)	2.26 (0.18)		2.32 (0.29)		1.02 (0.38)		2.69 (0.36)	
Employment status								
Employed (full-time) (1)	2.18 (0.15)		2.52 (0.26)		1.38 (0.26)		2.83 (0.28)	
Employed (part-time) (2)	2.11 (0.17)		2.21 (0.30)		1.43 (0.29)		2.90 (0.30)	
Self-employed (3)	2.26 (0.17)		2.51 (0.28)		1.75 (0.29)		2.56 (0.34)	
Unemployed (looking for work) (4)	2.19 (0.18)		1.99 (0.49)		1.81 (0.30)		2.75 (0.30)	
Unemployed (not looking for work) (5)	2.14 (0.19)		2.23 (0.59)		1.32 (0.37)		2.82 (0.30)	
Housewife/homemaker (6)	2.04 (0.17)		1.82 (0.32)		1.35 (0.28)		2.83 (0.30)	
Pensioner/retired (7)	2.18 (0.17)		2.33 (0.30)		1.58 (0.29)		2.94 (0.30)	
Student (8)	2.19 (0.23)		2.55 (0.45)		1.48 (0.40)		2.74 (0.35)	
Not working - other (9)	2.54 (0.30)				1.86 (0.43)		2.96 (0.38)	
Population group								
Black African (1)	2.15 (0.17)	0.002[f]	2.04 (0.32)		1.73 (0.26)		2.22 (0.22)	0.002[f]
Coloured (2)	2.07 (0.15)		2.11 (0.26)		1.51 (0.25)		2.23 (0.21)	
Indian/Asian (3)	1.97 (0.24)	(2) - (4)[h]	2.22 (0.36)		0.83 (0.47)		2.27 (0.59)	(1)(2) - (4)[g]
White (4)	2.40 (0.16)		2.38 (0.25)		1.70 (0.33)		4.53 (0.62)	(3) - (4)[h]
Other (5)	2.42 (0.29)		2.61 (0.55)		1.98 (0.39)			
Household monthly income								
Less than R800 (1)	2.04 (0.18)	0.007[f]	2.56 (0.75)		1.74 (0.34)	0.046[f]	2.90 (0.30)	
R801 - R3 200 (2)	1.99 (0.16)		1.82 (0.30)		1.39 (0.26)		2.92 (0.29)	
R3 201 - R6 400 (3)	1.99 (0.16)	(2)(3)(5)-(6)[h]	1.88 (0.30)		1.46 (0.25)		2.88 (0.30)	
R6 401 - R12 800 (4)	2.18 (0.16)		2.12 (0.29)		1.66 (0.25)		3.10 (0.31)	
R12 801 - R25 600 (5)	2.08 (0.16)		2.13 (0.27)		1.48 (0.25)		2.96 (0.35)	
R25 601 - R51 200 (6)	2.39 (0.17)		2.43 (0.29)		1.96 (0.29)		2.12 (0.50)	
R51 201 - R 102 400 (7)	2.41 (0.21)		2.46 (0.32)		1.44 (0.56)			
R102 401 - R204 800 (8)	2.32 (0.26)		2.43 (0.38)		1.27 (0.81)			
R204 801 or more (9)	2.43 (0.28)		2.59 (0.38)					

[a] Meadowridge; [b] Maitland; [c] Delft

[d] Mean and standard error with a mean value of 1=Frequently; 2=Sometimes; 3=Seldom and 4=Never

[e] Wald Chi-square test showed a significant difference at p<0.001

[f] Wald Chi-square test showed a significant difference at p<0.05

[g] Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons of the estimated marginal means for identification of pair-wise contrasts on overall significance (p<0.001) in the Generalized Linear Model (GLM)

[h] Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons of the estimated marginal means for identification of pair-wise contrasts on overall significance (p<0.05) in the Generalized Linear Model (GLM)

4.4.3 Comparison of prices of different brands as a food-buying practice

4.4.3.1 Effect of SES area

A significant ($p<0.05$) difference occurred amongst the three SES areas and respondents' propensity to compare the prices of different brands as a food-buying practice. A significant ($p<0.05$) difference was found between the high and middle SES areas with the high SES area respondents, displaying a significantly ($p<0.05$) lower propensity to compare prices (see Table 4.4 for this food-buying practice).

4.4.3.2 Effect of respondents' shopper characteristics

A significant ($p<0.001$) difference was found for respondents within the middle SES area between their length of time taken to shop and their propensity to compare prices when shopping for food. Respondents who indicated that they took less than half an hour to shop had a significantly ($p<0.05$) lower propensity to compare the prices of different brands compared to respondents who indicated that they took a half to one hour or one to two hours to shop for food (see Table 4.9).

Within the total sample a significant ($p<0.05$) difference was identified between co-shopping and comparing prices when shopping for food. However, the Bonferroni pair-wise comparison post-hoc test identified no specific significant differences between the co-shopping characteristics and comparing prices as a food-buying practice (see Table 4.9).

Table 4.9: Effect of respondents' shopper characteristics on their tendency to compare the prices of different brands as a food buying practice

Respondent shopper characteristics	Total sample		High SES area[a]		Middle SES area[b]		Low SES area[c]	
	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.
Shopping frequency								
Everyday (1)	2.13 (0.17)		2.41 (0.30)		2.10 (0.28)		1.43 (0.39)	
2 - 4 times a week (2)	2.05 (0.17)		2.26 (0.29)		2.14 (0.28)		1.37 (0.39)	
Once a week (3)	2.15 (0.17)		2.47 (0.29)		2.21 (0.28)		1.39 (0.40)	
2 - 3 times a month (4)	2.09 (0.19)		2.33 (0.32)		2.03 (0.31)		1.48 (0.43)	
Once a month (5)	2.23 (0.19)		2.41 (0.32)		2.18 (0.30)		1.63 (0.42)	
Shopping length								
Less than ½ an hour (1)	2.26 (0.17)		2.47 (0.27)		2.42 (0.28)	0.001[e]	1.44 (0.39)	
½ to 1 hour (2)	2.18 (0.17)		2.53 (0.27)		2.14 (0.27)	(1) - (2)(3)[g]	1.46 (0.39)	
1 - 2 hours (3)	2.22 (0.18)		2.65 (0.28)		2.03 (0.27)		1.62 (0.41)	
More than 2 hours (4)	1.86 (0.22)		1.85 (0.41)		1.94 (0.38)		1.31 (0.44)	
Co-shopping								
Shop alone (1)	2.19 (0.14)	0.034[f]	2.45 (0.25)		2.18 (0.27)		1.66 (0.39)	
Husband (2)	2.04 (0.17)		2.04 (0.32)		2.32 (0.29)		1.52 (0.40)	
Wife (3)	1.96 (0.17)		2.03 (0.31)		2.06 (0.29)		2.21 (0.50)	
Partner (4)	1.71 (0.29)		1.92 (0.66)		1.88 (0.52)		1.35 (0.48)	
Children/grandchildren (5)	2.14 (0.16)		2.45 (0.28)		2.21 (0.29)		1.54 (0.40)	
Relative(s) (6)	1.81 (0.20)		2.02 (0.39)		2.09 (0.34)		1.27 (0.45)	
Friend(s) (7)	1.93 (0.23)		2.32 (0.45)		2.10 (0.41)		1.23 (0.46)	
Colleague(s) (8)	3.25 (0.86)		3.44 (0.99)					
Family (9)	2.16 (0.22)		2.70 (0.36)		2.20 (0.34)		0.90 (0.84)	
Payment method								
Cash (1)	2.09 (0.15)		2.34 (0.25)		1.87 (0.20)		1.51 (0.36)	
Debit card (2)	2.10 (0.15)		2.37 (0.26)		1.93 (0.20)		1.20 (0.39)	
Credit card (3)	2.04 (0.18)		2.32 (0.27)		2.17 (0.47)		1.39 (0.65)	
Cheque (4)	1.81 (0.31)		2.00 (0.46)		2.06 (0.75)		1.74 (0.68)	
Cape consumers (Buy Aid) (5)	2.61 (0.33)		2.85 (0.47)		2.61 (0.54)			

[a] Meadowridge; [b] Maitland; [c] Delft

[d] Mean and standard error with a mean value of 1=Frequently; 2=Sometimes; 3=Seldom and 4=Never

[e] Wald Chi-square test showed a significant difference at p<0.001

[f] Wald Chi-square test showed a significant difference at p<0.05

[g] Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons of the estimated marginal means for identification of pair-wise contrasts on overall significance (p<0.05) in the Generalized Linear Model (GLM)

4.4.3.3 Effect of respondents' demographic characteristics

A significant (p<0.05) gender difference related to the comparison of prices as a food-buying practice was identified within the low SES area (see Table 4.10). Female respondents in this area displayed a significantly (p<0.05) lower propensity to compare prices, compared to the male respondents.

Referring to household monthly income, significant (p<0.001 and p<0.05, respectively) differences were identified within the total, as well as the high SES area samples on the use of this practice. In the total sample multiple significant differences (p<0.05 and p<0.001, respectively) were identified. Essentially, those who had a household monthly income of less than R800 or from R801 to R6 400 displayed a significantly (p<0.05 and p<0.001, respectively) higher propensity to compare prices, compared to those who earned between R6 401 and R204 801 or more. Households in the total, as well as high SES area sample with a monthly income of R6 401 to R25 600 also had a significantly (p<0.05) higher

propensity to compare prices, compared to those with a monthly income of R204 801 or more (see Table 4.10). Although a significant ($p<0.05$) difference was identified for household monthly income and the propensity to compare prices as a food-buying practice in the low SES area, differences in the frequency of use of this food-buying practice were not large enough to identify significant differences (on Bonferroni correction) between their specific monthly household income groups (see Table 4.10).

Table 4.10: Effect of demographic characteristics on the comparison of prices as a food-buying practice

Respondent demographic characteristics	Total sample		High SES area[a]		Middle SES area[b]		Low SES area[c]	
	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.
Gender								
Male (1)	2.18 (0.17)		2.49 (0.28)		2.17 (0.28)		1.32 (0.40)	0.022[e]
Female (2)	2.09 (0.17)		2.26 (0.27)		2.09 (0.28)		1.60 (0.39)	(1) - (2)[g]
Age								
18 - 25 (1)	2.11 (0.20)		2.27 (0.34)		1.93 (0.32)		1.54 (0.41)	
26 - 35 (2)	2.27 (0.18)		2.60 (0.31)		2.22 (0.28)		1.54 (0.39)	
36 - 45 (3)	2.09 (0.18)		2.19 (0.29)		2.10 (0.28)		1.53 (0.40)	
46 - 55 (4)	2.16 (0.18)		2.48 (0.30)		2.17 (0.29)		1.39 (0.40)	
56 - 65 (5)	2.07 (0.18)		2.43 (0.29)		2.15 (0.29)		1.15 (0.41)	
>66 (6)	2.09 (0.19)		2.29 (0.31)		2.22 (0.33)		1.62 (0.48)	
Marital status								
Married (1)	2.11 (0.16)		2.22 (0.26)		2.05 (0.28)		1.62 (0.38)	
Living together (2)	2.28 (0.19)		2.52 (0.31)		2.21 (0.30)		1.34 (0.44)	
Single (3)	2.20 (0.16)		2.34 (0.27)		2.17 (0.28)		1.62 (0.39)	
Widower/widow (4)	2.02 (0.18)		2.29 (0.32)		2.07 (0.29)		1.32 (0.40)	
Separated (5)	2.04 (0.40)		2.65 (0.62)				1.26 (0.65)	
Divorced (6)	2.14 (0.18)		2.23 (0.30)		2.15 (0.31)		1.61 (0.40)	
Number of household members								
1 (1)	2.25 (0.19)		2.48 (0.31)		2.20 (0.31)		1.74 (0.70)	
2 (2)	2.23 (0.18)		2.61 (0.28)		2.26 (0.29)		1.53 (0.41)	
3 (3)	2.09 (0.17)		2.33 (0.27)		2.27 (0.29)		1.34 (0.39)	
4 (4)	2.27 (0.18)		2.72 (0.30)		2.30 (0.29)		1.53 (0.39)	
5 (5)	1.94 (0.18)		2.14 (0.30)		1.98 (0.30)		1.27 (0.40)	
6 (6)	2.24 (0.19)		2.40 (0.40)		2.28 (0.31)		1.51 (0.40)	
7 (7)	2.09 (0.21)		1.84 (0.54)		2.20 (0.34)		1.48 (0.42)	
8 (8)	2.35 (0.23)		3.10 (0.75)		2.46 (0.41)		1.56 (0.42)	
9 (9)	2.10 (0.32)				2.12 (0.50)		1.43 (0.49)	
10 (10)	1.84 (0.40)				2.21 (0.50)		0.65 (0.66)	
11 (11)	1.82 (0.50)				1.97 (0.59)		1.11 (0.84)	
12 (12)	3.06 (0.60)				4.49 (0.76)		1.55 (0.88)	
14 (13)	1.42 (0.61)				1.40 (0.68)			
17 (14)	1.40 (0.84)						1.28 (0.87)	
Highest level of education								
Grade 1 - 7 (1)	2.13 (0.19)		2.53 (0.46)		2.02 (0.30)		1.66 (0.39)	
Grade 8 - 11 (2)	2.01 (0.18)		2.11 (0.30)		2.04 (0.28)		1.45 (0.39)	
Grade 12 (3)	2.13 (0.18)		2.43 (0.28)		2.15 (0.28)		1.51 (0.40)	
Post-matric diploma or certificate (4)	2.21 (0.18)		2.52 (0.28)		2.25 (0.29)		0.75 (0.66)	
Degree (5)	2.14 (0.18)		2.31 (0.28)		2.24 (0.29)			
Post-graduate degree (6)	2.18 (0.20)		2.36 (0.29)		2.09 (0.40)		1.93 (0.49)	
Employment status								
Employed (full-time) (1)	2.01 (0.17)		2.20 (0.26)		1.92 (0.27)		1.48 (0.38)	
Employed (part-time) (2)	2.05 (0.19)		1.89 (0.31)		2.22 (0.31)		1.64 (0.41)	
Self-employed (3)	2.26 (0.19)		2.47 (0.29)		2.13 (0.31)		1.38 (0.46)	
Unemployed (looking for work) (4)	2.05 (0.19)		2.54 (0.50)		2.27 (0.32)		1.33 (0.41)	
Unemployed (not looking for work) (5)	2.24 (0.20)		3.13 (0.61)		1.82 (0.39)		1.68 (0.41)	
Housewife/homemaker (6)	1.99 (0.18)		2.00 (0.33)		1.94 (0.30)		1.43 (0.41)	
Pensioner/retired (7)	2.22 (0.19)		2.41 (0.30)		2.15 (0.31)		1.65 (0.42)	
Student (8)	2.17 (0.25)		2.36 (0.46)		2.44 (0.42)		1.24 (0.47)	
Not working - other (9)	2.19 (0.32)				2.28 (0.45)		1.31 (0.52)	
Population group								
Black African (1)	2.22 (0.18)		2.25 (0.33)		2.23 (0.28)		1.42 (0.30)	
Coloured (2)	2.27 (0.17)		2.56 (0.27)		2.23 (0.27)		1.34 (0.28)	
Indian/Asian (3)	2.21 (0.26)		2.44 (0.37)		1.89 (0.49)		1.12 (0.81)	
White (4)	2.03 (0.17)		2.22 (0.25)		2.45 (0.35)		1.96 (0.84)	
Other (5)	1.92 (0.32)		2.41 (0.56)		1.85 (0.41)			
Household monthly income								
Less than R800 (1)	1.54 (0.20)	0.000[f]	1.07 (0.76)	0.012[e]	1.87 (0.35)		1.21 (0.40)	0.025[e]
R801 - R3 200 (2)	1.85 (0.17)	(1) - (4)(5)[g]	2.33 (0.31)	(4)(5) - (9)[g]	1.91 (0.27)		1.51 (0.40)	
R3 201 - R6 400 (3)	1.84 (0.18)	(1) - (7)(8)[g]	2.20 (0.30)		1.94 (0.27)		1.49 (0.41)	
R6 401 - R12 800 (4)	1.98 (0.18)	(1) - (6)(9)[h]	2.20 (0.29)		2.12 (0.27)		1.76 (0.42)	
R12 801 - R25 600 (5)	2.04 (0.17)	(2)(3) - (9)[h]	2.29 (0.28)		2.15 (0.27)		2.00 (0.48)	
R25 601 - R51 200 (6)	2.23 (0.19)	(4)(5) - (9)[g]	2.57 (0.30)		2.34 (0.31)		0.79 (0.67)	
R51 201 - R 102 400 (7)	2.22 (0.22)	(3) - (6)[g]	2.62 (0.33)		2.57 (0.59)			
R102 401 - R204 800 (8)	2.43 (0.29)		2.76 (0.39)		2.14 (0.85)			
R204 801 or more (9)	3.06 (0.30)		3.33 (0.39)					

[a] Meadowridge; [b] Maitland; [c] Delft

[d] Mean and standard error with a mean value of 1=Frequently; 2=Sometimes; 3=Seldom and 4=Never

[e] Wald Chi-square test showed a significant difference at p<0.05

[f] Wald Chi-square test showed a significant difference at p<0.001

[g] Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons of the estimated marginal means for identification of pair-wise contrasts on overall significance (p<0.05) in the Generalized Linear Model (GLM)

[h] Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons of the estimated marginal means for identification of pair-wise contrasts on overall significance (p<0.001) in the Generalized Linear Model (GLM)

4.4.4 Avoidance of impulse buying as a food-buying practice

4.4.4.1 Effect of SES area

No significant difference was found between the three SES areas and respondents' propensity to avoid impulse buying as a food-buying practice (see Table 4.4 for this food-buying practice).

4.4.4.2 Effect of respondents' shopper characteristics

A significant ($p<0.001$) difference was identified within the low SES area for the factor of co-shopping and respondents' propensity to avoid impulse buying as a food-buying practice. Those who co-shopped with their husband displayed a significantly ($p<0.001$ and $p<0.05$, respectively) lower propensity to avoid impulse buying, compared to those who shopped alone, with their partner or children/grandchildren (see Table 4.11).

In both the total sample and the low SES area there was a significant ($p<0.05$) difference for respondents' method of payment and their propensity to avoid impulse buying. Those who paid via cash had a significantly ($p<0.05$) higher propensity to avoid buying on impulse, compared to those who paid via debit card. Although a significant ($p<0.05$) difference was identified for the method of payment and the avoidance of impulse buying within the middle SES area, no significant differences were found in terms of the Bonferroni pair-wise comparisons between the payment methods and respondents' propensity to avoid buying on impulse within this area (see Table 4.11).

Table 4.11: Effect of shopper characteristics on the avoidance of impulse buying as a food-buying practice by respondents

Respondent shopper characteristics	Total sample		High SES area[a]		Middle SES area[b]		Low SES area[c]	
	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.
Shopping frequency								
Everyday (1)	2.37 (0.19)		2.16 (0.31)		3.25 (0.31)		1.38 (0.45)	
2 - 4 times a week (2)	2.50 (0.19)		2.39 (0.29)		3.16 (0.31)		1.68 (0.45)	
Once a week (3)	2.38 (0.19)		2.17 (0.29)		3.18 (0.31)		1.47 (0.46)	
2 - 3 times a month (4)	2.58 (0.21)		2.49 (0.33)		3.34 (0.34)		1.52 (0.50)	
Once a month (5)	2.36 (0.21)		2.13 (0.33)		3.20 (0.33)		1.29 (0.49)	
Shopping length								
Less than ½ an hour (1)	2.52 (0.19)		2.24 (0.28)		3.42 (0.31)		1.65 (0.45)	
½ to 1 hour (2)	2.43 (0.19)		2.14 (0.28)		3.24 (0.30)		1.68 (0.45)	
1 - 2 hours (3)	2.50 (0.19)		2.46 (0.29)		3.15 (0.31)		1.38 (0.47)	
More than 2 hours (4)	2.30 (0.25)		2.23 (0.42)		3.10 (0.42)		1.16 (0.51)	
Co-shopping								
Shop alone (1)	2.53 (0.16)		2.44 (0.26)		3.32 (0.30)		1.48 (0.44)	0.000[e]
Husband (2)	2.72 (0.19)		2.20 (0.33)		3.25 (0.33)		2.50 (0.46)	(1) - (2)[g]
Wife (3)	2.37 (0.19)		2.19 (0.32)		3.17 (0.32)		1.31 (0.58)	(2) - (4)[h]
Partner (4)	1.83 (0.32)		2.06 (0.68)		2.69 (0.58)		0.98 (0.56)	(2) - (5)[g]
Children/grandchildren (5)	2.47 (0.17)		2.55 (0.29)		3.30 (0.33)		1.30 (0.46)	
Relative(s) (6)	2.41 (0.22)		2.17 (0.40)		3.21 (0.38)		1.54 (0.52)	
Friend(s) (7)	2.65 (0.25)		2.11 (0.47)		3.74 (0.45)		1.69 (0.53)	
Colleague(s) (8)	2.59 (0.94)		2.38 (1.02)					
Family (9)	2.36 (0.24)		2.31 (0.37)		3.13 (0.38)		0.94 (0.97)	
Payment method								
Cash (1)	2.25 (0.16)	0.023[f]	2.22 (0.26)		2.41 (0.22)	0.003[f]	1.57 (0.42)	0.011[f]
Debit card (2)	2.47 (0.17)		2.46 (0.27)		2.58 (0.22)		2.19 (0.45)	
Credit card (3)	2.36 (0.20)	(1) - (2)[h]	2.30 (0.28)		3.05 (0.53)		0.98 (0.75)	(1) - (2)[h]
Cheque (4)	2.28 (0.34)		1.90 (0.47)		4.13 (0.84)		1.14 (0.79)	
Cape consumers (Buy Aid) (5)	2.83 (0.36)		2.45 (0.48)		3.96 (0.61)			

[a] Meadowridge; [b] Maitland; [c] Delft

[d] Mean and standard error with a mean value of 1=Frequently; 2=Sometimes; 3=Seldom and 4=Never

[e] Wald Chi-square test showed a significant difference at p<0.001

[f] Wald Chi-square test showed a significant difference at p<0.05

[g] Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons of the estimated marginal means for identification of pair-wise contrasts on overall significance (p<0.001) in the Generalized Linear Model (GLM)

[h] Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons of the estimated marginal means for identification of pair-wise contrasts on overall significance (p<0.05) in the Generalized Linear Model (GLM)

4.4.4.3 Effect of respondents' demographic characteristics

In the total sample, as well as within the middle SES area, significant (p<0.05 and p<0.001, respectively) differences were identified for gender and respondents' propensity to avoid impulse buying. In both the samples females had a significantly (p<0.05 and p<0.001, respectively) lower propensity to avoid buying on impulse, compared to the males (see Table 4.12). The next chapter focuses on interpreting, discussing, and supporting the significant findings identified within this chapter with previous research.

Table 4.12: Effect of demographic characteristics on respondents' propensity to avoid buying on impulse as a food-buying practice

Respondent demographic characteristics	Total sample		High SES area[a]		Middle SES area[b]		Low SES area[c]	
	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.	M (SE)[d]	Sig. Diff.
Gender								
Male (1)	2.36 (0.19)	0.022[e]	2.22 (0.29)		3.04 (0.31)	0.000[f]	1.39 (0.46)	
Female (2)	2.52 (0.19)	(1) - (2)[g]	2.31 (0.28)		3.42 (0.31)	(1) - (2)[h]	1.54 (0.45)	
Age								
18 - 25 (1)	2.44 (0.21)		2.20 (0.35)		2.94 (0.35)		1.61 (0.47)	
26 - 35 (2)	2.40 (0.19)		2.04 (0.32)		3.37 (0.32)		1.47 (0.45)	
36 - 45 (3)	2.43 (0.19)		2.19 (0.30)		3.50 (0.32)		1.30 (0.46)	
46 - 55 (4)	2.45 (0.19)		2.40 (0.30)		3.39 (0.32)		1.44 (0.46)	
56 - 65 (5)	2.39 (0.20)		2.23 (0.30)		3.14 (0.33)		1.40 (0.47)	
>66 (6)	2.50 (0.21)		2.54 (0.31)		3.01 (0.37)		1.58 (0.55)	
Marital status								
Married (1)	2.33 (0.17)		2.13 (0.27)		3.16 (0.31)		1.44 (0.44)	
Living together (2)	2.61 (0.20)		2.35 (0.32)		3.49 (0.34)		1.31 (0.50)	
Single (3)	2.43 (0.18)		2.19 (0.28)		3.07 (0.32)		1.72 (0.45)	
Widower/widow (4)	2.44 (0.19)		2.42 (0.33)		3.03 (0.33)		1.61 (0.46)	
Separated (5)	2.36 (0.44)		2.51 (0.64)				0.94 (0.75)	
Divorced (6)	2.46 (0.20)		2.01 (0.30)		3.38 (0.35)		1.78 (0.46)	
Number of household members								
1 (1)	2.36 (0.21)		2.35 (0.33)		3.02 (0.34)		2.03 (0.79)	
2 (2)	2.47 (0.19)		2.34 (0.30)		3.22 (0.32)		1.57 (0.46)	
3 (3)	2.32 (0.19)		2.28 (0.29)		3.09 (0.33)		1.27 (0.45)	
4 (4)	2.35 (0.19)		2.12 (0.31)		3.20 (0.32)		1.38 (0.45)	
5 (5)	2.53 (0.20)		2.28 (0.31)		3.20 (0.33)		1.71 (0.45)	
6 (6)	2.35 (0.21)		1.95 (0.42)		3.54 (0.34)		1.29 (0.46)	
7 (7)	2.50 (0.23)		1.70 (0.57)		3.45 (0.38)		1.64 (0.48)	
8 (8)	2.50 (0.25)		2.58 (0.78)		3.15 (0.46)		1.41 (0.48)	
9 (9)	2.06 (0.35)				2.09 (0.56)		1.52 (0.55)	
10 (10)	2.10 (0.45)				2.35 (0.56)		1.69 (0.75)	
11 (11)	2.88 (0.55)				3.44 (0.65)		2.50 (0.96)	
12 (12)	4.13 (0.67)				5.03 (0.85)		3.34 (1.00)	
14 (13)	3.13 (0.68)				3.41 (0.76)			
17 (14)	1.45 (0.92)						0.68 (0.99)	
Highest level of education								
Grade 1 - 7 (1)	2.31 (0.21)		2.38 (0.47)		3.46 (0.34)		1.39 (0.45)	
Grade 8 - 11 (2)	2.48 (0.19)		2.11 (0.31)		3.37 (0.32)		1.65 (0.45)	
Grade 12 (3)	2.41 (0.19)		2.24 (0.29)		3.33 (0.31)		1.44 (0.46)	
Post-matric diploma or certificate (4)	2.42 (0.20)		2.25 (0.29)		3.24 (0.32)		1.24 (0.76)	
Degree (5)	2.58 (0.20)		2.38 (0.29)		3.35 (0.32)			
Post-graduate degree (6)	2.43 (0.22)		2.25 (0.30)		2.60 (0.44)		1.62 (0.57)	
Employment status								
Employed (full-time) (1)	2.32 (0.18)		2.22 (0.27)		2.93 (0.31)		1.42 (0.44)	
Employed (part-time) (2)	2.39 (0.21)		2.36 (0.32)		2.92 (0.35)		1.55 (0.47)	
Self-employed (3)	2.52 (0.21)		2.45 (0.30)		3.14 (0.35)		1.50 (0.53)	
Unemployed (looking for work) (4)	2.42 (0.21)		2.93 (0.51)		3.15 (0.35)		1.46 (0.47)	
Unemployed (not looking for work) (5)	2.55 (0.22)		2.25 (0.62)		3.31 (0.44)		1.58 (0.47)	
Housewife/homemaker (6)	2.36 (0.20)		1.93 (0.34)		2.95 (0.33)		1.53 (0.47)	
Pensioner/retired (7)	2.19 (0.21)		1.86 (0.31)		3.26 (0.34)		1.26 (0.48)	
Student (8)	2.29 (0.27)		2.13 (0.47)		3.67 (0.47)		1.06 (0.54)	
Not working - other (9)	2.91 (0.35)				3.70 (0.50)		1.84 (0.60)	
Population group								
Black African (1)	2.52 (0.20)		2.45 (0.33)		3.30 (0.31)		1.52 (0.35)	
Coloured (2)	2.64 (0.18)		2.60 (0.27)		3.26 (0.30)		1.79 (0.33)	
Indian/Asian (3)	2.24 (0.28)		2.26 (0.38)		2.77 (0.55)		1.17 (0.93)	
White (4)	2.50 (0.19)		2.39 (0.26)		3.52 (0.39)		1.39 (0.97)	
Other (5)	2.28 (0.35)		1.63 (0.58)		3.28 (0.46)			
Household monthly income								
Less than R800 (1)	2.09 (0.22)		1.46 (0.79)		2.79 (0.40)		1.24 (0.47)	
R801 - R3 200 (2)	2.25 (0.19)		2.58 (0.31)		2.79 (0.30)		1.38 (0.46)	
R3 201 - R6 400 (3)	2.32 (0.19)		2.04 (0.31)		3.03 (0.30)		1.40 (0.47)	
R6 401 - R12 800 (4)	2.35 (0.20)		2.17 (0.30)		3.05 (0.30)		1.51 (0.49)	
R12 801 - R25 600 (5)	2.44 (0.19)		2.19 (0.29)		3.30 (0.30)		1.72 (0.56)	
R25 601 - R51 200 (6)	2.45 (0.21)		2.31 (0.30)		2.97 (0.34)		1.54 (0.78)	
R51 201 - R 102 400 (7)	2.57 (0.24)		2.48 (0.34)		3.75 (0.66)			
R102 401 - R204 800 (8)	2.62 (0.31)		2.40 (0.40)		4.12 (0.95)			
R204 801 or more (9)	2.85 (0.33)		2.78 (0.40)					

[a] Meadowridge; [b] Maitland; [c] Delft

[d] Mean and standard error with a mean value of 1=Frequently; 2=Sometimes; 3=Seldom and 4=Never

[e] Wald Chi-square test showed a significant difference at $p<0.05$

[f] Wald Chi-square test showed a significant difference at $p<0.001$

[g] Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons of the estimated marginal means for identification of pair-wise contrasts on overall significance ($p<0.05$) in the Generalized Linear Model (GLM)

[h] Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons of the estimated marginal means for identification of pair-wise contrasts on overall significance ($p<0.001$) in the Generalized Linear Model (GLM)

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This section confers the significant findings of the research and the researcher's interpretation thereof in relation to the findings of related research, as well as the statement of the research problem and the research objectives, which were provided in Chapter 1. Related literature and the researcher's own insight are provided to support the significant findings, and to facilitate reaching/drawing conclusions regarding the study's findings. In support, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each set of questions or 'activities' that were used to represent each food-buying practice in the questionnaire, all reflected good reliability (>0.8) (George & Mallery, 2003:231; Cohen *et al*., 2007:506). The respondents' information, therefore, provided reliable data from which the significant findings were construed and are consequently discussed in this chapter.

5.1 Use of food-buying practices by consumers who reside in different SES areas

The significant differences found in the use of each food-buying practice by respondents who reside in the different SES suburban areas are conferred first, and address the main objective of the research. Hoyer and MacInnis (2007:330, 340) state that people, and consequently consumers, within a particular social class interact regularly with each other and are hence likely to reveal similar values, lifestyles and behaviours, which differ from those of consumers within other social classes. Stanton *et al*. (1992:140) further add that consumer buying behaviour is generally strongly influenced by the class to which they belong or aspire to. In view of this, it could be expected for consumers within the same SES area to demonstrate a similar propensity to use a food-buying practice, but possibly unlike that of consumers in a different SES area.

5.1.1 Use of a shopping list

Respondents within the low SES area were found to use a shopping list significantly less compared to respondents within the high, as well as middle SES areas. This corresponds with past studies' findings, where low-income households were also found to be less inclined to use a list when grocery shopping (Dinkins, 1997:35; Hersey *et al.,* 2001:S17). The main benefit of using a shopping list is to prevent consumers from deviating from their shopping plan (Block & Morwitz, 1999:362), and as a result save money by not purchasing unnecessary items.

Many consumers within the low SES area were found to be unemployed or have low incomes. Du Plessis and Rousseau (2003:416) state that these consumers can be expected to devote a larger percentage of their total expenditure to food, and will consequently use their money sparingly. Based on the main benefit of a shopping list, namely to save money by not deviating from the shopping plan, it would seem logical for these consumers to use a shopping list. However, because these consumers have a restricted budget, it may automatically force them to buy only items that are required, thus eliminating the need for a grocery list (Dinkins, 1997:35). In addition to this, most consumers within the low SES area indicated that they only shop for food once a week. This may be because they receive a daily or weekly wage that may fluctuate rather than a fixed monthly salary. This may similarly hinder their ability to purchase multiple food items, as their food budget at the time is limited to their earnings for that specific day or week. It can be inferred that respondents within the low SES area receive a daily or weekly wage rather than a fixed monthly salary owing to the nature of the occupations of most of the respondents within this area (being elementary occupations, plant and machine operators and assemblers and craft and related trade workers).

As the level of income increases among individuals or households, the busier they become, which consequently increases the value of their time. The amount of time that the consumer is willing and able to spend shopping subsequently decreases (Bawa & Ghosh, 1999:152, 157; Blackwell *et al*., 2001:149). Shoppers in the study, which was conducted by Thomas and Garland (2004:628), felt that using a list simplifies the shopping experience and dictates the shopping process, which helps to save time. They also mentioned that it enables them to remember what and, if necessary, how much of an item to purchase. Consumers within the high and middle SES areas who received higher incomes may consequently use a list significantly more than those in the low SES area to better utilise their time and not necessarily to save money.

A generally older respondent sample (46 to older than 66 years of age) was evident within the high SES area. Older or aging consumers tend to forget things and often try to identify ways to help them remember what tasks to perform (Cavallini *et al.,* 2003:242). Using a shopping list is a strategy, which older consumers may rely on to help them remember what food items to purchase (Thomas & Garland, 2004:624). This may provide a further reason why respondents within the high SES area had an increased propensity to use a shopping list compared to respondents within the middle and low SES areas.

Thus although the use of a shopping list is associated with enhancing shopping efficiency (Putrevu & Ratchford, 1997:473), as it enables the shopper to remember items that are needed, avoid overbuying, order their shopping activities and control their expenditure

(Thomas & Garland, 2004:628), the use thereof is also dependent on the SES of the consumer. While consumers experience tough economic times, which may have a greater effect on lower income households, consumers within the low SES area may not necessarily relate the benefits of using a shopping list to themselves.

5.1.2 Use of advertisements to plan shopping

Within the low SES area respondents had a significantly greater propensity to use advertisements compared to respondents within both the high and middle SES areas. There may be a number of explanations for this finding. One explanation may be related to Shipchandler (1982:34), as well as Hampson and McGoldrick's (2013:834) finding that consumers, especially during or after a recession, are not particularly loyal towards any specific store chain, and that they have no apprehension about switching stores to take advantage of advertised price discounts. Govindasamy *et al*. (2007:49) additionally found that consumers, who search for advertisements on "special" and then plan their shopping around these advertised "specials" or discounts, usually have an above-average concern for price. It can, therefore, be inferred that because respondents within the low SES area displayed a greater propensity to search for and use advertisements to plan their shopping compared to respondents within the middle and high SES areas, they are not only less concerned about the store in which they shop for groceries, but they may (considering their low income level), also have a higher concern for price.

Consumers within the middle and high SES areas may, however, remain loyal to certain stores regardless of dire economic conditions and will not switch based on advertised "specials". There is also the possibility that the middle and high SES consumers may have no or little concern for the price paid for food owing to their food produce preferences. For example, Govindasamy *et al.* (2007:57) found that consumers who purchase organic produce are less likely to read food advertisements compared to those who buy regular or non-organic produce. This may be attributed to the fact that certified organic products are higher priced than non-organic products, and consumers who purchase certified organic products may be willing to pay more based on perceived health, nutritional and taste benefits (Ward *et al.,* 2012:462).

Voinea and Filip (2011:17) state that the recent recession has caused consumers to become more economically inclined. They have begun to refuse purchasing higher priced items unless they perceive it to be of a better or higher quality, and if they are loyal to certain brands, they may prefer to wait for it to go on "special" rather than purchasing an alternative brand simply because it is cheaper. Therefore, the reason why respondents within the high and middle SES areas were found to use advertisements less may be because they seldom

feel that products that are advertised as “special”, are of a better quality. They may also infrequently respond to and use “specials” to plan their shopping, as the brand to which they are loyal is seldom advertised as “special”. Zaichkowsky and Sadlowsky (1991:106) indeed found certain consumers to believe that brands that are advertised as “special” are of a lower quality than those that are not advertised. Bridges *et al.* (2006:295, 304) add that this may be because they felt dissatisfied with a product that they had previously bought on “special”, and consequently have a negative opinion about such products. An additional reason why some consumers may be reluctant to use advertisements is because the product has been advertised as “special” so often that it lowers consumers’ future reference price for the brand (Jacobson & Obermiller, 1990:421). Consumers consequently begin to think that the “special” price is in fact the regular selling price of the product, and will not act on its advertisements (Zaichkowsky & Sadlowsky, 1991:106). This consequently provides an alternative reason why respondents within the middle and high SES areas were not that responsive to advertised “specials”.

Consumers also consider product cost in terms of the time and effort that is spent to search for information about the product and the benefit(s) that the product information would provide (Noel, 2009:140) such as the possibility to save money. Consumers who do not search for information perceive high costs and/or low benefits related to the activity. Consumers who expect to gain savings, conversely, have a greater tendency to search for information compared to consumers who do not have such an expectation (Putrevu & Lord, 2001:129). Respondents within the high and middle SES areas may perceive high costs or low benefits from using advertisements to plan their shopping. This may be because they feel that the cost in terms of time and effort spent to search for “specials” is greater than the actual monetary saving that is made. On the contrary, respondents within the low SES area may perceive this food-buying practice as useful to obtain savings and perhaps feel that the cost in terms of time and effort, which are spent to search for advertisements is worthwhile when compared to the savings that are made.

Most of the consumers in the studies, which were conducted by Govindasamy *et al.* (2007:13), and Zaichkowsky and Sadlowsky (1991:103) indicated that they used food advertising to plan their shopping. Hence, it can be assumed that the use of advertisements is generally a popular food-buying practice among consumers and reflects a common concern for price. However, the SES of the consumers who participated in these studies was not specified, and whether the results thereof reflect those of a low SES consumer group (which would then correspond with the results of this research) is unknown. It can, therefore, be deduced that the use of advertisements to plan shopping is not necessarily a common

practice among consumers, but that the use thereof is subject to the SES of the consumer or the effect of the SES area in which the consumer resides on this food-buying practice.

5.1.3 Comparison of prices of different brands

The high SES area respondents displayed a significantly lower propensity to compare the prices of different brands compared to respondents within the middle SES area and generally in the low SES area too. Since a deal-prone or value-conscious consumer is one who is price conscious, looks out for bargains and is, therefore, willing to compare the prices of different brands and purchase the cheapest product (Kumar *et al*., 1998:409; Evans *et al*., 2006:19), it can be assumed that respondents within the low and middle SES areas are more inclined to be deal-prone or value conscious. The Nielsen Company reported that there has been an increase in the number of value-conscious shoppers across the globe, and that the numbers will continue to rise even as economies begin to recover from the recent recession (Nielsen Company, 2011:2). Therefore, the fact that respondents in the high SES area displayed a lower tendency to compare prices does not necessarily mean that they do not or will not in future increase their use of this food-buying practice.

Kumar *et al*. (1998:407) state that there are many consumers who simply find it difficult to remember prices previously paid for food products and thus cannot accurately compare current prices to past prices. There may be many reasons why consumers do not remember prices, one of which may be related to time constraints. According to Thiagarajan (2009:209), time pressured consumers search less for price information in grocery stores. This may be because they prioritise convenience over saving money, or they do not enjoy the amount of effort, which is required to find the lowest prices. As previously mentioned (under the use of a shopping list), a consumer's income level plays an important role in the amount of time that they have available. As income rises people become busier, this increases the value of their time. The amount of time available to shop for food subsequently decreases (Blackwell *et al*., 2001:149; Bawa & Ghosh, 1999:152, 157). Hence, it can be inferred that because respondents within the high SES area generally fell within the high income bracket, they may have been less inclined to compare prices for the following reasons: (i) they feel that doing so is an inconvenience; (ii) they do not find any pleasure in finding the lowest price(s); or (iii) they find it difficult to compare prices of different brands owing to time constraints. The effect of time constraints may be twofold: consumers may simply have insufficient time to compare prices or because of time constraints in the past their ability to recall prices previously paid for food products is limited, which makes it difficult to compare current prices to past prices.

Dickson and Sawyer (1990:48) state that the more frequently consumers purchase a specific item, the more likely they are to check prices and compare them to other brands. However,

consumers sometimes bond closely with specific brands and become brand-loyal (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:246). Brand-loyal shoppers like to purchase the same branded item every time that they shop (Evans *et al*., 2006:19; Manzur *et al.,* 2011:288), because they feel that it meets their overall needs. There is also some degree of psychological commitment to the brand (Cant *et al*., 2002:180; Batra & Kazmi, 2008:391). This is because shoppers generally look for value among brands that they regularly buy (Smith & Carsky, 1996:79). There are more than likely specific food items that respondents in the high SES area purchase regularly, and according to Dickson and Sawyer (1990:48); these respondents should then be more likely to compare the prices of different brands that are available for these frequently purchased items. However, respondents within the high SES area could possibly be more brand-loyal than respondents within the low and middle SES areas and may, therefore, be less willing to switch from their trusted brand to a substitute brand on sale or generally at a lower price.

Dickson and Sawyer (1990:44) additionally assert that consumers are more likely to compare the prices of different brands when there is a "special". This occurs because the price of the brand that is advertised as "special" is compared to that of other brands within the same category in order to validate that an actual saving is made. Compared to respondents within the high SES area, those within the low and middle SES areas not only displayed a greater propensity to use food advertisements regarding "specials", but they also displayed a higher propensity to compare prices, which according to Dickson and Sawyer's (1990:44) findings, may have been to validate identified "specials". Therefore, although Dickson and Sawyer (1990:47) established from the results of their study that less than one in four shoppers evaluated the price of an alternative brand, this cannot be applied to all consumers, as those within different SES areas may demonstrate different levels of usage of this food-buying practice.

5.1.4 Avoidance of impulse buying

Due to the fact that no significant differences were identified among respondents within the three SES areas and their avoidance of impulse buying, it can be inferred that they either have the same propensity to use or not to use this food-buying practice. From the mean values determined for this activity, it is evident that within the low, middle and high SES areas respondents displayed a reasonably low (they used the practice only sometimes to seldom) propensity to avoid impulse buying. Although the objective of this study was to identify differences in the use of food-buying practices by consumers who reside in different SES areas, this is nonetheless an interesting finding, especially since it is contrary to the findings of a recent study, which was conducted by Hampson and McGoldrick (2013:831),

where the shopping habits of consumers were similarly evaluated. Hampson and McGoldrick (2013:835) state that there is a general concern to reduce impulsive buying among consumers, whereas respondents within this research indicated little effort for to reduce their impulsive buying behaviour. In addition to this, Beatty and Ferrell (1998:185) found that consumers who had less disposable income were less likely to make impulse purchases. Compared to respondents within the middle and high SES areas, respondents within the low SES area (with less disposable income) were somewhat less likely to make impulse purchases, yet did not have a high propensity to do so.

5.2 Effect of shopper characteristics on consumers' use of the food-buying practices

The shopper characteristics evaluated in this research included respondents' food shopping frequency, the length of time that they take to shop, whether they shopped alone or with somebody (co-shopped), and their main method of payment used when purchasing food. The shopper characteristics were evaluated to ascertain, which significantly influenced the use of food-buying practices among consumers, in general, as well as among consumers within the same SES area, which attends to the subsidiary objectives of the research.

5.2.1 Effect on the use of a shopping list

5.2.1.1 Length of time taken to shop

In the low SES area, respondents who indicated that they took less than half an hour to shop for food had a significantly lower propensity to use a shopping list compared to those who indicated that they took one to two hours to shop for food. The research findings furthermore indicates that most respondents within the low SES area took less than half an hour to shop for food, did not use a shopping list and, in addition to this, have a low household monthly income of R801 to R3 200. Frazao *et al*. (2007:3) state that lower-income households allocate a larger percentage of their total expenditure to food, compared to higher income households. It can as a result be inferred that respondents within this area who take less than half an hour to shop for food may use a shopping list less owing to financial constraints, which restrict them to buy only a few, essential items at a time. This may cause them to buy the same types of foods or even brands every time that they do their grocery shopping. Consumers who purchase the same foods each week are able to easily remember what to buy, since it is a repetitive and routine task, which disregards the need for a shopping list and requires less time to be spent in stores (Thomas & Garland, 2004:630; Bassett *et al*., 2008:207). Further to this, it can be assumed that the more items that need to be purchased,

the more time is spent in stores. Consumers may in this instance consequently use a shopping list to guide and aid them to remember what to buy.

Larger households have a greater consumption rate and have more individual product preferences compared to smaller households. Because of this they may require a larger quantity and a greater variety of products and subsequently make more shopping trips and spend more time in stores compared to smaller households (Bawa & Ghosh, 1999:153). The use of a shopping list may help consumers (especially those with large households) to remember what to purchase, as well as to control their expenditure (Thomas & Garland, 2004:624). Since many respondents within the low SES area had a reasonably large household of four to six members, they would be likely, according to Bawa and Gosh (1999:158), to require a larger quantity and greater variety of products. In order to fulfil this requirement, they would need to shop frequently and spend more time in stores. The use of a shopping list would further aid them to remember what to purchase, as well as to control their expenditure. However, many respondents within this area still spent less than half an hour in stores and had a lower propensity to use a shopping list, compared to those who spent one to two hours in stores. This implies that the respondents within the low SES area may indeed require a larger quantity and greater variety of products, but simply cannot afford to purchase what they require and thus spend less time in stores purchasing the bare necessities, which negates the need for a shopping list.

5.2.1.2 Payment method

Consumers' propensity to use a debit card can be predicted by their level of income (Borzekowski *et al.,* 2008:156). Klee (2008:537) asserts that the probability of consumers using a debit card increases as their income increases. Since consumers within the low SES area generally had a low household monthly income, it corresponds with the fact that the majority of them paid by means of cash. However, in the low SES area respondents who paid via cash used a shopping list significantly less, compared to those who paid via debit card. It can be postulated that because respondents within the low SES area possibly purchase in smaller quantities owing to budget constraints (and as previously discussed bypass the need for a shopping list), they pay by means of cash as it is the fastest payment method (Jonker, 2007:284), and the most reasonable considering that they only purchase a few items. Those who pay via debit card may require the use of a shopping list to help recall items that are needed, as it may be easier to purchase additional items with a debit card than with having a specific amount of cash at hand.

5.2.2 Effect on the use of advertisements to plan shopping

5.2.2.1 Shopping frequency

Within the low SES area respondents who shopped once a week displayed a significantly higher propensity to use advertisements compared to those who shopped two to three times a month. This may be because “specials” are usually advertised by grocery store chains on a weekly basis (Zaichkowsky & Sadlowsky, 1991:98; Darko *et al*., 2013:26). Consumers who shop once a week can then be expected to react to these weekly “specials” within the same week that they are advertised. Those who shop only two to three times a month may not necessarily look for advertised “specials” and use them to plan their shopping, since they shop too infrequently to react on “specials” that are generally only available on a daily or weekly basis.

5.2.2.2 Co-shopping

Du Plessis and Rousseau (2003:379) mention that there is now a greater trend towards joint decision-making between husbands and wives. Women or wives, however, according to Zaichkowsky and Sadlowsky (1991:103), use advertisements more than men. Therefore, because men or husbands are nowadays more inclined to decide on purchases together with their wives, and women tend to use advertisements more than men, men who shop with their wives may be influenced or guided to use advertisements to plan their shopping. This may serve to explain why respondents (presumably men/husbands) in the high SES area who shopped with their wives used advertisements significantly more than those respondents who shop alone or with their children/grandchildren.

Batra and Kazmi (2008:317) found that joint decisions among husbands and wives are less likely among upper and lower socio-economic families and more likely among middle socio-economic families. The results of this study are thus contradictory to Batra and Kazmi’s (2008:317). The only significant finding concerning a joint decision between husbands and wives was among respondents (presumably men/husbands) within the high SES area who shop with their wives and seemingly make joint decisions in relation to the use of advertisements. No significant findings were evident for this among respondents within the low and middle SES areas.

5.2.2.3 Payment method

Within the low SES area respondents who paid via cash or debit card displayed a significantly higher propensity to use advertisements compared to those who paid via credit card or cheque. Arango and Taylor (2009:3) state that by paying by means of cash or debit card, consumers can control their budget and avoid overspending. Jonker (2007:284) adds that consumers who pay in cash may do it to help them monitor their expenses, as they can physically see their purses emptying.

Although the results indicated significant differences in the use of advertisements to plan shopping between respondents who paid via cash or debit card and those who paid via credit card or cheque, only a small number of respondents within the low SES area indicated that they paid via credit card (n=2) or cheque (n=2). Not all South African consumers and low-income consumers, in particular, have access to credit cards or are eligible to receive credit (Joubert, 2007:13). In addition to this, according to Schuh and Stavins (2010:1755), cheques are considered relatively expensive and an inconvenient means of payment. This may justify the low use of credit cards and cheques as a means of payment when buying food among respondents within the low SES area.

Seeing that consumers, especially those with low incomes and limited access to credit and cheques, may pay by using cash or a debit card in order to help monitor their expenses and avoid overspending, it would also seem reasonable for them to look for “specials” on food products and plan to shop for these “specials” in order to help to save money. This would explain why respondents within the low SES area who paid via cash or debit card displayed an increased use of advertisements to plan their shopping, compared to those who paid by means of a credit card or cheque.

5.2.3 Effect on the comparison of prices of different brands

Consumers in the study, which was conducted by Dickson and Sawyer (1990:47), mentioned that they did not compare the prices of different brands, as they felt too rushed and did not have sufficient time to carry out this food-buying practice. This may provide a reason why respondents in the middle SES area who indicated that they took less than half an hour to shop had a significantly lower propensity to compare the prices of different brands compared to respondents who indicated that they took a half to one hour or one to two hours to shop for food. Consumers who take less than half an hour to shop for food may do so because they are pressured for time and subsequently spend less time in stores. According to Dickson and Sawyer (1990:47), time pressured consumers search less for price information in grocery

stores and will, therefore, be less willing to compare the prices of different brands. However, consumers who stay longer in the shop (those who shop for a half to one hour or one to two hours) may be less time pressured and more likely to engage in price comparisons (Tendai & Crispen, 2009:107). The length of time that respondents within the middle SES area take to shop was the only shopper characteristic found to significantly influence the comparison of prices of different brands as a food-buying practice.

5.2.4 Effect on the avoidance of impulse buying

5.2.4.1 Co-shopping

Before discussing this finding, it is important to be cognisant of the fact that the terms *husband* and *wif*e often also apply to roles, which are performed by male and female members of the household. Husband and wife roles may thus exist even though the household members are unmarried (for example, courting couples who live together) (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:487).

According to Mangleburg *et al*. (2004:111), shopping with family members is thought to promote a sense of responsibility, as well as discourage wastefulness and extravagance. In the study, which was conducted by Rich and Jain (1968:44), husbands, in particular, were found to be an important familial shopping influence for the middle and upper class consumers, but not for the lower class consumers. Agreeing with this finding, respondents within the low SES area who shopped together with their husbands displayed a significantly lower propensity to avoid impulse buying compared to those who shopped alone, with their partner or children/grandchildren. Thus, although husbands are expected to discourage wastefulness and extravagance, they were found to promote impulse buying rather than discourage it within the low SES area. This may be why Granbois (1968:30) and Sommer *et al*. (1992:287) mention that adults who shop with others may purchase more and spend more money than when shopping alone. A possible reason for this was previously identified in a study by Lee and Kacen (2008:269) who found that when consumers have a friend or *family member* with them while shopping, they tend to feel more satisfied with their impulse purchase compared to their satisfaction with an impulse purchase made when shopping alone. In this way the friend or family member helps the consumer to justify their impulse purchase, and in so doing, makes the consumer feel more satisfied or confident with their purchase.

Lee and Kacen (2008:269) also found that consumers often decide not to make an impulse purchase after consulting with a friend or family member. In this case the friend or family member helps the consumer to realise that the item is not needed. Although husbands may

not have had this type of positive influence on their wives within the low SES area, the above provides reason as to why respondents within this area who shopped with their partner or children/grandchildren were significantly less inclined to purchase food products impulsively. After consulting with their partner or children/grandchildren, respondents within the low SES area may find that the item is not wanted, liked or needed, and subsequently decide not to make the purchase.

In addition to this, when mothers shop with their children they are influenced by their children's product preferences (Hawkins *et al*., 2001:479). This is usually interpreted as a negative influence that promotes impulse buying among mothers. A majority of the respondents within the low SES area were women and based on the relatively large household sizes, were more than likely mothers. Yet respondents within the low SES area who shopped with their children/grandchildren displayed a strong propensity to avoid impulse buying. Considering this, there is a possibility that these respondents may find it easier to resist demands from their children/grandchildren for unplanned alternative or additional food items compared to when such demands are made by their husbands.

5.2.4.2 Payment method

In both the total sample and the low SES area respondents who paid via cash had a significantly greater propensity to avoid buying on impulse compared to those who paid via debit card. To make a cash payment, instant physical money is required (Arango & Taylor, 2009:3). Should the consumer pay via cash, and not have any form of 'electronic' or virtual money available such as a debit or credit card, they would be unable to purchase more than the amount of money that is physically available. So when cash is used as a means of payment and no alternative funds are available, the consumer may be forced to avoid buying an unplanned product or making an impulsive purchase, as they simply do not have enough money available to pay for it.

5.3 Effect of demographic factors on consumers' use of the food-buying practices

Evans *et al.* (2006:106), as well as Kardes *et al*. (2008:37) have established that there is a change in consumer preferences and buying behaviour with each demographic factor. Various demographic factors were evaluated in this research, as further subsidiary research objectives to examine, which demographic factors have an influence on the use of the food-buying practices among consumers, in general, as well as among consumers within the same SES area.

5.3.1 Effect on the use of a shopping list

5.3.1.1 Gender

The female respondents within the high SES area displayed a significantly greater propensity to use a shopping list compared to the male respondents. These results support the findings of a survey, which was conducted 29 years ago by the Food Marketing Institute (1983) (cited in Blaylock & Smallwood, 1987:195) in which females were found to prepare shopping lists more often than males. In the same vein, Thomas and Garland (2004:627) recently found females to be more likely than males to create and use a shopping list.

Females, on average, are more efficient shoppers in terms of time and monetary costs compared to men. Hence, they tend to carry out household tasks that are associated with food-buying practices (Polegato & Zaichkowsky, 1994:296) such as preparing a shopping list. Since a shopping list helps consumers to remember things, avoid over-buying, order their shopping activities and control their household expenditure on food (Thomas & Garland, 2004:624), it is not surprising that women have a greater propensity than men to use such a food-buying practice, which would assist them to save time and money, and ultimately be more efficient shoppers.

Men have become increasingly willing to carry out the task of food shopping in order to relieve some of the role overload, which is experienced by women in fulfilling their work and family responsibilities (Polegato & Zaichkowsky, 1994: 278). However, men tend to get lost in the supermarket without a list, so the female in the household will provide them with a list of items to purchase (DeNoon, 2012). For this reason, men may begin to use a shopping list not because they have become more efficient shoppers, but because it hastens and simplifies the task of shopping for food.

5.3.1.2 Employment status

Within the high SES area self-employed respondents had a significantly lower propensity to use a shopping list compared to pensioner/retired persons. Blaylock and Smallwood (1987:190) state that as cognitive skills and practical experience in grocery shopping increase with age, so too do various skills and money-saving techniques. Older consumers consequently have a greater tendency to be cautious when making purchases (Noel, 2009:75). In addition to this, monetary resources typically vary and assumingly decrease with age (Arnould *et al.,* 2004:502). This is because older consumers are likely to have low incomes and increasing medical needs (Wilkie, 1990:485). Because of this, they may have

less disposable income and rely on using money-saving techniques such as a shopping list when shopping for food.

Furthermore, aging consumers often suffer from memory deterioration. Some rely on memory strategies to help remember what tasks to carry out (Cavallini *et al.,* 2003:242). Since a shopping list not only helps consumers to save money, but also serves the purpose of helping them to remember things (Thomas & Garland, 2004:624), older consumers may use shopping lists for memory aid benefits too.

5.3.2 Effect on the use of advertisements to plan shopping

5.3.2.1 Gender

Zaichkowsky and Sadlowsky (1991:103) assert that women use advertisements more than men do. In earlier studies females were also found to use advertisements to plan shopping more often than males (Blaylock & Smallwood, 1987:195). The results for the total sample, as well as that for the middle SES area within this research similarly indicate that females have a significantly greater propensity to use advertisements more than males. There is, therefore, a clear trend for women to use this food-buying practice more than men. This may be associated with the fact that consumers who frequently use advertisements to plan their shopping consider this practice to be highly relevant and useful as a money saving technique (Smith & Carsky, 1996:74), and since women are more resourceful shoppers in terms of saving time and money (Polegato & Zaichkowsky, 1994:296), they would find this food-buying practice highly relevant and useful.

5.3.2.2 Population group

Within the total sample White respondents' propensity to use advertisements was significantly less than those of Coloured respondents. Within the low SES area the White population group too had a significantly lower propensity to use advertisements as a food-buying practice compared to the Black African, Coloured and Indian/Asian population groups.

Among the South African population, there are considerable differences in educational levels, abilities, occupations and wealth among the inhabitants (Pride & Ferrell, 2012:69). This has led to an unequal distribution of personal income within the country, which is most apparent between the various population groups (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2003:425; Altman *et al*., 2009:7). In the 2011 Stats SA census Black African-headed households were found to have the lowest average annual household income, followed by Coloured-headed

households, while White-headed households had the highest average annual household income (Stats SA, 2012a:39). This may be associated with the unemployment rate and low level of education within the Black African and Coloured population groups.

The Census 2011 (Stats SA, 2012a:51) results show that among the Black African and Coloured population, the unemployment rate is highest, while among the White population group the unemployment rate is lowest. In addition to this, there were more people aged 15 years and above with no education or with a level of education lower than Grade seven in the Black African and Coloured population groups than in the White population group. According to Govindasamy *et al.* (2007:9), consumers with a higher level of education are less inclined to use food advertisements compared to consumers with a lower level of education. Govindasamy *et al.* (2007:9) further proposes that this may be because consumers with higher educational levels tend to earn higher salaries, and because they earn higher salaries, they are able to be less price-sensitive. These consumers will not have as much incentive to read food advertisements compared to consumers with lower educational levels who tend to earn lower salaries and are more price-sensitive owing to limited funds.

Thus, compared to consumers in White household's consumers in Black African/Coloured households have a greater unemployment rate and a lower level of education, as well as income. Although they subsequently have less money available, they allocate a large portion of their total expenditure to food (Stats SA, 2005/2006:19). Since the amount of purchasing power that a consumer has is directly related to their employment status and level of income, it is further evident that consumers within the Black African or Coloured population groups would have less purchasing power. Du Plessis and Rousseau (2003:416) mention that consumers with less purchasing power would be more likely to use their money sparingly. It is consumers who need to use their money sparingly that are willing to use advertisements to plan their shopping, as they believe this practice to be highly appropriate and useful in terms of saving money (Smith & Carsky, 1996:74). Wilkinson and Mason (1976:220) found extensive use of advertised food "specials" among low-income Black African consumers (with inclusion of the Coloured population group in South Africa).

Most of the respondents within the total sample, as well as within the low SES area were Coloured. Many were employed yet received a reasonably low level household monthly income. Coloured (as well as Black African) respondents within the total sample and low SES area may have had a greater propensity to use advertisements compared to respondents within the White population group owing to the fact that in South Africa people within the Coloured as well as Black African population group have a lower level of education and income compared to people within the White population group (Stats SA, 2012a:51). As

a result, Coloured and Black African consumers may have less purchasing power and subsequently have a greater propensity to spend their money cautiously. They may thus be more willing to use food-buying practices such as the use of advertisements of “specials” to help to save money compared to White respondents who, according to Stats SA (2012a:39), generally have higher household incomes and greater purchasing power.

5.3.2.3 Household monthly income

An inverse relationship has been identified between income level and the amount of money allocated to food purchasing (Sanlier & Karakus, 2010:140). The higher a consumer’s income, the more money they tend to spend on food, however, the proportion of income devoted to food declines. Whereas the lower a consumer’s income, the less money they are able to spend on food, yet the proportion of income devoted to food increases (Frazao *et al*., 2007:3).

Hence a family’s ability to afford and obtain food is directly affected by the household’s level of income (Turrell *et al*., 2004:209). Budget constraints owing to low income levels will subsequently have a direct effect on grocery shopping behaviours (Kim & Park, 1997:509). Dinkins (1997:35) found that consumers who adhered to strict food budgets were not only significantly more likely to have a lower household income, but they were also more likely to have more people within their household. This can be attributed to the fact that household grocery expenditure increases with family size and the number of children (Bawa & Ghosh, 1999:158). This may be why Murthi and Rao (2012:44) found large families to be more likely to evaluate prices frequently, assumingly as a means of saving money.

Within the total sample respondents who had a household monthly income between R801 to R6 400 and R12 801 to R25 600 displayed a significantly greater propensity to make use of advertisements compared to those who had a monthly income between R25 601 to R51 200. Most of the respondents within the total sample not only had a monthly household income between R801 to R6 400 (with a few earning between R12 801 to R25 600), but they also had a household size of generally two to four members. Since these respondents had a reasonably low level of household income, as well as other household members to feed, they would, according to the abovementioned literature, devote a larger percentage of their total expenditure to food. They may thus experience budget constraints and consequently be more price-sensitive. As a result, they would have greater incentive to react to advertisements regarding “specials” in order to save money and stick to their food budget, compared to respondents who have a higher household monthly income (those with a

household monthly income of between R25 601 to R51 200), and who allocate only a small percentage of their total expenditure to food.

5.3.3 Effect on the comparison of prices of different brands

5.3.3.1 Gender

Female respondents within the low SES area displayed a significantly lower propensity to compare prices compared to male respondents within this area. It was previously found that compared to women, men consider low price to be an important criterion when purchasing products. In order to ensure that they obtain value for their money they will compare the prices of the different product brands that are available (Williams, 2002:258). On the contrary, Mortimer (2012:795), as well as Otnes and McGrath (2001:122), state that when men shop for groceries they rarely compare prices. The results of this research, therefore, not only confirm Williams' (2002:258) research findings, but also established that it is within a low SES area that men were found to compare the prices of different brands more than females. A possible reason for this finding may be that because females within the household usually perform the task of shopping for food and dominate decisions regarding what groceries to purchase (Dholakia *et al.,* 1995:27; Hawkins *et al*., 2001:207; Otnes & McGrath, 2001:112) when they shop for food, they may already be aware of the prices and availability of various brands and, therefore, bypass the need to compare prices. In point of support, in the study, which was conducted by Dickson and Sawyer (1990:47), one of the reasons mentioned by consumers for not comparing prices of different brands was that they already knew the approximate price and thus felt no need to check displayed prices.

5.3.3.2 Household monthly income

In the total sample respondents who indicated that they had a household monthly income of less than R800 or from R801 to R6 400 displayed a significantly higher propensity to compare prices compared to those who earned between R6 401 and R204 801 or more. Households in the total, as well as high SES area sample with a monthly income of R6 401 to R25 600, were also more inclined to compare prices compared to those with a monthly income of R204 801 or more.

The literature previously mentioned under the use of advertisements and household monthly income (see 5.3.2.3) is likewise applicable to these results. Respondents who have a low level of household monthly income, as well as additional household members would have to devote a larger percentage of their total expenditure to food. Because of this they may have

less money available for other household expenses, experience budgetary constraints and, as a result of this, become sensitive to prices. Comparing the prices of the different bands available for the same type of food product is a food-buying practice that they could use (and seemingly do according to the results) to save money and remain within the confines of their budget.

It is interesting to note that even though respondents resided within a high SES area and had a reasonably high household monthly income (from R6 401 to R25 600), they still displayed a stronger propensity to compare the prices of different brands compared to those who earned R204 801 or more. Hence, it can be deduced that although respondents with a higher household monthly income may allocate a smaller percentage of their total expenditure to food, they may still find the need to compare the prices of different brands that are available when purchasing food. Their use of this food-buying practice may be associated with the fact that although upper class consumers may not be price sensitive, they generally are price-conscious (Arnould *et al*., 2004:486; Hoyer & MacInnis, 2007:343; Batra & Kazmi, 2008:289). Kumar *et al*. (1998:409) mention that a deal-prone consumer is one who is price conscious and, therefore, willing to compare the prices of different brands in order to save money by identifying and purchasing the cheapest product. Considering this, it can be assumed that while these respondents may not be price sensitive, they may still be deal-prone consumers. In addition to this, the recent recession, as well as increases in food, petrol and electricity prices, has caused consumers to consider their financial priorities and review their spending habits more carefully (SARB, 2012b:37; SARB, 2012d:6, 7). Consumers may consequently use food-buying practices (regardless of their income) to help to reduce food expenditure.

5.3.4 Effect on the avoidance of impulse buying

Previous studies found women to have a greater propensity to shop impulsively compared to men (Wood, 1998:312; Coley & Burgess, 2003:293; Alagöz & Ekiei, 2011:176). Women were also found to feel satisfied and quite happy after impulsive shopping, whereas most men felt regret (Coley & Burgess, 2003:293; Alagöz & Ekiei, 2011:176). Coley and Burgess (2003:290) found that compared to men, women are more likely to think through purchase decisions and the possible consequences even though they may buy on impulse. So although women may indicate that they buy on impulse, the item that they bought impulsively may not necessarily be a waste of money. In actual fact, a saving may indeed be made by purchasing the product, especially if it is on “special” and is obtained at a reduced price. This may explain why female respondents within the total sample, as well as within the middle SES area displayed a significantly lower propensity to avoid buying on impulse compared to

male respondents. Gender was the only demographic factor that provided for a significant difference in the avoidance of impulse buying as a food-buying practice.

5.4 Strengths and limitations of the research study

A few strengths and limitations have been identified concerning this research study. The research topic in itself may be considered a strength, since the aim was to evaluate the food-buying practices of consumers within three SES areas (low, middle and high) instead of one or two SES areas. This provided for a more comprehensive comparison to be made in the use of food-buying practices among consumers within different SES areas. The final sample size within each SES area was relatively large (400 respondents within each) creating an overall large sample size (of 1200 respondents). This ensured that the research was statistically representative. A reasonably high response rate of 95% was additionally attained.

While effort was taken to ensure a sound research approach, certain limitations must be noted. Only consumers who were one of the main decision-makers and shoppers in their household regarding what groceries may be purchased were selected to participate in the survey. The buying practices of all other potential household members were not investigated. Although this study provided important insights into grocery shopping patterns, it did not seek to examine reasons for variations in shopping behaviour among consumers.

The frequency responses were coded as: 1 = Frequently, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Seldom and 4 = Never. These frequency responses could have been coded or allocated in the opposite way (4 = Frequently, 3 = Sometimes, 2 = Seldom, 1 = Never) to aid a more logical interpretation of the mean values. Higher mean values would thus implicate a greater propensity to use a food-buying practice and *vice versa*. There are a few studies (Smith & Carsky, 1996:78; Mortimer, 2012:802) that have used the lower mean value to implicate higher use of an item being measured, but the majority of studies have been found to use the 'traditional' higher mean value. In the following chapter conclusions derived from the results of this study are discussed.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS

One of the major consequences of recent increases in energy and transport costs has been escalations in the price of food. This has made it difficult for South African consumers to financially sustain all household expenses (SARB, 2012a:1). In order to help overcome financial constraints and to ensure that there is sufficient food for the household, consumers tend to employ strategies to help extend their food budget (Darko *et al*., 2013:22). Limited research has been conducted on consumers' (from all socio-economic/income classes) use of money-saving techniques, particularly during difficult economic times. Research on the influence of shopper and demographical characteristics on consumers' use of food-buying practices is also limited.

The main objective of this study was to determine the use of food-buying practices amongst different socio-economic classes in the City of Cape Town. The subsidiary objectives were to further establish whether there is a difference in the use of food-buying practices by consumers who reside within different SES areas, as well as to ascertain whether shopper and demographical characteristics have an influence on the use of food-buying practices among consumers, in general, as well as among consumers within the same SES area. The study's conclusions based on these research objectives consequently add to the limited existing information in this field.

6.1 Use of food-buying practices within different socio-economic classes

With regard to the main objective, the study was conducted among consumers in three suburban areas in the City of Cape Town. Each area was selected based on its SES profile. To establish the overall SES of each area, the combined level of education, occupation and income of the *majority residents* were extracted from the Stats SA Census 2001 profiles (Stats SA, 2001a; Stats SA, 2001b; Stats SA, 2001c). A socio-economic class is comprised of a group of people with the same SES level (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:369). The people or residents within the same suburban area who have the same SES level thus form a socio-economic class and when referring to the area SES, it is essentially a socio-economic class, which is being observed. This then relates to the main objective of the study, which was to determine the use of food-buying practices within different socio-economic classes in the City of Cape Town. The findings of this study highlighted important differences in consumers' use of food-buying practices based on their SES area and further confirmed that there is a

difference in the use of food-buying practices by consumers who reside in different SES areas.

6.2 Differences in the use of food-buying practices by consumers who reside in different SES areas

Turrell *et al*. (2004:214) established that the purchasing patterns of residents within socio-economically disadvantaged areas or neighbourhoods are different to those in more advantaged areas. Ellaway and Macintyre (2000:57) also found that shopping practices vary by neighbourhood of residence and income group. The results of this study thus confirm these findings, as differences in the use of food-buying practices were identified among respondents who reside in different SES suburban areas.

More specifically, a difference in the use of a shopping list, use of advertisements to plan shopping and comparison of prices of different brands as food-buying practices, was found among respondents who reside within a low, middle and high SES area. Respondents within the high and middle SES areas displayed a higher propensity to use a shopping list, yet a lower propensity to use advertisements compared to respondents within the low SES area. However, with regard to the comparison of prices of different brands as a food-buying practice, respondents within the low and particularly middle SES area displayed a higher propensity to carry out this food-buying practice compared to respondents within the high SES area. No differences for the avoidance of impulse buying as a food-buying practice were found among respondents within a low, middle and high SES area. A generally low propensity to avoid impulse buying was, however, evident.

The most apparent reason to support the SES area differences that were found in the use of food-buying practices in this study, as presented above, may be that consumers within high and middle SES areas who receive higher incomes may have more demanding lifestyles and experience greater time pressures compared to consumers within low SES areas. It can, therefore, be inferred that respondents within middle and high SES areas may subsequently use a shopping list to save time and not necessarily to save money. This lack of time may also explain why respondents within the high and middle SES areas did not display a high propensity to use advertisements to plan shopping, as this food-buying practice may be seen as a time consuming activity. They may subsequently feel that the cost of the time and the effort expended to search for “specials” is higher than the amount of money that is saved. Respondents within the high SES area further practised a lower propensity to compare the prices of different brands compared to respondents within the low and middle SES areas. The only argument for this is that they may be more brand-loyal. They may, therefore, be

less willing to purchase an alternative brand on sale or generally at a lower price, as they have the financial capacity owing to their higher incomes to purchase their usual (and preferred) brand.

The most seeming explanation why consumers within the low SES area displayed a low propensity to use a shopping list appear to be that consumers within low SES areas who have restricted budgets may be forced to purchase only items that are required, thus eliminating the need for a shopping list. These consumers may also have a higher concern for price (because of their low level of household income) and hence have a greater reason to spend time searching for and using advertisements to plan their food shopping, and compare the prices of different brands as a means of saving money.

As previously identified by Egan (2010:1), and supported by this study, it can be concluded that consumers with higher incomes may have a lower propensity to use certain food-buying practices, as they may have more funds available and thus feel no need to adjust their usual money-spending/-saving practices as dramatically as lower- or middle-income consumers. Food-buying practices, nevertheless, are mechanisms that consumers can utilise to manage their income expenditure on food. It is also evident from this study that the search for bargains and deals is not limited to individuals who reside in low SES areas. In this study respondents within the middle SES area, and some within the high SES area, also demonstrated a propensity to use these practices when purchasing food.

6.3 Effect of shopper characteristics on the use of food-buying practices among consumers, in general, as well as among consumers within the same SES area

Among respondents within the low SES area the length of time taken to shop, as well as the payment method had an effect on their use of a shopping list as a food-buying practice. Shopping frequency, as well as the payment method had an effect on their use of advertisements as a food-buying practice, and co-shopping, as well as the payment method had an effect on their propensity to avoid impulse buying as a food-buying practice. The only shopper characteristics, which affect respondents' use of a food-buying practice within the middle and the high SES areas, respectively, was the length of time taken to shop and the propensity to compare prices as a food-buying practice, and co-shopping and the propensity to use advertisements as food-buying practice. Among respondents, in general, the method of payment that was used was the only shopper characteristic that influenced avoidance of impulse buying as a food-buying practice.

The method of payment that was used (cash) as a shopper characteristic thus had the greatest effect on respondents' use of food-buying practices. Respondents who paid via cash

in the low SES area used a shopping list less compared to those who paid via debit card, while those who paid via cash or debit card in this SES area had a greater propensity to use advertisements compared to those who paid via credit card or cheque. In both the total sample and low SES area respondents who paid via cash had a greater propensity to avoid buying on impulse compared to those who paid via debit card.

It can be deduced from previous research that the payment method that was used is a reflection of consumer preference and/or ability to access specific payment means (Jonker, 2007:271; Borzekowski *et al.,* 2008:149; Klee, 2008:526; Arango & Taylor, 2009:1). A majority of respondents within the low SES area indicated that they pay by means of cash, which may be more a consequence of their inability (than their preference) to access other means of payment. This conclusion is drawn from the finding that most respondents within the low SES area indicated that they have a reasonably low level household monthly income. This may hinder their accessibility to a debit card, credit card or cheque, which provides secure access to "electronic" or virtual money immediately (Arango & Taylor, 2009:3). Respondents who only have access to cash as a means of payment may be unable to purchase more than the amount of cash available at the point of purchase. As a result, these respondents may need to ensure strict control over their budget. They may consequently use certain food-buying practices (such as the use of advertisements and avoidance of impulse buying) as money-saving techniques. However, they may bypass the need for a shopping list as budgetary constraints may force them to only purchase a few items at a time.

Respondents in the low, as well as middle SES area who indicated that they took less than half an hour to shop for food had a lower propensity to either use a shopping list or compare prices of different brands compared to respondents who indicated that they took one to two hours to shop for food. Again, considering that most respondents within the low SES area indicated that they have a reasonably low level household monthly income, a logical reason to support this finding is, therefore, that financial constraints among consumers in low and middle SES areas may restrict them to purchase only a few essential items at a time, thus reducing the amount of time spent shopping and subsequently negating the need for a shopping list. However, those who take longer to shop may utilise the time to compare the prices of different brands of the products to be bought, which may provide for savings in their limited available monetary resources.

Respondents within the low SES area who shopped once a week displayed a higher propensity to use advertisements compared to those who shopped two to three times a month. The most apparent explanation for this may be that "specials" on food prices are usually advertised on a weekly basis (Zaichkowsky & Sadlowsky, 1991:98; Darko *et al*., 2013:26). Respondents who shop once a week would subsequently be more likely to search

for advertised “specials” and react to them compared to respondents who shop two to three times a month.

Regarding co-shopping, within the low SES area respondents who shopped together with their husbands displayed a lower propensity to avoid impulse buying compared to those who shopped alone, with their partner or children/grandchildren. Shopping with one’s husband within this area, therefore, had a negative effect on the respondent’s propensity to avoid impulse buying. Possible motivation for this finding has previously been identified by Lee and Kacen (2008:269) who found that family members (for example, husbands) may justify an impulse purchase and consequently make the buyer feel more comfortable with their purchase decision. Within the high SES area respondents (assumingly men/husbands) who shopped with their wives used advertisements more than those respondents who shop alone or with their children/grandchildren. Zaichkowsky and Sadlowsky (1991:103) found that women or wives use advertisements more than men. This, in conjunction with the fact that there is a greater trend towards joint decision-making among husbands and wives (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2003:379), leads to the reasoning that men who shop with their wives within the high SES area may be influenced or guided by their wives to use advertisements to plan their shopping.

Hence, it can be concluded that shopper characteristics have an effect on the use of food-buying practices among consumers, in general, as well as those within the same SES area, but more specifically among consumers within a low SES area. Cash, as a method of payment among respondents within the low SES area, in particular, seemed to have an effect on their use of the food-buying practices. Limited access to means of payment other than cash may force consumers to stay within their budget and use food-buying practices as a means of saving money. A shopping list would, however, not be required as limited cash availability may restrict them to buy only a small number of items per shopping trip.

6.4 Effect of demographical characteristics on the use of food-buying practices among consumers, in general, as well as among consumers within the same SES area

Gender, employment status, population group and household monthly income were demographic characteristics that had an effect on respondents’ use of the food-buying practices, in general, as well as within each SES area. Within the high SES area gender and employment status had an effect on respondents’ use of a shopping list as a food-buying practice, and household monthly income an effect on their propensity to compare prices of different brands as a food-buying practice. Within the middle SES area gender affected

respondents' use of advertisements, as well as their propensity to avoid impulse buying as food-buying practices, and within the low SES area gender had an effect on respondents' propensity to compare the prices of different brands as a food-buying practice, while population group had an effect on their propensity to use advertisements to plan shopping as a food-buying practice. Among respondents, in general, gender affected their propensity to avoid impulse buying as a food-buying practice, and household monthly income affected their propensity to compare prices of different brands as a food-buying practice. However, their propensity to use advertisements as a food-buying practice was not only affected by gender and household monthly income, but by population group as well.

It is evident that gender has an effect on the use of all four of the food-buying practices among consumers, in general, as well as within each SES area. Within the high SES area females displayed a greater propensity to use a shopping list compared to males. Females, in general, as well as within the middle SES area, additionally displayed a greater propensity to use advertisements compared to males. However, males within the low SES area displayed a greater propensity to compare the prices of different brands, and males, in general, as well as within the middle SES area, displayed a greater propensity to avoid impulse buying.

Possible explanations for the gender evidence found may be that the use of a shopping list and advertisements are pre-store planning activities that require more time and effort compared to in-store shopping activities such as the comparison of the prices of different brands (Friedman & Rees, 1988:290). Although the avoidance of impulse buying has been considered a pre-store planning activity by Friedman and Rees (1988:290), presently, in-store marketing schemes may tempt consumers to purchase impulsively. Thus, the avoidance of impulse buying may be more of an in-store food-buying practice than a pre-store food-buying practice. Hence, females within the high and middle SES areas, as well as in general, therefore, have a greater propensity to use food-buying practices that require a reasonable amount of pre-store planning (use of a shopping list and advertisements to plan shopping), compared to males who use in-store buying practices (compare prices of different brands and avoid impulse buying) that require less or even no planning.

However, females within the household usually perform the task of shopping for food and making decisions regarding what groceries to purchase (Dholakia *et al.,* 1995:27; Hawkins *et al*., 2001:207; Otnes & McGrath, 2001:112). As a result, they may already be aware of prices and the availability of various brands in-store, and subsequently, feel no need to frequently compare prices. In addition to this, women have been found to feel satisfied or content after buying on impulse compared to men who feel regret (Coley & Burgess, 2003:293; Alagöz & Ekiei, 2011:176). This may be because although unplanned, the item that is purchased may

indeed be required within the household. Women would, therefore, have no need to feel regretful about their purchase. These findings support the common acceptance that females are more efficient shoppers in terms of using a shopping list and advertisements, but not to avoid impulse buying compared to men.

Concerning employment status, within the high SES area self-employed respondents had a lower propensity to use a shopping list compared to pensioner/retired persons. It was identified that older consumers may use a shopping list more, as they are likely to have limited monetary resources and may thus use a shopping list as a means of saving money when shopping for food. They may also use a shopping list to simply help them to remember what items to purchase.

White respondents' propensity to use advertisements as a food-buying practice was less than those of the Coloured population group, in particular, within the total sample and low SES area. The most likely reason for this may be related to the statistic that people within the Coloured population group have a lower level of education and income compared to people in the White population group (Stats SA, 2012a:51). Govindasamy *et al.* (2007:9) mention that there is a tendency for consumers with higher educational levels to earn higher salaries and these consumers are subsequently able to be less price-sensitive. According to their level of education and income, consumers in the Coloured population group compared to the White population group may have less purchasing power and a greater propensity to spend their money cautiously. They may consequently be more willing to use food-buying practices such as the use of the advertising of "specials" to help them save money compared to White respondents.

Within the total sample, as well as within the high SES area, differences in the comparison of prices of different brands and household monthly income were identified. Within the total sample, differences were also identified between the use of advertisements and respondents' household monthly income. Essentially, respondents with lower household monthly incomes displayed a greater propensity to compare the prices of different brands, and to use advertisements compared to those with higher household monthly incomes. The only explanation to support this finding is that these respondents generally had a household size of two to four members, in addition to a low level of household monthly income. Hence, these respondents may have to devote a larger percentage of their total expenditure to food. Comparing the prices of different brands and using advertisements are food-buying practices that they may use (and seemingly do according to the results) in order to save money. These findings confirmed that certain demographical characteristics have an effect on the use of food-buying practices among consumers, in general, as well as among consumers within the same SES area.

CHAPTER 7

RECOMMENDATIONS

Various recommendations to expand the research subject have been identified from the research design and methodology, as well as from the results of this study. Firstly, research is needed to confirm or repudiate these results in other areas, which are representative of the three SES levels. While the study results and conclusions stem from representative samples in the Cape Town area, there is a possibility that the generalisability of the results may be dampened when viewed in the context of other selected areas as representative of the three SES areas. It must also be recognised that the shopping behaviour of consumers across diverse demographic and socio-economic segments is continuously impacted by external factors, particularly the economic and social environment. Hence, shopper profiles tend to change over time (Deon, 2011:5424; Mortimer, 2012:791). Similar research should, therefore, be conducted in future to re-examine consumers within different socio-economic classes' use of food-buying practices. In addition to this, the results of this study essentially focus on the urban shopper. A further research expansion could be to replicate the study within a rural area to identify any possible differences in consumers' use of food-buying practices within rural as opposed to urban areas.

Research could also be conducted to investigate the use of food-buying practices amongst low-income households and the extent to which these practices influence the nutritional quality of the foods that are purchased. Hersey *et al*. (2001:S22) suggest that the investigated food-shopping practices, in addition to a few others not evaluated in this study, could help to improve the dietary quality of foods that are purchased by low-income households.

A final suggestion for further study could be an investigation into the use of food-buying practices by on-line shoppers. On-line retailing is rapidly emerging as an alternative mode of shopping, and is expected to gather a substantial share of the retail market in future (Mummalaneni, 2003:526). Examining the use of food-buying practices by on-line shoppers will help to identify whether these practices are used to a greater or lesser extent when the consumer is not within a "retail" setting, and is thus not affected by store characteristics and other in-store marketing schemes.

It is additionally recommended that the frequency responses that are used to ascertain the frequency of use of a particular food-buying practice should be coded or allocated in the questionnaire in the following way: 4 = Frequently; 3 = Sometimes; 2 = Seldom; and 1 =

Never. This would provide for a more logical interpretation of the mean values, since a higher mean value would indicate a greater propensity to use a food-buying practice and *vice versa*.

In order to discover the reason why consumers do not use a particular food-buying practice, an open-ended question, which probes why they do not use the practice, could follow the initial question on the use in the questionnaire. This will provide the researcher with insight as to why consumers did not use certain practices. Why the consumer indeed used the food-buying practice, may also be investigated. For example, was a shopping list used merely to remember what to purchase or was it used to stay within the budget? Internal, personal or psychological influences (for example, mood state), as well as other factors such as market and store characteristics could additionally be investigated to determine their effect on consumers' use of food-buying practices.

In closing, this study identified that there is a need to develop awareness of food-buying practices amongst consumers, although it was not an objective of the study to consider the necessity. Since food-buying practices is a mechanism that consumers can use to manage their income through expenditure on food, consumers would benefit from this study through educational efforts that are undertaken by, for instance, the retail food company on notification of the study findings, who have the resources and capability to communicate with consumers regularly (while shopping in-store) and inform their customers about food-buying practices that would help them to save money, in particular, to avoid impulse buying; thus making additional funds available for other household expenses. The audience for consumer information and education is a diverse one. According to Herrmann and Warland (1990:323), research would also contribute to identify segments within the population with particular interests and concerns regarding their food-buying practices.

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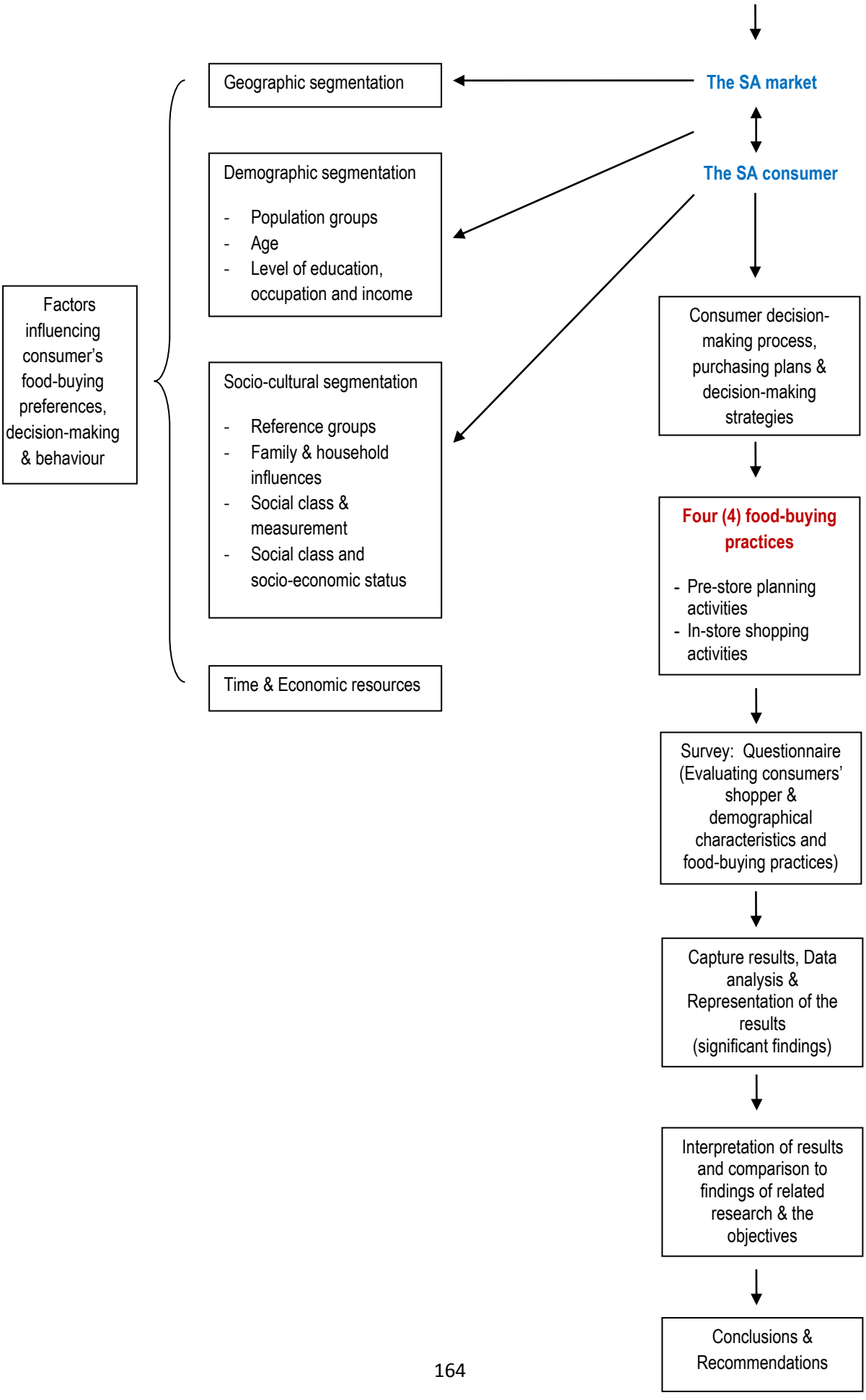
APPENDICES

APPENDIX A:

Conceptual framework for the research work and thesis as supported by the literature

Use of food-buying practices within different socio-economic classes in the City of Cape Town



APPENDIX B:

English pre-screening questionnaire

Cape Peninsula University of Technology

Questionnaire - Food-buying practices of consumers

Pre-screening questions

1 Do you live in the Delft / Maitland / Meadowridge area?

Yes: Continue

No: Thank the consumer for their time and willingness to participate. Inform them that they unfortunately do not fulfill the criteria as a respondent.

2 Are you one of the main decision-makers regarding the purchase of food products for your household?

Being the main decision-maker means that you gather information about products, your household looks to you for guidance regarding purchases, and you make the final decision concerning what products are purchased.

Yes: Continue

No: Thank the consumer for their time and willingness to participate. Inform them that they unfortunately do not fulfill the criteria as a respondent.

3 Are you one of the main buyers of food products in your household?

Yes: Continue

No: Thank the consumer for their time and willingness to participate. Inform them that they unfortunately do not fulfill the criteria as a respondent.

APPENDIX C:

Afrikaans pre-screening questionnaire

Cape Peninsula University of Technology

Vraelys - Voedselaankoop-praktyke van verbruikers

Siftingsgsvrae

1 Is jy woonagtig in die Delft/ Maitland/Meadowridge gebied?

Ja: Gaan voort

Nee: Lig die respondent in dat hy/sy ongelukkig nie aan die vereistes vir deelname voldoen nie

2 Is jy een van die hoof besluitnemers in jou huishouding ten opsigte van die aankoop van voedselprodukte?

As "hoofbesluitnemer" samel jy inligting oor voedselprodukte in; jou huishouding kyk op na jou vir leiding in verband met aankope, en jy neem die finale besluit oor die aankoop van produkte.

Ja: Gaan voort

Nee: Lig die respondent in dat hy/sy ongelukkig nie aan die vereistes vir deelname voldoen nie

3 Is jy een van die hoofaankopers van voedselprodukte in jou huishouding?

Ja: Gaan voort

Nee: Lig die respondent in dat hy/sy ongelukkig nie aan die vereistes vir deelname voldoen nie

APPENDIX D:

English consent form

Cape Peninsula
University of Technology

RESPONDENT INFORMATION LEAFLET AND CONSENT FORM

Title of the research project:

Use of food-buying practices within different socio-economic classes in the City of Cape Town

Principal investigator: Crystal Harper

Address: Cape Peninsula University of Technology, Keizersgracht Street, Cape Town

Contact number and e-mail: (021)705 3142; crystaltjie@yahoo.com

Dear Customer,

The purpose of this questionnaire is to evaluate consumers' use of food buying practices. Should you be willing to participate, you must be 18 years of age or older. You will be required to answer questions regarding your food-buying practices, as well as complete a section regarding your demographical details (your gender, age, marital (marriage) status, household size, level of education, employment status, population grouping and household income).

As participation to answer this questionnaire is voluntary, you are free to withdraw at any time during answering of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire will take approximately 5-10 minutes of your time. As the respondent, you will gain no direct benefit from participation, but added generalized knowledge may be obtained. No discomfort, harm, risk or injury is expected to occur as a result of your participation in this research project.

The information that you provide to us will be used as part of our research, while your identity will not be revealed and your responses will remain anonymous. Your participation in this research is appreciated. Please sign below if you are willing to participate.

Declaration by participant

By signing below, I _____ agree to take part in the research project entitled:

Use of food-buying practices within different socio-economic classes in the City of Cape Town

I declare that:

- I have read or had read to me this information and consent form and it is written in a language in which I am fluent and with, which I am comfortable.
- I have had a chance to ask questions and all my questions have been adequately answered.
- I understand that taking part in this research project is **voluntary** and I have not been pressured into taking part.
- I may choose to discontinue the research project at any time and will not be penalized or prejudiced in any way.

Signed at *(place)* _____ on *(date)* _____ 2013.

_____ _____

Signature of participant **Signature of witness**

Declaration by investigator

I *(name)* _____ declare that:

- I explained the information in this document to _____
- I encouraged him/her to ask questions and took adequate time to answer them.
- I am satisfied that he/she adequately understands all aspects of the research project, as discussed above.
- I did not use an interpreter.

Signed at *(place)* _____ on *(date)* _____2013.

_____ _____

Signature of investigator **Signature of witness**

APPENDIX E:

Afrikaans consent form

Cape Peninsula
University of Technology

RESPONDENT INLIGTINGSBLAD EN VERKLARINGSVORM

Titel van die navorsingsprojek:
Use of food-buying practices within different socio-economic classes in the City of Cape Town

Hoofnavorser: Crystal Harper

Adres: Kaapse Skiereiland Universiteit van Tegnologie, Keizersgracht Straat, Kaapstad

Kontaknommer of e-posadres: (021)705 3142; crystaltjie@yahoo.com

Geagte Verbruiker,

Die doel van hierdie vraelys is om die verbruiker se gebruik van voedselaankooppraktyke te evalueer. Indien u bereid sou wees om deel te neem moet u agtien jaar of ouer wees. Van u sal verwag word om antwoorde te verskaf ten opsigte van u persoonlike voedselaankooppraktyke, asook ‘n gedeelte oor u demografiese profiel (geslag, ouderdom, huwelikstatus, grootte van huishouding, opvoedingsvlak, bevolkingsgroep, en huishoudelike inkomste) te voltooi.

Aangesien deelname aan hierdie vraelys vrywillig is, mag u enige tyd u deelname beëindig. Die vraelys sal om en by 5-10 minute van u tyd in beslag neem. As respondent sal u geen direkte voordeel uit deelname ontvang nie, maar wel die algemene kennis nuttig vind. Geen ongemak, skade, risiko of besering word vanuit u deelname aan die navorsingsprojek voorsien nie.

Die inligting wat u aan ons verskaf, vorm deel van die navorsingprojek, u identiteit sal nie bekend maak nie en u antwoorde bly dus anoniem. U deelname aan hierdie projek sal baie waardeer word. Teken asseblief hieronder indien u bereid is om deel te neem.

Verklaring van deelnemer:

Met die ondertekening van ondergenoemde bevestig ek, _____ om deel te neem aan die navorsingsprojek getiteld:

Use of food-buying practices within different socio-economic classes in the City of Cape Town

Ek verklaar dat:

- Ek die inligting en verklaringsvorm gelees het of dat dit aan my oorgedra is in ‘n taal waarin ek vaardig en gemaklik is.
- Ek die kans gegun is om vrae te vra en al hierdie vrae wel genoegsaam beantwoord is.
- Ek verstaan dat my deelname aan hierdie navorsingsprojek **vrywillig** is en ek onder geen dwang geplaas is om deel te neem nie.
- Dat ek enige tyd my deelname aan hierdie navorsing projek kan staak sonder enige nagevolge.

Geteken te (pl*ek)* _____ op *(datum)* _____ 2013.

_____ _____

Handtekening van deelnemer **Handtekening van getuie**

Verklaring van navorser

Ek *(naam)* _____ verklaar dat:

- Ek die inligting in hierdie dokument aan die deelnemer _____ verduidelik het.
- Ek hom/ haar aangemoedig het om vrae te vrae en genoegsame tyd toegelaat het om die vrae te beantwoord.
- Ek tevrede is dat hy/ sy alle aspekte van hierdie navorsingsprojek genoegsaam verstaan.
- projek duidelik verstaan soos bespreek hierbo.(delete not in English section)
- Ek het nie van ‘n tolk gebruik gemaak het nie.

Geteken te (pl*ek)* _____ op *(daum)* _____ 2013.

_____ _____

Handtekening van navorser **Handtekening van getuie**

APPENDIX F:

Ethical approval letter

Cape Peninsula
University of Technology

Enquiries:
Dr M Opperman
Faculty of Applied Sciences
Chair: Ethics Committee
Tel: (021) 953-8677 or 460-4213
Email: oppermanm@cput.ac.za

16 October 2012

Ms C Harper
Department of Agriculture and Food Science
Consumer Science: Food and Nutrition
Cape Peninsula University of Technology
Cape Town
8000

Dear Ms Harper

Use of food-buying practices within different socio-economic classes in the City of Cape Town – Ref 08/2012

The Ethics Committee has considered your application for Ethics approval for the above project and would like to advise that approval for the project is hereby granted.

We wish you every success with your research.

Kind regards

Dr Maretha Opperman (RD (SA))

APPENDIX G:

English questionnaire

Cape Peninsula University of Technology

Questionnaire - Food-buying practices of consumers

Respondent #: | | | | |

Thank you for voluntarily participating in this study on food-buying practices of consumers. Your answers will be treated confidentially and will provide important information about consumers that will be used for academic purposes. **Your identity will remain anonymous.**

Instructions: Please answer **ALL** questions by circling the number in the block next to your answer.

1 On average, how often do you shop for food products?

Every day	1
2 - 4 times a week	2
Once a week	3
2 - 3 times a month	4
Once a month	5

2 On average, how long do you take to shop for food products?

Less than ½ an hour	1
½ to 1 hour	2
1 - 2 hours	3
More than 2 hours	4

3 Do you usually shop alone for food?

Yes	1	No	2

If **"No"**, who usually goes with you to the shop?

4 How do you mainly pay for your food product purchases?

Cash	1	Debit card	2
Credit card	3	Cheque	4
Other (please specify)			5

5

		Frequently	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
1	How often do you write down a list of food products to buy?	1	2	3	4
2	How often do you know what food products to purchase because you checked at home for them first?	1	2	3	4
3	How often do you have a shopping list with you while shopping?	1	2	3	4
4	How often do you go to the shop knowing exactly what food products you need to purchase?	1	2	3	4
5	How often do you make a mental list of the food products you need to buy?	1	2	3	4
6	How often do you purchase food products according to a shopping list?	1	2	3	4
7	How often do you look for advertisements for "specials" on food products?	1	2	3	4
8	How often do you plan to shop for food products that have been advertised as on "special" ?	1	2	3	4
9	How often do you pay attention to advertisements for "specials" on food products?	1	2	3	4
10	How often do you shop knowing what food products have been advertised as on "special"?	1	2	3	4
11	How often do you use advertisements on "specials" that you have seen or heard about to plan shopping trips?	1	2	3	4
12	How often do you immediately plan a shopping trip once you know a product is on "special" ?	1	2	3	4
13	How often do you compare prices of the different brands available for the same weight and type of food product?	1	2	3	4
14	How often do you buy a cheaper food brand instead of the brand you normally purchase?	1	2	3	4
15	How often do you compare the prices of food brands?	1	2	3	4
16	How often do you look for the cheapest food brand?	1	2	3	4
17	How often do you consider the price difference between food brands?	1	2	3	4
18	How often do you purchase the cheapest food brand available?	1	2	3	4
19	How often do you only buy food products that you planned to purchase?	1	2	3	4
20	How often do you first consider if you really need a food product on "special" before buying it?	1	2	3	4
21	How often do you resist buying food products that you did not plan to purchase?	1	2	3	4
22	How often do you only purchase the food products that you went to the shop for?	1	2	3	4
23	While shopping, how often do you avoid buying a food product that is appealing or tempting when you come across it?	1	2	3	4
24	How often do you only purchase the food products on your shopping list?	1	2	3	4

6 Your **gender?**

Male	1	Female	2

7 Your **age (in years)?**

18-25	1	26-35	2	36-45	3
46-55	4	56-65	5	66+	6

8 Your **marital (marriage) status?**

Married	1	Living together	2	Single	3
Widower/widow	4	Separated	5	Divorced	6

9 How many **household members** do you have? (i.e. how many people live in your house?) ____

10 Your highest **Level of education**

Grade 1 - 7	1	Grade 8 - 11	2	Grade 12	3
Post-matric diploma or certificate	4	Degree	5	Post-graduate degree	6

11 Your **employment status?**

Employed (full-time)	1	Employed (part-time)	2	Self employed	3
Unemployed (looking for work)	4	Unemployed (not looking for work)	5	Housewife /Homemaker	6
Pensioner / retired	7	Student	8	Not working - other	9

12 With which **population group** do you associate yourself most?

Black African	1	Coloured	2	Indian/Asian	3
White	4	Other	5		

13 What is the average **monthly income** for your **household** ?

Less than R800	1	R801 - R3 200	2	R3 201 - R6 400	3
R6 401 - R12 800	4	R12 801 - R25 600	5	R25 601 - R51 200	6
R51 201 - R102 400	7	R102 401 - R204 800	8	R204 801+	9

Thank you for your time and participation!

APPENDIX H:

Afrikaans questionnaire

Cape Peninsula University of Technology

Vraelys - Voedselaankoop-praktyke van verbruikers

Respondent #: | | | | |

Dankie vir jou vrywillige deelname aan die studie ten opsigte van voedselaankoop-praktyke van verbruikers. Jou antwoorde word vertroulik behandel en sal belangrike inligting omtrent verbruikers verskaf vir akademiese doeleindes. **Jou identiteit sal anoniem bly.**

Instruksies: Beantwoord **ALLE** vrae deur die genommerde blok naas die antwoord te omkring.

1 In die algemeen, hoe gereeld koop jy voedselprodukte aan?

Elke dag	1
2 - 4 maal per week	2
Een keer per week	3
2 - 3 maal per maand	4
Een keer per maand	5

2 In die algemeen, hoe lank neem dit jou om voedselaankope te doen?

Minder as 'n halfuur	1
½ tot 1 uur	2
1 - 2 uur	3
Meer as 2 uur	4

3 Doen jy gewoonlik jou voedselaankope op jou eie?

Ja	1	Nee	2

Indien **"nee"**, wie gaan gewoonlik saam met jou na die winkel?

4 Hoe betaal jy vir jou voedselprodukte gedurende jou inkopies?

Kontant	1	Debietkaart	2
Kredietkaart	3	Tjek	4
Ander (verduidelik)			5

5		**Gereeld**	**Partykeer**	**Af en toe**	**Nooit**
1	Hoe gereeld maak jy 'n lys van watter voedselprodukte om te koop?	1	2	3	4
2	Hoe gereeld sou jy weet watter produkte om te koop omdat jy vooraf by die huis 'n opname gemaak het?	1	2	3	4
3	Hoe gereeld neem jy 'n inkopielys saam wanneer jy aankope doen?	1	2	3	4
4	Hoe gereeld weet jy presies watter produkte om aan te koop wanneer jy winkel toe gaan?	1	2	3	4
5	Hoe gereeld sou jy 'n ongeskrewe lys maak van die voedselprodukte wat jy moet koop?	1	2	3	4
6	Hoe gereeld sou jy voedselaankope doen volgens jou inkopielys?	1	2	3	4
7	Hoe gereeld sou jy soek vir advertensies oor "spesiale" aanbiedinge vir voedselprodukte?	1	2	3	4
8	Hoe gereeld sou jy beplan om aankope van voedselprodukte te doen wat geadverteer word as "spesiale" aanbiedinge?	1	2	3	4
9	Hoe gereeld sou jy aandag gee aan advertensies oor "spesiale" aanbiedinge op voedselprodukte?	1	2	3	4
10	Hoe gereeld sou jy aankope doen met kennis van "spesiale" voedselprodukte wat geadverteer is?	1	2	3	4
11	Hoe gereeld sou jy advertensies van "spesiale" aanbiedinge gebruik om jou aankope te beplan?	1	2	3	4
12	Hoe gereeld sou jy 'n inkopietog beplan onmiddelik nadat jy bewus geword het van 'n produk op 'n "spesiale" aanbieding?	1	2	3	4
13	Hoe gereeld sou jy pryse van voedselprodukte met dieselfde gewig van verskillende handelsmerke vergelyk?	1	2	3	4
14	Hoe gereeld sou jy 'n goedkoper voedselhandelsmerk koop in plaas van die produk wat jy normaalweg koop?	1	2	3	4
15	Hoe gereeld vergelyk jy die pryse van handelsmerke vir voedselprodukte?	1	2	3	4
16	Hoe gereeld kyk jy watter voedselhandelsmerk die goedkoopste is?	1	2	3	4
17	Hoe gereeld sou jy die pryse vergelyk tussen verskillende voedselhandelsmerke?	1	2	3	4
18	Hoe gereeld sou jy die goedkoopste voedselhandelsmerk aankoop?	1	2	3	4
19	Hoe gereeld koop jy net die voedselprodukte wat jy beplan het om aan te koop?	1	2	3	4
20	Hoe gereeld dink jy of jy die voedselproduk wat op "spesiale" aanbieding is, regtig nodig het?	1	2	3	4
21	Hoe gereeld sou jy versigtig wees om voedselprodukte wat jy nie beplan het om te koop, wel te koop?	1	2	3	4
22	Hoe gereeld koop jy slegs die voedselproduk wat jy beplan het om in die winkel aan te koop?	1	2	3	4
23	Hoe gereeld vermy jy die aankoop van voedselprodukte was aanloklik of begeerlik is ?	1	2	3	4
24	Hoe gereeld sou jy slegs die voedselprodukte aankoop wat op jou inkopielys voorkom?	1	2	3	4

6 Jou **geslag?**

Manlik	1	Vroulik	2

7 Jou **ouderdom (in jare)?**

18-25	1	26-35	2	36-45	3
46-55	4	56-65	5	66+	6

8 Jou **huweliks-status?**

Getroud	1	Woon saam	2	Alleenloper	3
Weduwee/Wewenaar	4	Vervreemd	5	Geskei	6

9 **Hoeveel persone is in jou huishouding?** (dws hoeveel persone is in die huis waarin jy woon?) ☐

10 Jou hoogste **vlak van opleiding?**

Graad 1 - 7	1	Graad 8 - 11	2	Graad 12	3
Na-matriek diploma of sertifikaat	4	Graad	5	Na-graadse opleiding	6

11 Jou **beroep status?**

Beroep (voltyds)	1	Beroep (Deeltyds)	2	Selfonderhoudend	3
Werkloos (soek werk)	4	Werkloos (soek nie werk nie)	5	Huisvrou /Tuisteskepper	6
Pensionaris / afgetredene	7	Student	8	Werkloos - ander	9

12 Aan watter **bevolkingsgroep** behoort jy?

Swart Afrikaan	1	Gekleurd	2	Indies/Asiaat	3
Wit	4	Ander	5		

13 Wat is u gemiddelde **maandelikse inkomste** van die huishouding ?

Minder as R800	1	R801 - R3 200	2	R3 201 - R6 400	3
R6 401 - R12 800	4	R12 801 - R25 600	5	R25 601 - R51 200	6
R51 201 - R102 400	7	R102 401 - R204 800	8	R204 801+	9

Dankie vir jou tyd en deelname!

APPENDIX I:

Fieldworker guide

Cape Peninsula University of Technology

Survey on use of food-buying practices within different socio-economic classes in the City of Cape Town

Fieldworker guide

The document will guide you in your role as a fieldworker. Ideally, the questionnaire should be handed to the respondent to complete on their own. You must be available in case problems are experienced but should limit your own contribution to completion of the questionnaire to the absolute minimum. You may encourage the respondent with a few words to continue with his/her contribution. However, you may find that some respondents would prefer you to conduct a personal interview. In this case, you will ask them the questions and then indicate the respondent's answers provided on the questionnaire for them. Most guidelines refer to the fieldworker behaviour that should be practiced regardless of the method of the questionnaire administration. Specific guidelines, which pertain to the personal interview method, have been provided.

1. Your role as a fieldworker

1.1 Your main task is to administer a questionnaire to consumers who enter the grocery store. The researcher will randomly choose the first respondent. Thereafter, you have to target every second to third person that enters the grocery store for participation.

1.2 As a fieldworker you will be in direct contact with the public. You will be representing the Cape Peninsula University of Technology. The way that you act will affect the accuracy of the information that you collect, as well as public perception of this survey. Be willing to listen, be patient, polite, positive and friendly.

1.3 Keep record of each person that you approached who said that they are not willing to participate.

1.4 Only respondents who respond "yes" to all three pre-screening questions are eligible to participate.

1.5 The questionnaire should take five to six minutes to complete.

1.6 Ensure that all consent forms and questionnaires are kept safe and confidential at all times.

1.7 All consent forms and questionnaires must be submitted to the researcher.

1.8 Do not take money or valuables that you do not need with you when you do the fieldwork. If you feel that you are in danger, stop the interview immediately in an appropriate way (indicated further in the document).

2. Approaching consumers

Instructions for the preferred method of approaching and managing consumers are described in detail below.

- *Make a good first impression*

  Dress neatly; be friendly, but polite and respectful. Speak slowly and clearly. Use simple words so that the respondent can understand you easily.

- *Introduce the survey/questionnaire in a way that encourages the respondent*

  The introduction to the survey gives the respondent an idea of what the study is all about and why they should give up their time to participate. Explain to the respondent that the information that you collect is confidential, and will not be used for any other purposes. The study description and instructions to complete the questionnaire are indicated on the questionnaire. You may read this to them. This provides a short, clear explanation of the study and their participation.

- *Have a positive approach*

  Do not be apologetic. Do not start the interview by asking: “Are you too busy?” as this question invites a refusal before you start. Instead say: “I would like to ask you some questions.”

- *Emphasize confidentiality*

  If the respondent hesitates about answering the questions, or asks what the information will be used for, repeat that the information will be kept completely confidential. CPUT will not record people’s names, addresses or any other personal information. All the information from all respondents will be placed in one pool so that we will not be able to tell what any particular household or individual said.

- *Practise confidentiality*

  Do not mention anyone else's answers while you are interviewing. Do not show other respondents' completed questionnaires to the respondents.

- *Use the language of the respondent – Relating specifically to the personal interview*

  Conduct the interview in a language with which the respondent is most comfortable. So, before you start interviewing the respondent, you must ask, which language they are most comfortable with. The questionnaire is available in both English and Afrikaans.

- *Be patient*

  Emphasise that the respondent must answer as accurately as they can. Stress that there is no hurry, and that they can take their time to think about the answers. Accuracy is more important than speed. Tell them to ask you to repeat or explain if any question or instruction is unclear.

- *Ask if you do not understand an answer*

  If you are unclear about the respondent's answer, ask the respondent to tell you again, or explain some more. Ask in a neutral way, without prompting. Do not ask: "Do you mean 'this'?" as many respondents will then agree with you even if you are wrong.

- *Do not change the wording or order of questions*

  If the respondent does not understand a question, repeat it again clearly and slowly. If the respondent still does not understand, you may call the researcher for assistance.

- *Be neutral – Relating specifically to the personal interview*

  Many respondents will try to give the answers that they think you want to hear. So it is important that you do not show in any way what you feel about the questions and their answers. You must not show your reactions by what you say, by your tone of voice, or by the expression on your face. You must not suggest the answers. For example, you must not say: "You are married, aren't you?" You must ask the questions exactly as they are written even if you think you know the answer.
- *Do not make assumptions about the respondent – Relating specifically to the personal interview*

For example, do not assume that a person will be unmarried because they are a young age, or that they will not have children because they are not married, or that they do unskilled work because they have little formal education.

- *Be tactful and sensitive*

  Some respondents will find questions such as those on marital status, level of education, employment and income, as well as population group uncomfortable and embarrassing. Some respondents will worry why you/we are asking these questions. Be sensitive, but explain again that the answers are confidential. If the respondent gives long, irrelevant feedback do not stop him or her rudely. Listen to what they are saying. Then try to direct them back to your questions.

- *Probing*

  If an incomplete response is/was given, probe the respondent to clarify or complete the question. You can identify these when the respondent returns the completed questionnaire.

- *Terminating the interview*

  Do not end the session/interview until all information has been obtained. Check that each question in the questionnaire was answered when you receive the completed questionnaire. Record any spontaneous responses that the respondent may make once the formal questions were completed. Answer any questions that they may have and thank them for their time and participation.

3. Structure of the respondent information leaflet and consent form, as well as the questionnaire

3.1 The respondent information leaflet and consent form is one document. It will provide the respondent will all the necessary information regarding the study. The respondent, as well as you (the investigator) must complete and sign the declaration section.

3.2 The pre-screening questionnaire consists of three basic questions. The actual questionnaire is divided into three sections. The first deals with usage characteristics, the second with food-buying practices, and the third with the respondent's demographic details.

3.2.1 How to ask the questions - *Relating specifically to the personal interview*

- Every question must be asked in exactly the way that it appears in the questionnaire. Do not add or skip any words or sentences. Follow the order of the questionnaire precisely. Complete all the questions of one section before you start with the next section.

- Do not leave any question blank unless you must skip over it for that respondent. Do not fill in a response or any question, which must be skipped for that respondent. Both of these mistakes will cause problems when we capture and analyse the data.

- You will find different styles of text in the pre-screening questionnaire. Every style means something different. Everything that is written in lower case normal letters must be read out. Everything that is written in italics is an instruction to you, the interviewer.

3.2.2 Recording the answers - *Relating specifically to the personal interview*

- Where there are pre-coded answers, circle the code number next to the answer given by the respondent. For all close-ended questions, only one code number can be circled.

- Some questions have no pre-coded answers (they are open-ended). Here you must write the answer of the respondent in the space provided in the questionnaire. If there is not enough space, write the answer somewhere else near the question and show clearly to which question the answer belongs.

- Write down the answers to the uncoded questions in English. If, however, you are not sure how to translate what the respondent says in another language, then write both your own English translation and the answer in the other language, and make a note at the back of the questionnaire about the difficulty.

- If the answer is too long to fit in the allowed space, you must not exceed that space. Instead, write notes at the bottom of the page or at the end of the questionnaire.

- In questions with pre-coded answers, the respondent may answer something not covered by the responses that are provided. In this case, write down their answer and make a note at the back of the questionnaire about the difficulty.

- Sometimes the respondents say that they do not know the answer. Try to avoid “don’t know” answers. Usually, if you give the respondent time to think, they will find an answer.

- The interview should be terminated after ensuring that all relevant information has been gathered. Then, you should thank the respondent for their time and leave them with a good feeling towards the interview.

Please familiarise yourself with the questionnaire provided. Both English and Afrikaans versions should be studied.

APPENDIX J:

Cronbach's alpha results for the second pilot questionnaire questions representing each food-buying practice

Cronbach's alpha results for the second pilot questionnaire questions representing each food-buying practice

Scale: Shopping List

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.768	6

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item
How often do you write down a list of food products to buy?	10.15	10.775	.695	.679
How often do you know what food products to purchase because you checked at home for them first?	11.08	14.314	.503	.742
How often do you have a shopping list with you while shopping?	10.27	12.285	.497	.740
How often do you go to the shop knowing exactly what food products you need to purchase?	11.12	15.146	.343	.771
How often do you make a mental list of the food products you need to buy?	10.42	14.094	.406	.759
How often do you purchase food products according to a shopping list?	10.42	10.734	.664	.689

Scale: Advertisements

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.902	6

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item
How often do you look for advertisements for "specials" on food products?	9.69	15.182	.891	.861
How often do you plan to shop only for food products that have been advertised as on "special" ?	9.65	15.195	.900	.860
How often do you pay attention to advertisements for "specials" on food products?	9.69	15.342	.864	.865
How often do you shop knowing what food products have been advertised as on "special"?	9.42	17.774	.538	.911
How often do you use advertisements on "specials" that you have seen or heard about to plan shopping trips?	9.31	16.062	.597	.908
How often do you immediatey plan a shopping trip once you know a product is on "special" ?	9.15	15.975	.660	.896

Scale: Compare prices

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.914	6

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item
How often do you compare prices of the different brands available for the same weight and type of food product?	10.54	17.298	.799	.893
How often do you buy a cheaper food brand instead of the brand you normally purchase?	10.27	20.205	.650	.912
How often do you compare the prices of food brands?	10.85	18.535	.776	.896
How often do you look for the cheapest food brand?	10.50	19.780	.674	.909
How often do you consider the price difference between food brands?	10.73	17.725	.894	.878
How often do you purchase the cheapest food brand available?	10.58	19.294	.768	.897

Scale: Avoid impulsive buying

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.779	6

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item
How often do you only buy food products that you planned to purchase?	11.08	12.794	.475	.758
How often do you first consider if you really need a food product on "special" before buying it?	11.08	11.274	.669	.709
How often do you resist buying food products that you did not plan to purchase?	11.08	13.274	.467	.760
How often do you only purchase the food products that you went to the shop for?	10.92	10.154	.743	.683
How often do you resist buying a food product simply because it "looks" appealing or nice?	10.77	13.305	.304	.800
How often do you only purchase the food products on your shopping list?	10.85	11.495	.534	.744