A STUDY OF FRUIT AND VEGETABLE VENDORS IN THE CENTRAL REGION OF THE EASTERN CAPE PROVINCE

BY

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Abora Bediako

Pretoria, June 2000.

ABSTRACT

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Degree: M.Inst.Agrar (Agricultural Economics)

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Unemployment numbers are very high in South Africa. The Eastern Cape province is one of the poorest provinces in South Africa and is characterised by a large number of unemployed people. Many of the unemployed have entered the hawking business as a way to survive and to supplement the meagre income.

The objective of this study is establish a profile of fruit and vegetable vendors in the Eastern Cape and to highlight the constraints they experience in their trade. The study highlights the conditions in which the vendors trade, discuss the sources of supply, their prices and profit margins and also the sites where they operate.

Various methods including a questionnaire survey, personal observations and interactions were used to investigate the activities of the vendors.

The central region of the Eastern Cape is the focus of this study. Four magisterial districts within the region were selected for analytical purposes with regard to fruit and vegetable vendors.

The results show a mixture of negative and positive trends. The trade activities of these vendors reflect more positive and favourable trends albeit the negative ones which are surmountable. Despite the negative trends the potential for success is high if the right approach is adopted.

The unemployment problem is not going to be solved by government efforts alone but with the help of others with self initiatives e.g., the group in this study. It is therefore recommended that the initiatives and interest shown by these traders should be encouraged and supported through viable policies and less costly government interventions.

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CHAPTER ONE

1.1 BACKGROUND

Unemployed people in South Africa are estimated to be approximately around four million (Budget, 1996). The majority of the unemployed are finding ways and means, with varying levels of legality, to survive. While some are waiting for 'Manna' from the heavens, others have initiated their own means of survival through various activities amongst which is the hawking of agricultural products, especially fruit and vegetables.

The Eastern Cape and especially the central region (East London, King Williams Town, Bisho and Alice) where the demarcated area of study is situated, is no exception in terms of the above predicament. The region is a special economic case as recognised by the central government; therefore the region was selected to host South Africa's first "market place" to attract badly needed investment (Dispatch, 1996).

According to Myburg and Karaan (1992) the current interest in urban informal markets stems from the present rate of urbanisation and demographic trends. The same authors observe that the nature of demand for agricultural products suggests that if formalised marketing schemes fail to deliver the product to the consumer, a 'gap' is created in the market. Numerous people are grabbing the opportunity to fill the gap.

An editorial opinion of Dispatch (1995) recognises that street trading has found a home in East London (and the greater part of the Border region). Criticism of street trading has focused on pavement congestion, safety and health standards, cleanliness and littering. The Sowetan (May, 1995) in its article "Containing the Hawker Problem", finds hawking to be the least formal and the fastest growing sector in South Africa. This is supported by the present membership of The African Council of Hawkers and Informal Business (ACHIB), which stands at 55,000 (Sowetan 1995).

The same news daily also recognises the fact that small businesses are the most effective creators of jobs in a free market economy. A study by Massiah (1993) reveals that a job or income earning activity provides a sense of self - esteem and control over one's life. The activities of these traders, as pointed out by Buvinic and Berger (1994), play a role in the distribution of commodities and reproduction of the labour force by generating income for microvendors, and functionally complement the formal sector. Informal trading constitutes a vast intermediary network, which enables formal distributors to avoid expenditure on infrastructure, transportation, labour and other costs needed for the circulation of commodities. Through rapid circulation of products, such trading indirectly favours a faster turnover of capital and thereby boosts formal sector profits and accumulation. Groenewald (1995) recognises their bulkiness and importance in the distribution sector of the South African marketing scene.

There are success stories of hawkers e.g. the Successful Hawker of Dominica narrated by Abbot (1976); Women in retail food trade in Ibadan, Nigeria, a study by Whetham (1972). Successful Yoruba traders in Ghana, Eades (1993) and the case of Mothuenyane in South Africa (S.A.B.C., 1995).

1.2 THE PROBLEM

The Eastern Cape is the third most populous province in South Africa (Central Statistics Services, 1998). The economically active age group (15 years to 64 years) of Blacks is slightly smaller compared to that of the country as a whole. This implies that the lower the proportion, the heavier the dependency burdens for the economically active population i.e. each economically active person whether employed or not has to support 3,1 people. The average for South Africa is 2,0 (Data D 1995).

Unemployment is higher in the Eastern Cape than in South Africa as a whole. Of the economically active in the province, 41% were recorded as being unemployed in 1995 using the expanded definition, (the desire to work and the availability of work, irrespective of whether or not the person has taken active steps to find work) (Hirschowitz and Orkin, 1996) as compared to 29% nationally (Figure 1.1). Proportionately fewer people work in the Eastern Cape formal sector (45%) than in South Africa as a whole (59%), while 14% work in the informal sector, compared to the national figure of 12% (Central Statistics (1998). The bulk of the unemployed flock to urban centres for non-existent jobs.

The relatively high functional urbanization shows that people regard urban centres as more attractive sources of employment than the rural areas, resulting in an influx of people to the cities and towns. A number of the unemployed in the cities and towns have taken to hawking as a business and a means of survival. But their ignorance of modern business strategies places them at the mercy of an increasing number of middlemen, Frankel (1926).

FIG 1.1

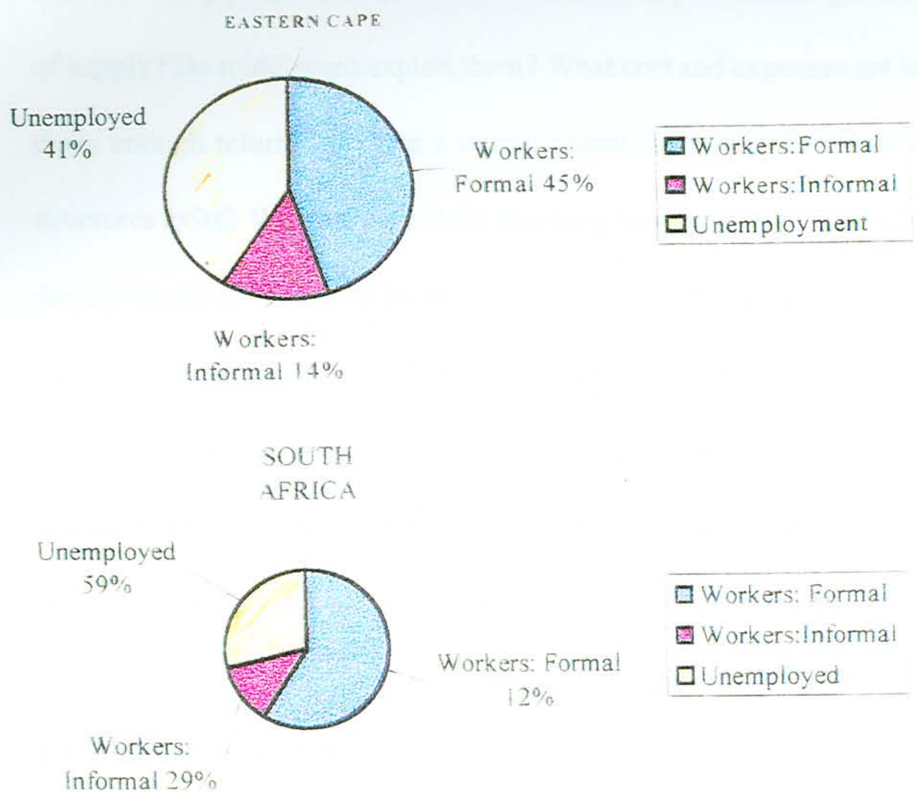


Figure 1.1. The employment status of the economically active population in South Africa and the Eastern Cape (Source: October household survey, 1995)

1.3 OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

A large number of people in the Eastern Cape are engaged in a variety of informal trade activities as means for survival, or self employment or to supplement their income. The question that needs investigation is their success rate in the light of numerous constraints, especially in the marketing of fresh produce.

Some of the questions that this study aims to find answers to are the following: Why the influx of many people into the sector? Who are they? What are problems at the sources of supply? Do middlemen exploit them? What cost and expenses are incurred? Do they make enough returns? Is there a saving potential for expansion? What organisational structures exist? Why are they in the hawking business? How is perishability curtailed? Are the locations or sites for business appropriate? What are the effects of seasonality on business? How can the Government help them with overall development? Does healthy competition exist among them? Are hygienic conditions observed? It is envisaged that, this study will reveal materials that will be an invaluable asset to both traders and policy makers in enhancing a sustainable self-employment policy strategy.

1.4 METHODOLOGY

This study was conducted in the central Eastern Cape. The target groups were randomly chosen from the nodal points of East London, King William's Town and Alice. The survey procedures have been personal observations, informal talks, a structured questionnaire (Appendix A) and personal interviews of vendors of fruit and vegetables.

Questionnaires were administered to traders by means of face-to-face interviews. Eight to ten traders were interviewed per day, mostly on weekends. A total of one hundred and twenty traders were interviewed from the nodal points over a three-month period. The author conducted interviews and in most cases completed the forms. Literate traders completed the forms on their own.

Prior to each interview, the purpose of the study and the structure of the questionnaire were explained to the traders. Vendors of fruits and vegetables formed the core of the primary source of information. This was supplemented by information from Amatola, King William's Town and Alice District Councils. Other participants were selected members of the East London and King William's Town fresh produce markets. Relevant data were also collected from secondary sources, for example, books, published and unpublished reports or journals and articles.

The primary data collection had its problems. Some traders were uncooperative and would not participate, under the pretext that they were busy, though such traders were often doing nothing at the time. Others had the fear that findings about their income would be used for tax purposes. On a number of occasions the author had to buy some of their goods or give sweets and chocolates to entice them to divulge information. Data collected were manually analysed, but most of the figures were drawn using EXCEL.

1.5 OUTLINE OF STUDY

Chapter two consists of information on the extent of the informal sector in South Africa. It also looks at the characteristics and economic impact of the sector and factors that influence success or failure. Chapter three describes the study area, the role of incentives and the relevance of these hawkers in the marketing chain. In chapter four, hawker activities in the region are examined. Chapter five deals with the wider perspective of the hawkers' environment. Chapter six consists of discussions of results and conclusions.

CHAPTER TWO

THE INFORMAL SECTOR IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The informal economy in South Africa differs in important ways from that in other African countries and elsewhere in the world. In South Africa, manufacturing and services comprise the smaller portion of overall activities, and trade in fresh produce and manufactured goods (such as clothing and cosmetics) comprise the larger portion. A high proportion of South African traders deal with goods not produced by themselves. Seven out of 10 (in Durban) who sold food or other products were selling fruit and vegetables and meat or poultry, Lund and Skinner (1988).

2.2 THE EXTENT OF THE INFORMAL SECTOR IN SOUTH AFRICA

The informal sector of South Africa is a growing source of employment. Approximately 1,7 million people work in this sector, of whom 1,3 million work for their own account. Africans generally, and African women in particular, are the dominant group in this sector. Eight in every ten females (82%) in the informal sector are in elementary informal occupations such as street vending, domestic work and scavenging (Central Statistical Services, 1995).

Fourteen percent of all economically active people in the Eastern Cape work in the informal sector compared to the national situation, where 29% work in this sector. Among all those in the sector in Eastern Cape, 71% are workers for their own account, and 29% are employees.

The involvement of workers in the informal sector varies by province. Figure 2.2 indicates the proportion of workers, and who are found in the informal sector. It indicates that the Eastern Cape has the second largest percentage of workers (23%) involved in informal sector, after the Northern province (25%). The national figure is 17% (Hirschowitz and Orkin, 1996). The same authors found that, informal sector workers in the Eastern Cape tend to cluster into certain economic sectors (Figure 2.3). For example, about 73% of female own account workers in the informal sector are found in the personal services sector while 18% are found in trade, catering and accommodation. Relatively few males and females (6%) are in small-scale informal manufacturing.

The concentration of informal sector workers into certain distinct economic sectors is also a national feature: in South Africa as a whole, more than three-quarters of female own account workers (77%) are found in personal services, while 40% of males are found in the trade, catering and accommodation sector (Figure 2.3). Relatively few males (8%) and females (5%) are in small-scale manufacturing.

According to Rudman (1990), the informal sector in South Africa has a first and third world element and includes white home industries, consisting of about 300 000 families. Studies undertaken in various parts of the country show that street traders account for 40-50 percent of all the business transacted in the informal sector (Rudman 1990).

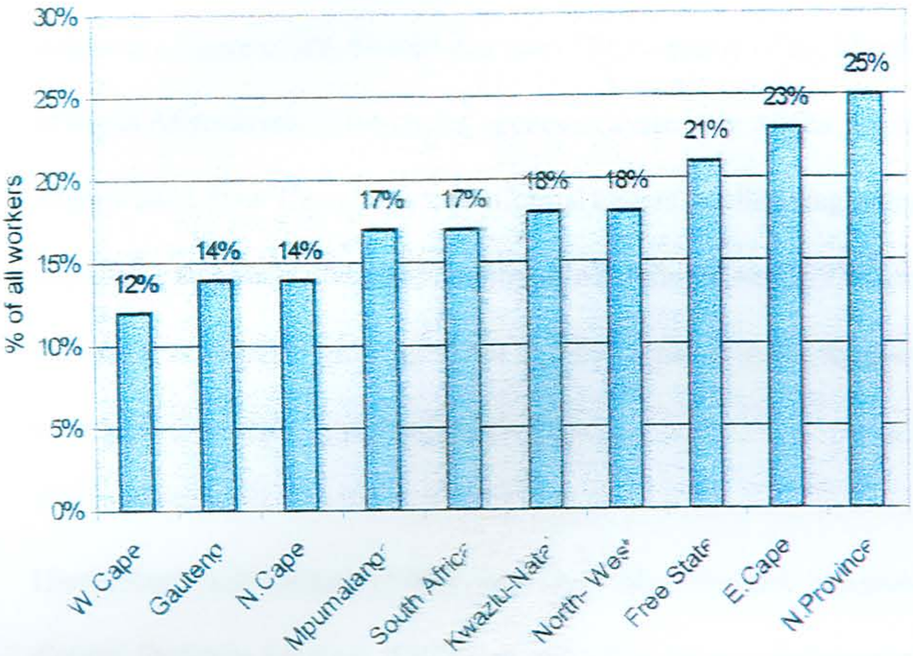


Figure 2.1: Workers involved in the informal sector as a percentage of total number of workers in each province (Source: October household survey, 1995)

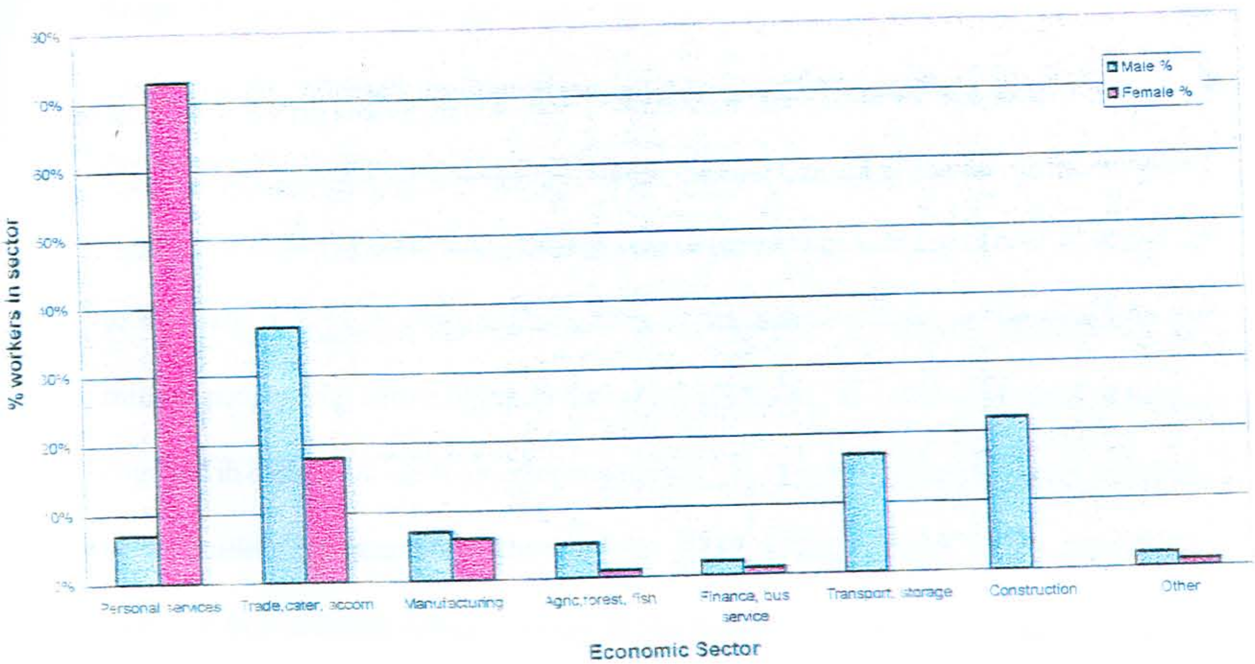


Figure 2.2: Workers for own account in the informal sector by economic sector and gender in South Africa (Source: October household survey, 1995)

A calculation of the market value or sales that informal traders constitute in urban areas indicates a figure of R9, 84 billion a year. The economy of the black urban community of South Africa is one of the largest economic systems in Africa ,behind Nigeria, Egypt, Algeria and Libya. This means that informal traders handle a staggering 33 percent of the disposable income of all blacks employed in the formal sector. The same author is of the opinion that, this fast growing sector is the area that is going to give the formal sector most growth in real terms. (Rudman 1990)

Hartzenberg and Leiman (1990) show data from the first comprehensive survey of Central Statistics Services (CSS) indicating that, unrecorded economic activity in the former South Africa alone amounted to R 16 billion in 1989, or 8% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Coetzee (1990) estimates that the contribution of the informal sector to South Africa's gross domestic product varies between 3 to 25 percent. Silber (1993) using figures released by the Economic Research Unit of the Small Business Development Corporation (SBDC) states that the informal sector accounts for a staggering 75,7 % of all business enterprises in South Africa today. The total contribution to the GDP is 17%, or close to R 45-billion. This figure is based on an estimated 3,5 million people who earn a living in the informal sector. The number of South Africans engaged in ethical but unrecorded economic activity is expected to rise from 3,5 million to 7,5 million by year 2005, the informal sector is here to stay. Silber (1993) also indicates that in South Africa the very strong formal sector and a informal sector, are trying to meet.

Morrell (1990) stipulates that hawking has traditionally been a livelihood practiced by people at the lower end of social scale. In the late 19th and early 20th centuries hawking existed in the Eastern Cape. East European immigrants, proletarianized Afrikaners and Indian laborers dominated hawking. Hawkers who had greater resources were able to use the trade as the first step to economic fortune, while others lived a hand to mouth existence.

With the development of the South African economy, access to capital increasingly became a prerequisite for accumulation. Changes of upward economic mobility via hawking declined. At the same time Africans, hitherto self-sufficient on the land, began to move to cities and turned to hawking. Up until the Second World War (1939) whites dominated hawking in Umtata, but thereafter they appear to have faded out. At the same time African hawking began to increase as pressure on peasantry rose.

2.3 CHARACTERISTCS, IMPORTANCE AND ECONOMIC IMPACT OF THE INFORMAL SECTOR

2.3.1. The relevance and the role of hawkers in the marketing chain

The stages of marketing as summed up by Rhodes (1979) are production, assembly, processing, wholesaling, retailing and consumption. Hawkers form the vital link between wholesaling and consumption through retailing. Kohls and Uhl (1985) state that marketing to the hawker is a process of gaining competitive advantage over market rivals, improving sales profits and satisfying consumers.

Bartering had the problem of exchange of value and therefore needed a universally acceptable medium of exchange. This led to complexities in the marketing process. For example, a gap between potential participants was created in space, time, knowledge, ownership and value. The gap indicated that marketing activities were needed to bridge the gap between participants in the marketing process (Marx and Van Der Walt, 1989).

In the environment of the hawker are big retailers ever ready to sink these small traders, yet they get their fair share of the market of agricultural products. This is partly due as stipulated by Karaan and Myburgh (1992) to the fast developing urban townships, the mushrooming of urban informal settlements and the demand for agricultural products in this market, i.e. the accelerated congestion of an ever increasing population around major cities. These people form the bulk of the hawker's customers and create the ability for hawkers to fit into the marketing scene.

In the stages of marketing the hawker is the last link to the user, and in the distribution sector the hawker retails in small and convenient quantities to the customer. The word "retail" comes from the French word "re-tailer" meaning to cut into smaller parts. This definition is valid and aptly describes the hawker. The hawker is involved in direct selling which embodies the essence of free enterprise and allows one to run one's distribution business, make as much money as wished, without the difficulties and bureaucracy associated with formal business (Clarke, 1996).

These sellers are described by various terms, such as: hawkers (Who either moves from place to place or remains at a point selling goods - (in this exercise fruit and vegetables) vendors, petty traders, micro entrepreneurs, traders or peddlers. They obtain a batch of produce either on credit or with their own money and offer it to passers-by until cleared (Abbot, 1987). They collect in bulk and redistribute in individual customer lots, (Rodger, 1974). They collect goods in different places and in the least expensive manner and are therefore able to supply their customers at cheaper rates, they promote convenience to everyone and reduce the cost of merchandising to the lowest limit, (McCulloch, 1989). In order for agricultural products to have value, they need to be distributed to places where they are needed and used at the right time in the right quantities. The hawker plays an immense role in this regard by organising sales and distribution and exposing goods for sale, (Rodger, 1974).

According to (Hansen, 1967) they are of importance to the seasonal grower or those seeking to reach small and scattered markets since they know such markets better than the produce and secure distribution quickly. Summed up, they give place utility to products.

Rhodes (1974) notes that they are managers of substantial shelf and floor space in which thousands of items are available for sale. They are buyers for consumers and not sales agents for producers because they try to buy what their customers want to buy. According to Kohls and Uhls, 1985 they buy products for resale directly to the ultimate consumer, they are the producers' and personal representatives to the consumer, perform a complex job and are the most numerous of the marketing agencies.

They are also the wholesaler's principal partners in the marketing process and place products before individuals for acceptance or rejection. They are the gatekeepers and channel captains of the food industry because of their size, power and strategic position. Their activities represent the final stages of food marketing with activities like dispersion, the addition of possession utility to food products, and the facilitation of consumers' choice of desired food product assortment.

It can be deduced from the foregoing that they are of valuable service to the customer who can't afford to buy in bulk because their goods are in small affordable units to meet the pockets or purchasing power of the non-affluent. They link the farmer or wholesaler on one hand and the user on the other in the distributive sector of marketing.

2.3.2. Economic importance of the informal sector

Anderson (1987) quoting Bairoch (1976) states that the problem of intense urban migration and the government's inability to cope has led to urban unemployment. The towns are seen as melting pots where tribalism yields to nationalism, where industrious men and women can develop themselves regardless of their family background. Where unemployment is rife, crime and prostitution are often the means of survival. But the informal sector frequently offers an alternative solution by occupying people productively through hawking (i.e. produce a distribution services). Their products are often adequate in price and quality to cater for the needs of the poor. Anderson (1987) recognises the impact of this sector on the economy through the following reasons:

(a) Where there is a high unemployment and shortages of capital, capital is used productively and labour intensive employment created.

(b) The unemployed youth is given a fair chance to learn a trade within the value system of their culture.

(c) To cater for the basic needs of the poor, the production units are close to the market and familiar with the needs of the market.

(d) Industrious entrepreneurs with sufficient schooling may channel their ambitions and have a chance to succeed.

(e) Self- reliance - training which respects traditional values and prepares the young for self-employment, produce goods and services that satisfy the basic needs of the population and reliance on local resources.

(f) To millions of people in centres all over the world, the informal sector offers the only legal way of making a living and surviving.

The informal sector is the economic seedbed where entrepreneurship is fostered and new ideas tried out. The sector's activities contribute to an endogenous and self reliant development, provides training for the young who respect traditional values and offers the best preparation for self employment (Ȧnderson, 1987).

The bulk of traders in the distributive sectors of fruits and vegetables in the province means their dependants and many others indirectly derive their economic survival from this sector.

Nihan and Jourdain (1978), who state that informal incomes provide livelihood for thousands of people, confirm this. It must be recognised that it does not only act as an invaluable shock absorber smoothing out the jars and jolts of the development process but also plays a role of great intrinsic importance for all those who have deliberately chosen to work in it.

Anderson (1987) observes that the sector fulfils most objectives of development. These include economic growth, through high capacity - capital ratio, which positively affects the saving rate of the economy to allow formal funds to be used in the formal sector. Non-economic resources and capabilities are fostered, entrepreneurship, innovation and creative ideas are provided. The sector provides chances and channels for everyone to succeed irrespective of background and qualification and distribution of wealth. The workforce is remunerated enough for a reasonable standard of living. The sector provides about 20 - 70 % of all employment offered in urban economies of developing countries.

According to Fraser (1991) they help to meet the demands of an increasing urban population where their activities are mostly concentrated. This is so because according to Abbot (1962) as economies become more developed and urbanised, they call for an efficient marketing system. Mellor (1966) stipulates that three developmental changes bring to the fore the importance of marketing.

Commercialisation allows marketing of larger produce and rising incomes to create corresponding increased demand. Rising incomes also increase demand for marketing services, which have higher income elasticities than the farm produce itself with the resultant effect of marketing charges being larger than the portion of total consumer expenditures for agricultural products.

The marketing systems play a vital role in agricultural development, (Heyer,1976). Studies by Fraser (1991) reveal that with improved productivity and more specialisation in the field of primary production, a demand for services provided by the marketing system is created, therefore it is important for the two to develop simultaneously. Arnon (1981) argues that the shortage of marketable surplus impedes development of an efficient marketing system.

Anthony *et al* (1979) are of the opinion that production of marketing surplus and concomitant specialisation in crops are a reality if there is a willing buyer of the extra input. Abbot (1962) states that urbanization will lead to consumers demanding services which producers can't meet resulting in specialised marketing enterprises looking for avenues for profitable ventures. This results in an immense contribution to the advancement of the living conditions of producers and consumers (Fletcher, 1965). Fraser (1991) states that incomes derived from sale of marketable surplus help to meet the needs of these small entrepreneurs.

These needs as recognised by Smith (1978) include improved diet, payment of school fees, buying clothing and other consumer goods. Increased incomes have a multiplier effect, (Cracknell 1985) and may boost demand for inputs, services and create job avenues especially around villages, they also curtail the rural exodus to cities for non existent jobs, broaden the tax base and contribute to general social and economic equity.

The role of these hawkers becomes more enhanced because, according Fraser (1991), the residents in the large and small areas of the former Ciskei (an integral part of the Eastern Cape) are almost entirely dependent on purchased foodstuffs. Their impact would continue to be felt, as urban population would increase in excess of 3/5 (60 %) with a consequent increase in demand for produce by year 2000 as estimated in the Swart Report (1983) as in (Table 2.1).

TABLE 2.1: Population distribution (Ciskei) for 1984 and projected figures for the year 2000

Year	Urban	Rural	Total
1984	381 944	530 217	912 161
Percentage	4,9%	58,1%	100%
2000	711 000	427 000	1 138 000
Percentage	62,5%	37,5%	100%

(Source: Directorate of Planning, 1985b Swart 1983)

Bauer and Yamey (1968) state that the activities of traders (including those that deal in fruits and vegetables) and their extension of marketing facilities encourage an increase in production for home consumption and entice an increased number of small scale farmers into the money economy. Bauer and Yamey (1968) also feel they have extended the area of the exchange economy and have provided increasing numbers of people with the opportunities, means and incentives to improve their material well being. Abbot (1984) feels that these private entrepreneurs, if given the chance, are likely to accelerate the pace of development.

A leading newspaper in the region The Daily Dispatch (1995) in an editorial, recognises the following impacts: hawking does not only promote a much-needed spirit of entrepreneurship and healthy competition, it also provides a source of income to many who would otherwise be unemployed in an economically depressed region. Additionally, it offers a variety of alternatives at cheaper prices to cash-strapped consumers and adds a new vibrancy to the atmosphere of a city centre, which has long been in danger of fading away.

The vendors belong to the informal sector, which is a heterogeneous set of productive activities that share the common feature of employing a number of people. These people are unable to find jobs in the modern sector and must generate their own employment with relatively little access to the factors of production that complement labour supply (Mezera, 1981).

This group is made up of the surplus labour forces i.e. those who are not absorbed in the formal labour market and have to find alternative ways to survive and generate income (Placencia, 1985). According to Escobar (1986) they play a key role in the distribution of agricultural products and reproduction of the labour force by generating income for the vendors. This sector also complements the formal sector production and commerce, because they constitute a great network that allows formal distributors to avoid expenditures on infrastructure, transportation, labour and other costs needed for the circulation of commodities. Their activities allow rapid circulation, which indirectly favours faster turnover of capital, thus increasing formal sector profits and accumulation.

2.3.3. General characteristics of hawkers

Hawkers form part of the informal sector, which is generated out of a need to survive, vis-vis the lack of an alternative in the shape of a formal sector job (Placentia, 1994). According to Hugon (undated) statistically they form part of the set of activities that fall outside empirical means of investigations. They consist of producers working without a fixed location, who do not pay licenses or taxes, are excluded from social regulations and or keep no accounts.

Among others, they are more flexible and informal. They are self-employed, combining the roles of worker, manager and owner in a single individual; relations with suppliers, clients and the state are informal or hard to pinpoint. They lack contracts and their hours of operation are flexible. Most combine different activities in one i.e. they sell different farm produce following seasonal changes.

Business tends towards discontinuity, variability and flexibility due to lack of capital. They use time simultaneously for domestic and business needs and do not observe legal conventions. They have lower educational attainments and generally higher illiteracy rates. Some have no fixed location and use of market stalls is rare. Products are domestically produced or acquired through wholesale middlemen. Most of the time they buy on a daily or weekly basis and have a limited scale of operation therefore do not require intensive labour.

Access to credit is limited and they depend on moneylenders, friends, relatives and fellow hawkers as sources of credit or financial bailouts. They are dispersed extensively therefore difficult to mobilise into organisations. They lack entrepreneurial or management skills and follow market principle of convenient location and quick service. They may generally sell for less because they are able to bypass development and promotion expense, Bird *et al* (1981). This creates the problem of free riding or surviving at the expense of the big guns in retailing.

2.4 SUMMARY

The majority of participants in the South African informal sector rely on goods produced by others. About 1.7 million people are engaged in this sector and accounts for 76% of all businesses in South Africa. The sector handles nearly 33% of the disposable income of all Blacks employed in the formal sector.

Hawking in the region has existed since time immemorial. Whites dominated the sector initially in the late 19th century but Blacks form the majority currently. The majority in this sector are distributors of food including fruits and vegetables and very few are in manufacturing. People see the informal sector as a fertile ground and a source of employment in the absence of formal job openings. The Eastern Cape has the second largest number of people working in the informal sector and this trend is on the increase.

The people involved are very modest in their operations. They provide goods in affordable quantities to their clients who cannot buy in bulk. They also occupy a very strategic point in the marketing chain as the link between wholesalers and consumers.

Through their activities, jobs are created and income is earned. These provide livelihoods for several households and contribute to the general economic development, growth and better standards of living. Their activities compliment the formal sector and also serve the need of the poor. Despite their relevance in the marketing chain and their economic impact, they are handicapped in numerous ways, which impede progress and sustainability. The factors that influence business success should be reinforced to enhance the sector.

CHAPTER THREE
OVERVIEW OF STUDY AREA

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The central region of the Eastern Cape, which is the focus of this study, has important nodal points, amongst which are: - East London-Mdantsane, King William's Town-Bisho, Zwelitsha, Alice, Dimbaza, Middledrift etc. (Fig 3.1). The study concentrated mostly on these nodal points. This chapter provides an overview of the study area using information obtained from Horn *et al* (1995). It also looks at role incentives and the need to achieve as a motivational force in the promotion of entrepreneurship.

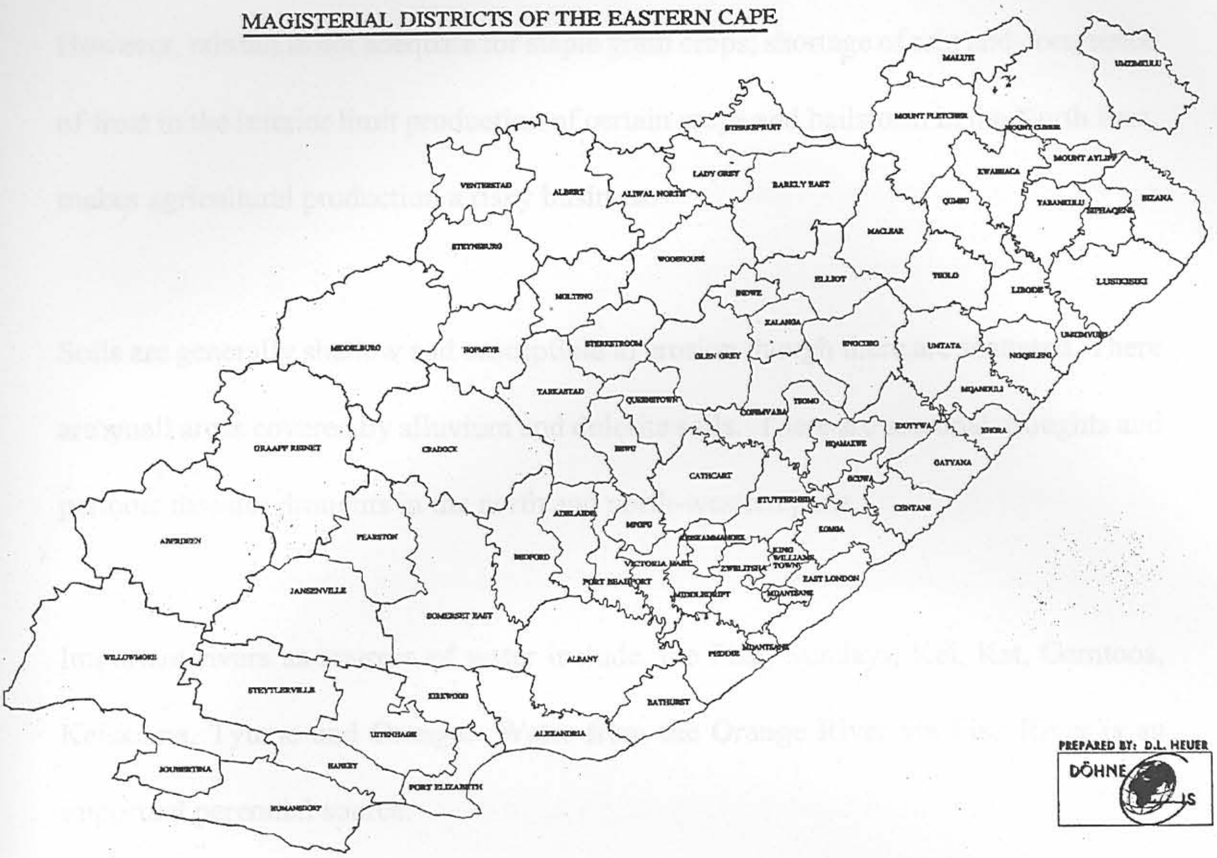
3.2 LOCATION

The Eastern Cape is located on the South Eastern seaboard of South Africa. It encompasses the traditional East Cape, the former Ciskei and Transkei (Fig 3.1). The Northern boundaries are Lesotho and the Free State. The western boundaries are the Western and Northern Cape and the South is bounded by the Indian Ocean. The region has a land area of 170,616 square kilometres or 13,6 % of the total area of South Africa.

3.3 TOPOGRAPHY CLIMATE AND AGRICULTURE

The region has a heterogeneous topography which limits development in a number of ways e.g. tillage is restricted by steep slopes, two parallel escarpments pose a serious traffic obstacle in terms of road development, it also has a share in the uneven distribution of rainfall.

Figure 3.1: Magisterial Districts of the Eastern Cape (Source: Dohne Agricultural



Research Station (GIS), 1999).

Both summer and winter rainfalls occur along the coast, and recedes towards the interior, which receives maximum summer rainfall. This rain is made ineffective by thunderstorms.

Temperatures range from moderately hot summers and moderate winters along the coast to moderately hot summers to cool moderate winters in the interior. Regular snowfalls occur in the highlands and the entire region in winter. Heavy frost occurs along the coastal strip between June and October. Specific climatic influences on development are: absence of climatic extremes encourages human habitation in the coastal areas; macro climatic factors have a natural limiting influence on air pollution; rainfall distribution, nature and quantity allow cultivation of a reasonable variety of agricultural crops.

However, rainfall is not adequate for staple grain crops; shortage of rain and occurrence of frost in the interior limit production of certain crops and hailstorm in the North East, makes agricultural production a risky business.

Soils are generally shallow and susceptible to erosion though there are scattered. There are small areas covered by alluvium and dolerite soils. There are seasonal droughts and periodic disaster droughts in the north and north-western parts.

Important rivers as sources of water include, the Fish, Sundays, Kei, Kat, Gamtoos, Keiskama, Tyume and Orange. Water from the Orange River via Fish River is an important perennial source.

The coastal areas occasionally experience floods, especially in the Gamtoos and Langkloof river valleys, which hamper farming. Irrigation potential in the region is fairly high but insufficient water prevents the realisation of developing this to its full potential. The region stretches from the coastal (with high agricultural potential) into grassland and Karoo landscape in the west. This results in different agricultural facets being found.

The contribution of agriculture to the gross geographic product of the region (excluding Transkei and Ciskei) has varied between 6% and 20% over the past twenty years (Levin, *et al,* 1992). According to Antrobus, *et al,* (1994) agriculture has over the same period.

consistently maintained its ranking as sixth most important sector behind manufacturing; community services; transport, storage and communication; trading and financial services. The region is not a great cropping area although it is important for specific horticultural crops in particular districts. The majority of vegetable production takes place in the Gamtoos river valley. Vegetables are also grown on large irrigation projects in Tyefu in the Ciskei and Ncora and Qamata in the Transkei. Increased production in the region in the future is predicted in the areas of citrus and vegetables (Antrobus, *et al,* 1994). This is supported by findings from a study of irrigation potential of the region by (Kassier *et al.,* 1988). They predict that by the year 2010 the area for production of vegetables and citrus under irrigation would increase to 28 060 ha. Predicted increase in production in fruits and vegetables in the region is an indication of constant supplies and probable increase in number of traders in this sector.

3.4 GENERAL

Using the yardstick of those having attained a standard 5 qualification, the literacy level of Blacks and Coloureds is lower than that of Whites though considerable increase has been experienced in recent times, and there is indication that it will improve in future to increase the supply of skilled labour. This would however, have to go with the creation of jobs to accommodate new entrants, bearing in mind that education has a very significant impact on the employability of workers. The relatively young Black population implies future rapid population growth and more job seekers entering the labour market annually (Horn *et al* 1995).

Agriculture, mining and trade sectors are responsible for about 50 % of employment, with service sectors taking about 37 %. Supply of highly skilled labour in the region is low; furthermore, the region reflects a high percentage of unemployment compared to the general picture in South Africa. The high level of unemployment could be ascribed to the Todaro effect, that perceptions regarding availability of jobs may induce approximately 3 workers to migrate to an area for every single job available. Above average unemployment rates are due to high population growth and lack of economic expansion. The region has comparative advantages in agriculture, manufacturing and transport, implying that they are the major employment creators. However, the absorption capacity of the economy is low, i.e. it is unable to provide for all its workers (both local and migrant workers) - (Data D 1995).

Income and health are interrelated and reinforce one another. People's main income sources are formal and informal sources, pensions and other social transfers, remittances and unreliable marginal sector income (Data D 1995). Per capita income of R1 400 is the second lowest to that of Northern Transvaal (i.e. R725) and below the national average. From the foregoing, fewer strengths and more weaknesses of the region have been highlighted.

According to (DBSA, 1994) the Eastern Cape has for long been at the bottom of the scale in terms of human development in South Africa. This is especially visible in the former Ciskei and Transkei (most parts are in the present central region of Eastern Cape) where there is evidence of deteriorating socio-economic conditions, which inevitably adversely affect economic and human development.

It is therefore not strange from the above premise that the majority have taken the initiative to develop themselves.

According to Horn *et al,* (995) people should be able to participate fully and decisively in the creation of better life chances for themselves. Before this is achieved, entrepreneurship must be stimulated as it is an important factor of production and an often-neglected need of development. People who decided not to wait for manna from heaven need to have a string of unique qualities amongst which are: willingness to take risks, make decisions and manage the production process as well as an innovative approach to problems to produce new and successful products. But socio-economic conditions play an important role in the emergence of entrepreneurs e.g. low income, poor health and inadequate education are abundant in the region. How to turn this around in favour of emerging entrepreneurs is an integral part of this work. With incentives these vendors can succeed in their business.

3.5 SUMMARY

The climate, despite its limitations allows the cultivation of a variety of agricultural crops including fruits and vegetables. Expansion in the production of fruits and vegetables is predicted. This will ensure constant supplies and a probable increase in the number of traders in the future.

Unemployment is a big problem in the region. More Blacks are getting educated but the job market is not expanding. This has disastrous consequences for the region in the future. The main income sources are government welfare grants, remittances and unreliable formal and informal sources.

Self-initiated income-generating ventures (e.g. hawking in fruits and vegetables) are needed as a partial solution to the unemployment problem. The initiative found in these vendors has to be encouraged, improved and increased. With this achieved, their relevance in the marketing chain would be more enhanced to impact favourably on the region's economy.

CHAPTER FOUR

HAWKER ACTIVITIES IN THE REGION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This work had an in-depth look at the marketing activities of hawkers or vendors of fruits and vegetables with the aim of helping to uplift this sector of micro enterprising. It has its setting in the central region of Eastern Cape Province with East London as its regional capital.

These traders engage in the distributive function of marketing to achieve the objective of making a living. The function comprises a number of activities from sourcing of products till the goods reached the final consumer. How these activities are organised in relation to the objective of making a profit to augment their living are investigated in this chapter.

4.2 DEMOGRAPHICS OF THE SAMPLE

A sample of one hundred and twenty respondents (vendors of fruits and vegetables) was randomly selected from the nodal points (Table 4.1) and where they were mostly concentrated in the region to form the core for this study. A hawker is firstly identified and urged to spare with to spare some time with the interviewer. The aim of the study was explained, followed by the actual interview. Usually the Hawkers willingly co-operated.

The survey revealed that more people are engaged in the trade around the cities and big towns e.g. East London, King Williams Town-Bisho and Mdantsane. The numbers diminished as you moved away from the big towns.

There were more women (89,1 % of total respondents) than men (10,9 % of respondents) in the trade. This trend could be attributed to the migration of men to the mining areas as well as the fact that men found it too demeaning to engage in a business regarded as a woman's job.

The economically active and the younger generation are involved in the trade because the overall average age of respondents from the three nodal points was 32,6 years. The Eastern Cape is predominantly a Xhosa region therefore it is not surprising that there were more Xhosas (92,5%) than any other group involved in the trade. The remainder of respondents spoke other languages and was more concentrated around the cities. This is due to the fact that people from other regions or provinces did not find it a fertile ground for job hunting. More information about the sample is shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.2 indicates the educational levels of respondents. Those with no schooling (8.3%) were found in the areas far away from cities, probably becausethey were not endowed and active enough to compete with the young.

Table 4.1: Demographics of the sample (n = 120)

Nodal Points	East - London		KingWilliam'sTown /Bisho		Alice - Middledrift	
Number of respondents	50		48		22	
Gender	M	F	M	F	M	F
	6	44	6	42	21	1
Average age of respondent		32.6		31.1		34.1
Language	X	OT	X	OT	X	OT
	44	6	45	3	22	0

NB: M= Male; F= Female; OT= Other Language and X= Xhosa

There were numerous other reasons given. These included " no jobs, hunger, money to support family, a way of living, to pay school fees, to develop interest in own business, to live, loss of job". As depicted by the above, unemployment and the need to survive play a pivotal role in the influx and the choice of petty trading of fruits and vegetables. Moreover, the capital outlay to start is not much compared to other businesses.

Table 4.2: Educational Levels of Respondents (n = 120)

Rating	Frequency (%)	Cumulative (%)
1. No schooling	10 (8.3)	10
2. Lower primary	25 (20.8)	35
3. Higher primary	35 (29.2)	70
4. Junior Secondary	20 (16.7	90
5. Senior Secondary	20 (16.7)	110
6. Tertiary	10 (8.3)	120
TOTAL	n = 120 (100)	n = 120

4.3 TRADING SITES

The hawkers are mostly located around taxi ranks to target commuters. Another point where they concentrate is on city centre pavements to attract pedestrians. They are also concentrated near big shopping centres and parking lots in order to target customers with small change and those who have forgotten to buy certain items from the shop. Other popular spots are railway stations, private and government clinics, hospitals, schools and along national roads.

4.4 SOURCING OF PRODUCTS

For any industry to survive and sustain itself it would need regular supplies of raw materials. The hawkers obtain their products from the East London National Fresh Produce Market (ELNFPM). This market is located in Wilsonia, an industrial suburb of the greater East London municipality. The market survives on the activities of assemblers such as Packer-shippers through buying agents and field harvest crews. The market also depends on other provinces for supplies of items such as bananas (from Natal) apples and grapes (Cape Town) potatoes (Orange Free State and Transvaal) and others from as far as Johannesburg.

Supplies from the market stretch as far as Butterworth, Idutywa and Umtata in the East of the central region; King William's Town, Bisho, Dimbaza, Debe-Nek, Middledrift, Alice and Fort Beaufort in the centre, Peddie and its environs and Stuterheim. In the immediate environs of the market are places like East London city, Mdantsane and Berlin.

Other sources of supply for these traders are farmers around the urban fringes, truckloads, Indian and Greek merchants. Transportation problems coupled with long distances to and from farms increase their reliance on the market. The merchants mentioned above were not very prominent sources because of exploitation and increased cost, resulting in reduced profits. This also showed the prominence of the market as a major sourcing point. Though there are varieties of products at the market, the products sold by the hawkers are restricted to products such as: potatoes, tomatoes, onions, apples, bananas, pumpkins, butternuts, cabbage, pears, peas, peaches, green peppers, carrots, spinach, lettuce, pineapples and grapes depending on the seasons. The restriction is mainly due to the type of customer and their needs. The restriction has also led to specialisation i.e. selling only 2 - 3 items in relatively large quantities. Some items are more traded in than others for various reasons. The feeding habits of customers dictated most of the items sold. Tomatoes, onions and potatoes featured prominently because they are used daily in most households. Others were spinach, cabbage, pumpkins and butternuts which more or less complement "paapa" (a local food prepared from maize).

Despite the high perishability of these products, faster movement due to high demand triggered by eating habits counted more than anything else. Chillies are never seen on the stands since they do not play major role in the diet of the majority of households. (This will further be discussed in chapter six).

The East London Market is one of fifteen national markets in South Africa. The Municipal Council, the Director of Markets and his administrative staff run the market.

This market has four market commission agents namely: AA Market Agency, Martin and Scheepers Agency, Gordon Wall Agency and Subtropico Agency. Other subsidiary agents are Umtiza Foods and Border Farmers. There are other components like Naspal (for pallets), T & J (for packaging, supply of boxes and plastics), Engen Depot (for fuel needs) and Banks (monetary transactions). There are also ripening chambers for fast ripening of some fruits, especially bananas, and cooling rooms for storage. It was established to take some of the burden off farmers in the distribution of products.

4.5 TRANSPORTATION

Without transportation goods and services would be stuck and would not get to their destinations from production points. Marx and Van der Walt (1989) state that, for products to move from producer to consumer and due to the geographical separation of the two parties above, place and time utility have to be created through transportation. They are of the opinion that transportation makes goods available at the proper place at the right time and encompasses preparations like crating and shipment.

Kohls and Uhl (1990) described transportation as a creator and preserver of the value of products, links several producers, is the cornerstone of modern food marketing system and influences both the numerator and denominator of marketing efficiency. It plays a key role in market development, expansion and competition and influences other marketing functions and decisions. They also recognise the fact that the biological and bulky nature of farm products make special demands on the transportation system, e.g. perishables require rapid transportation and refrigeration over long distances.

Alderson, (Undated) stipulates that transportation and communication systems arise to bridge the distance between buyer and seller in time to create utility for both. He goes further to say that goods are associated for transportation because of physical handling characteristics and common origin and destination. This was confirmed by the heavy reliance on the market as the main supplier stemming from among other factors, the convenience (getting all products from one supplier and relatively low prices). Proximity and delivery are secondary factors because most (> 60%) used hired transport (available at the market) and own transport (10%).

A breakdown of means of transportation (Fig 4.1) to and from the market showed that the majority of respondents used hired transport, especially small 'bakkies' (relatively cheaper because of shared costs and speed in getting to the selling points). For example: a group of ten vendors will hire a truck or bakkie for between R75 to R200 (depending on distance and the load). Those in the trade for part-time purposes and extra income rely on their own means of transport. A few use trains (12%) and taxis (12%) for the purpose of carting their goods but trains and taxis are extensively used for commuting purposes. A very small number go on foot and use wheelbarrows to transport their goods. This group normally sells few items and they depend on truckloads and Indian or Greek merchants for supplies. The location traders depend on buses.

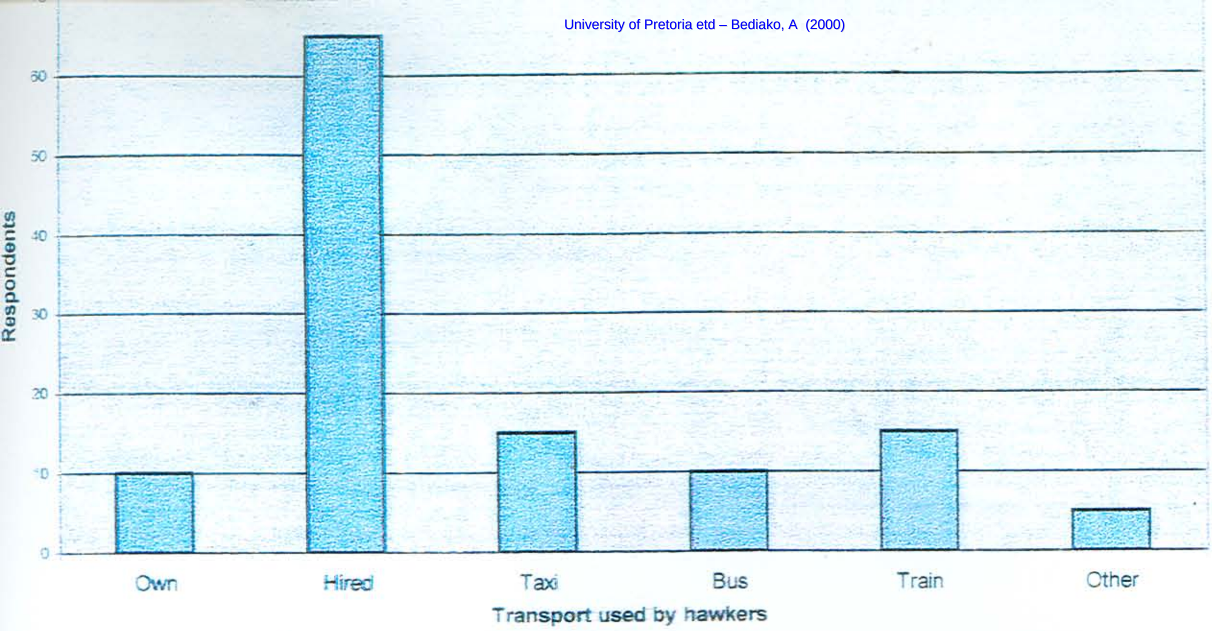


Figure 4.1: Means of transport used by hawkers

4.6 PACKAGING, HANDLING AND STORAGE

McCarthy and Perreault (1990) see storage as holding goods until customers need them. It involves holding and preserving products from the time of their production until their sale (Stanton and Futrell, 1989). Marx and van der Walt (1989) recognise storage as an activity to bridge the time gap and provide the consumer with time utility. This is because the demand for some products and the production of others are unstable. For example the demand for agricultural products might be more steady than their production, which is largely seasonal for fruit and vegetables. Storage makes goods available at the right time, which may include the holding of supplies of finished goods as the inventories of processors, wholesalers and retailers (Kohls and Uhls, 1990).

According to the same authors, this activity is an important source of value in the food industry, where supply and demand are seldom in immediate balance.

It helps to bridge the time gap between periodic harvest and marketing and relatively stable consumption of food on a year round basis. It also helps to keep the marketing pipeline in capacity operation, and prevents supply disruptions for the convenience and efficiency of the consumer and the marketer. Storage can be provided by many, e.g. the farmer, the commercial storage operator, the food processor, and the speculator or vendor.

According to Tomek and Robinson (1990) storage can stabilise prices but not for perishable farm products, unless the production or delivery of supplies in large crop years to secondary markets and the importation in short crop years are controlled. This is confirmed by Kohls and Uhl (1990), who state that each level of the marketing system tries to push much of the storage function to another middleman in the system and where retailers especially struggle to hold inventories at the lowest level consistent with serving their customers.

The situation with fruits and vegetables is worse considering their fast deterioration and the associated cost. It needs innovations. There are numerous countless cost cutting innovations in agricultural marketing. For example, canned fruits and vegetables, frozen foods and processed foods, dehydrofrozen fruits and vegetables. There is also low temperature freezing for melons and avocados, fluidised-bed freezing for beans and peas, diced potato, dehydration or foam-mat drying for citrus and tomato, freeze drying (applying heat and removing water) explosive puffing in fruit berry and vegetable drying, and reverse osmosis Bird *et al* (undated).

Storage as identified by Kohls and Uhl (1990) will always be expensive and complex, but cannot be eliminated; rather its cost has to be reduced through decreased storage activities and operational efficiency. They identify five categories of storage cost, viz, the cost of maintenance and provision of storage facilities; interest on financial investment of product while in store; the cost of quality deterioration and shrinkage; loss from poor consumer acceptance of stored as against the fresh product, and the risk that prices might unexpectedly fall. Reducing such costs would mean increasing the productivity of storage facilities through increased labour efficiency, by reorganisation of handling methods and redesigned mechanisation. For example, the increase in storage capacity of a given area such as use of pallet storage, ventilation and insulation, which allows simultaneously cold and non-refrigerated storage. Management techniques, e.g. fewer goods kept on hand at retail and wholesale levels, daily ordering and in fast moving goods, can also reduce cost.

Deterioration is reduced through quality control, e.g. potato sprout inhibitor, better harvesting methods to reduce bruises and cuts, use of polythene liners in boxes for apples and pears, antibiotic chemicals and irradiation. From the foregoing, it can be seen that the main threat to profit margins and therefore sustainablility of the business as a whole. How do these vendors cope? What measures in terms of storage and other handling processes have they put in place to combat spoilage and subsequent undue losses?

Some of the means of storage may be too expensive and out of the reach of these vendors considering their scale of operation. This notwithstanding, they have their humble means of storage amongst which were buying daily in clearable quantities so that goods do not stay with them for long periods. They also buy hard and firm skinned fruits or non-overripe and green fruits to retard deterioration. In sunny weather they protect their products by placing them in the shade or they punch holes in the plastic containers for good ventilation. Unsold goods in plastic bag are unpacked and re-arranged in ventilated boxes at the end of each day. Leafy products like spinach were constantly watered or the bunches placed in a bowl of water to prolong freshness or to delay wilting. They also use some of the unsold goods for home consumption. Despite this, they still suffer losses through spoilage. Other cost-effective means are imperative to cut losses. These will be discussed further in chapter six.

4.7 DISPLAY OF WARES

The retail store according to Marx and Van der Walt (1989) is a machine, which should be designed to display, house and sell merchandise. The means of display by the vendors is not like a store in the above sense, but is rather inexpensive and non-elaborate. They adopt the "open market system" (Fig 4.2) scattered all over at places deemed convenient by them. The components of the "store" were the road side or similar points, the floor with a sheet of cloth or mat, or a table to display goods, a chair to sit on, a big umbrella or raincoat (in few instances) for the hazards of the weather.

They deal in assorted fruits and vegetables, which are either retained in their original containers and boxes from the source or re-sorted in transparent polythene bags in smaller quantities.

The table or the floor is imaginarily divided to accommodate the same products e.g. tomatoes or spinach or onions occupy the same portions on the trading floor. This sort of arrangement is not only appealing but attracts attention. They do not normally use large spaces because of the congested nature of places they trade in, e.g. busy main streets, entrances to bigger shops and around taxi ranks.

These places suit them most because they capitalise on the congestion to catch the eyes of numerous commuters and pedestrians for their products. For example, as described by one vendor and as reflected by majority opinion, "I want to be in the customers' sight when I display my goods because there is no business in the quiet places". The use of transparent polythene bags to repack adds to calling the attention of the passers-by because the customer can see what is being displayed.

Figure 4.2:Display of wares

In certain areas in East London, King William's Town and Bisho, hawkers for various reasons have neglected sites with permanent structures.

(a) Hoboes and certain individuals who, according to the hawkers, render such places dangerous to trade in because they use such points as drinking and sleeping places.

(b) There are no public toilets in the immediate vicinity of their trading positions.

(c) Some points have been turned into public places of convenience resulting in an offensive odour.

(d) Some of these places were too remote.

To increase sales through display of merchandise, some displayed their wares on their heads and in their hands in small trays and boxes and go to the customer e.g. in stores, offices and those already seated in taxis and buses which were about to set off.

Vendors start displaying their wares from as early as seven o'clock in the morning. The early sellers especially those around big shops, take advantage of the late opening (9 am) of such shops to get some of their customers who are equally early but too impatient to wait. Displays continue until seven in the evening around shops because the shops close early. Business continues till late evenings around the hectic taxi ranks to catch late shoppers and commuters. Hawker numbers are reduced during the early and late hours. Traders who are early or stay late make substantial sales at the start or close of business.

4.8 PRICING MECHANISMS, RETURNS AND PROFIT MARGINS

The role of prices in marketing cannot be overemphasised, because they are the determinants of allocation of resources and reward or penalise performance. Prices determine compensation for productive factors, direct and limit or ration consumption (Hunt *et al,* undated). They observes that, in its determination for goods, the final price is via direct costs, overheads and profit margins.

Market prices at the point of purchase by vendors were generally determined and influenced by demand and supply and a host of other factors (Appendix C). For example the supply of some products are affected by the seasons. Some products are available throughout the year. Cabbages are available throughout the year but at different prices for different months.

For example a punnet (0,5 kg) of cabbage at the East London Market (ELM) was sold at R1.84 in May and R0.94 in September 1996. Daily prices at the ELM were also influenced by the average daily prices in cents per kilogram (Appendix B). For example, on the 11th of July 1996, the price of grade II medium potato ranged between R0.62 and R0.75 per kilogram at the ELM.

The above and other factors influenced price determination by these vendors. Traders consider most of the relevant factors to pricing but to different degrees of importance. All vendors (100 %) saw profit as a major pricing factor. Other factors were quality (67.2 %;) prices of others (29 %;) supply and demand (35 %) and influence of the time of the day (8 %). (NB: some factors were ticked more than once by several vendors therefore percentage does not add up to a hundred).

From the above, it can be deduced that they all have the profit motive and to achieve this, they have to sell quality products. In their methods to arrive at the desired profitability, judgement, common sense and pragmatism rather than complex theoretical pricing means prevail. They unpack contents from their original containers, for example, (tomatoes from boxes, onions from bags etc). The counting of contents follows this. On the average a box of medium sized tomatoes (5 kg) depending on size has 50 fruits, a bag of potatoes (10 kg) grade I medium Cape has 70 tubers etc. The commodities regularly sold by vendors, units or weight and prices are shown in Table 4.3.

Through the practice of unpacking, counting and re-packaging, a box of tomato (5 kg) produced 8.5 units in East London, 10.2 units and 12.7 units in King William's Town and Alice respectively. These units, multiplied by selling prices at various trading sites yield different gross incomes. For example 8.5 units multiplied by R2 yields R17 gross income in East London 10.2 X R3 = R30.6 in King William's Town, 12.7 X R3 = R38.1 in Alice. The gross income compared to the selling price at the ELM reveal, various gross profits, it was R17-R7.60 = R9.40 for the tomato hawker in East London etc. Other factors would have to be taken into account to arrive at net profits. As shown in Table 4.3, vendors closer to the main source (ELM) sell bigger units for a lesser amount of money and vice versa.

Their units are on the average usually less than a kilogram. Price per unit is less in East London compared to King William's Town and Alice. Prices increase with distances further away from East London. Prices virtually remain the same for most of the commodities throughout the year, for example it was R2 on the average per pack in East London and R3 or R3.50 per pack in King William's Town and Alice. But contents per pack decrease or slightly increase at certain times of the year depending on availability or supply of the commodity. While hawkers maintain the same prices, suppliers' prices fluctuated greatly. More than 85 % admit to frequent price changes at the market. Asked if they charged the same prices at trading sites their responses were: [never (4) 3.3 %; always (86) 71.6 %; at times (13) 10.3 % and don't know (17) 14.2 %].

As to what they did when consumers complained about their prices, they responded as follow: lower prices (7) 5.8 %; same price (110) 91.6 % and pay amount they had (3) 2.5 %. Most of the traders (75) 62.5 % felt consumers were always satisfied with their prices. Some traders (25%) indicated that consumers were only satisfied at certain times while 4.2% indicated that customers were not satisfied. Some made high sales judging by the ranges shown in Table 4.4. As revealed in Table 4.5, profits were always made (depending on if a product was sold) though less in some cases (tomato) and very high in others (cabbage). Where profits were low, they were augmented by the high profits of others since almost all vendors (85%) at one particular time sold a diversity of products as shown in Table 4.5.

Column eleven of Table 4.5 shows gross profits for the average packs of products sold on a normal day. The net profit per day or month can be estimated based on certain assumptions:

(a)	Transport (shared cost) to and from fruit market	= R10.00
(b)	Transport (to & from) home	= R8.00
(c)	Packaging (using 30 out 60 sachets at R7.00/60 sachets)	= R3.50
(d)	Food Cost	= R10.00
	Total cost or expenses per day	**= R31.50**

Table 4.3: Popular commodities sold, average units per pack, weight and prices from three nodal points. August 1996

	East London Market (ELM)		East London			King Williams Town			Alice			**Retail shop
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Commodity	Unit/container Average	Price/kg ®	Units/pack	Weight/pack (kg)	Price/pack ®	Units/pack	Weight/pack (kg)	Price/pack ®	Units/pack	Weight/pack (kg)	Price/pack ®	Price/kg ®
Tomatoes (10 kg Medium)	51 (fruits)	1.52	6	0.83	2.00	5	0.69	3.00	4	0.55	3.00	3.98
Onions (10kg Med.)	70 (bulbs)	0.77	7	1.00	2.00	7	1.00	3.00	5	0.71	3.00	2.98
Cabbage (26kg)	10 (heads)	0.23	1	2.60	3.00	1	2.60	3.50	1	2.60	3.00	2.91
Pumpkins (7kg)	1(fruit)	2.68	1/6	1.2	3.00	1/6	1.2	3.50	1/6	1.2	4.00	2.21
Butternut (13kg)	14 gourd	0.83	1	1.1	2.00	1	1.1	3.00	1	1.1	3.00	2.41
Potatoes (10 kg Med. Cape)	70(tubers)	0.83	7	1.00	2.50	6	0.85	3.00	5	0.71	3.00	2.98
Apples (11 kg other var.)	128 (fruits)	1.23	6	0.51	2.00	5	0.43	3.00	4	0.34	3.00	2.33
Banana (20 kg)	100 (fingers)	1.47	5	1.00	2.00	4	0.80	3.00	4.00	0.80	3.00	2.74
*Orange (7kg) Large	30 (fruits)	0.88	30	7.00	8.00	30	7.00	7.00	30	7.00	4.50	7.50/7kg bag

*Oranges were normally unpacked by hawkers, and they moved from Kat River (Fort Beaufort) to the coast (East London) all other commodities moved from East London to the interior.

** Retail shop refers to formal outlets (Checkers, Spar and Pick 'n Pay) in the nodal points.

Table 4.3 shows popular commodities sold, average units per pack and prices from the three nodal points. For example, a five-kilogram box of medium tomato contains an average of 51 fruits. The price at the East London market is R 1.52/kg. Hawkers in East London re-packed and sold 6- units/pack weighing 0.83kg for R 2.00. In King Williams Town, 5-units/ pack (0.69 kg) sold for R 3.00 and in Alice 4 units / pack (0.55kg) sold for R 3.00.

A kg of medium tomato sold for R 3.98/kg in the formal outlets in the same month.

The total cost price of trading stock is equal to R36.51 on a normal day (i.e. total of column 10 in Table 4.5.) All cost on a normal day is R68.01 (i.e. R 31.50 plus R36.51) and total income for the same day is R115.50 (i.e. the total of column 9 in Table 4.5. A typical trader's net profit on a normal day is R47.49 (i.e. R 115.50 minus R 68.01). If a trader works for twenty five days in a month *ceteris paribus,* this translates into a monthly income of R 1187. 25.

Profits can been estimated based on quantities sold on "least, normal and busy days' of popular products as shown in Table 4.4. All commodities are re-bagged in smaller polythene sachets except cabbage, which is sold as single heads. On average, they sell more potatoes and cabbage, followed by onions, tomato and fruit (apples, bananas and pears) the least popular on any day. From Table 4.5, returns or profit margins can be estimated (using ELM market prices and East London hawkers as a test case). Estimated gross profits are shown in Table 4.5. The price per kilogram of various commodities at the East London market is compared in (Table 4.6) with the price of the same weight in retail shops and hawkers in the three nodal points. The hawkers sell at lower prices for some products (tomato, onion, cabbage, potato, butternut and banana) and slightly higher in others (pumpkins and oranges) than the retail shop. The price per kilogram charged by hawkers for most of the products in the remaining nodal points are generally higher than what prevails in the retail shops.

Table 4.4: Quantities of popular commodities sold on least, normal & busy days

Commodity	Least Average (Range) (Packs)	Normal Average (Range) (Packs)	Busy Average (Range) (Packs)
Onions	3 (0-8)	6 (2-20)	9 (6-30)
Tomato	3 (0-7)	4 (2-10)	14 (1-50)
Cabbage (heads)	9 (1-70)	16 (2-80)	28 (3-100)
Potato	9 (1-40)	15 (2-60)	40 (18-120)
Apples	2 (1-5)	3 (1-8)	5 (2-10)
Banana	2 (1-6)	2 (1-6)	

NB: For convenience only popular or common commodities sold by vendors are used in this table. In the above table quantities of popular commodities sold on least, normal and busy days are shown. An average of 3 packs of onions was sold on a least day with a range of 0-8 packs. Six and nine packs were sold on normal and busy days respectively.

As shown in Table 4.6, there are differences in price per kilogram (all products) at the source of supply and that charged by retailers. When certain basic costs incurred by vendors (cost of purchase of goods, transport, packaging and feeding) are considered, it can be concluded that these traders, provided total stock is sold, always make profits.

Table 4.5: Estimated gross profits of selected commodities on least, normal and busy days in the East-London area

	LEAST DAY						NORMAL DAY					BUSY DAY				
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Commodities	Average sold (Packs)	*Weight (kg) Packs	**Price Pack ®	Total Income ® (1x3)	*** SQIM ®	Gross Profit ® (4-5)	Average Sold (Packs)	* Weight (kg) Packs	Total Income ® (7x3)	*** PSQIM ®	Gross Profit (9-10)	Average Sold (Packs)	*Weight /(kg) Packs	Total Income (12x3)	*** PSQIM ®	Gross Profit (14-15)
Onions	3	3.00	2.00	6.00	2.31	3.69	6	6.00	12.00	4.62	7.38	9	9	18.00	6.93	11.00
Tomatoes	3	2.49	2.00	6.00	3.80	2.20	4	3.32	8.00	5.05	2.95	14	11.62	28.00	17.66	10.33
Cabbage (head)	9	23.40	3.00	27.00	5.38	21.62	16	41.60	48.00	9.57	38.43	28	72.80	84.00	16.74	67.26
Potatoes	9	9.00	2.50	22.50	7.47	15.03	15	15.00	37.50	12.45	25.05	40	40.00	100.00	33.20	66.80
Apples	2	1.02	2.00	4.00	1.25	2.75	3	1.53	6.00	1.88	4.12	5	2.55	10.00	3.14	6.86
Banana	2	2.00	2.00	4.00	2.94	1.06	2	2.00	4.00	2.94	1.06	5	5.00	10.00	7.35	2.65

* Derived from column five in table 4.3 (i.e C5 in Table 4.3 multiplied by averages sold on least, normal and busy days in table 4.5.

** Derived from Column 6 in table 4.3 (i.e. Price/pack in East London)

*** PSQIM (Price for same quantity in market) = Column 3 (table 4.3) multiplied by column 8 (table 4.5) or price per kg at ELM (table 4.3) Multiplied by column 2 (least) or column 8 normal or column 13 (busy)

Average sold - derived from Table 4.4

Table 4.6: Differences in price per kg between the East London market and hawkers/retailers (1996)

	1	2	3	4	5
	East London		Hawkers in		
COMMODITY	market *Price/kg ®	Retail shop **Price/kg ®	East London ***Price/kg ®	King William's Town ***Price/kg ®	Alice ***Price/kg ®
Tomatoes (5kg Med.)	1.52	3.98	2.40	4.34	5.45
Onion (10kg Med.)	0.77	2.98	2.00	3.00	3.00
Cabbage (26kg)	0.23	2.91	1.15	1.34	1.15
Pumpkins (7kg each)	2.68	13.26	18.00	21.00	24.00
Butternut (13kg)	0.83	2.41	1.82	2.72	2.72
Potato (10 kg Med. Cape) July	0.83	2.98	2.50	3.52	4.23
Apples (11 kg other var.)	1.23	1.33	3.92	6.98	8.82
Banana (20 kg)	1.47	2.74	2.00	3.75	3.75
Orange (7kg) Large	0.88	1.07	1.14	1.00	0.64

*Actual price per kg on the East London Market

**Average price per kg in retail shops (Checkers, Spar and Pick 'n' Pay) in the nodal points from (Table 4.3)

***Price per kg of Hawkers derived from table 4.3 (for example 0.83 kg of tomato = R 2.00 therefore 1 kg = R 2.40 e.t.c.

4.9 COMPETITION AMONGST TRADERS

The majority of respondents (71,6 %) admit to charging the same price. The remainder (24,6 %) were divided between never (3, 3 %); at times (10,3 %) and don't know (14,2 %). Generally prices among traders in the same vicinity did not differ for most of the products. Kohls and Uhl (1990) state that in a competitive market, there should be the freedom of buyers and sellers to bargain together and arrive at mutually advantageous exchanges. They further state that, in a perfect competition, all buyers and sellers have perfect knowledge of all prices and the factors that affect market conditions and will use this information in an economically rational manner to maximize their own individual gain.

Though the majority of respondents agreed to charging the same prices, there were a few who tried to establish superiority over the others through unfair trade practices (charging different prices at times). These are traits of unhealthy competition.

4.10 ENTICING THE CUSTOMER

Customers comprised of all race groups but the majority are Blacks. Other race groups especially Whites randomly buy from these hawkers (because of where they are concentrated: around taxi ranks you hardly see Whites). Few Whites buy from vendors at isolated places e.g. in front of banks or post offices. The vendors receive most of the customers after 12 noon and 5 p.m. Business is normally not hectic. Asked why customers preferred their products, greater numbers said their products were cheaper or that they offer better services and that they sell good quality products. Credit sales are not common among traders because most of their customers are passers-by unknown to them.

In their bid to entice customers, they sell products consumed regularly by the bulk of their customers, because according to Myburg (1995) consumption behaviour influence marketing activities.

Goods were moderately priced (average of R2-R3 per pack) i.e. they sell in fixed rand value (Myburg 1995). Transparent plastic bags in which they are packed for sale showed contents to attract passers-by. They are close to the customer (e.g. door to door sales) and prevent queuing at the formal shop. They sell fresh and readily available products. This is confirmed by Rouseau (1991) that, freshness, price, quality and appearance were the main criteria for buying fresh fruits and vegetables. They also display assorted fruits and vegetables, which are eye-catching.

The support the vendors get is rooted in the consumerism of their clientele who are mostly black. According to Myburg (1995), food consumption behaviour refers to many things. Among these are type, how much consumed, quality, how different products are eaten (the preparation thereof, complements, supplements and substitutes in the consumption process). The importance of each in the whole diet, frequency of purchase, stock holding by household, volumes purchased and from where and when the nature of reaction to relative price changes of food types.

Schalkman (1964) states that most housewives prefer to buy goods at reduced prices but are often prevented by lack of time. Some buy in small quantities daily because of the incentive to get out of the house. Consumers want to save time and money. Some consumers may patronise these vendors due to lack of time, the incentive to go out everyday, a lack of parking space for their cars around shopping complexes or the cost of space for parking, and the frustration and annoyance from standing in long queues at the formal shop.

4.11 HOW THE SEASONS AFFECT BUSINESS

Tomek and Robinson (1990) stipulate that most agricultural products are characterized by some seasonality in production and marketing patterns. For crops, seasonality arises from climatic factors and the biological growth process of plants. Many crops are harvested once a year and, depending on perishability may be stored for sale through marketing season.

Due to seasonal variability in production the harvest of crops like fruits and vegetables is crowded into relatively short periods (Kohls and Uhl, 1990). Seasonality has several effects on the participants of the marketing process, the farmers, the middlemen or the final consumers.

According to Rhodes (1976) seasonality affects demand and supply which is an important cause of price movements or cycles. Tomek and Robinson (1990) state that seasonality leads to cyclical outputs. Outputs become dependant on uncertain events and relates to other factors like the prevalence of lagged response relationships in agriculture and price inelasticities in both demand and supply. Small changes in supply or demand lead to large changes in prices. Price variability is greater for agricultural commodities and leads to uncertainties for producers, and consumers. Farmers are handicapped in making future plans, producers are unwilling to make investments and lenders refuse to make loans because of the risks involved. Consumers, processors and retailers prefer to have more stable supply and prices of farm commodities.

Rhodes (1990) is of the opinion that producers become suppliers at -"sell it or smell it." Spoilage can be averted through storage. According to Tomek and Robinson (1990) price instabilities can be moderated through storage but at a cost. Kohls and Uhl (1990) state that storage is needed to hold the product until consumed. This implies that storage capacity will be full or empty at certain times of the year. Where the product is not storable, it must be consumed immediately or processed i.e. processing plants will run at full or below capacity at certain times of the year. Where food must go directly into consumption, transportation refrigeration must be available immediately affecting the costs of the marketing process. No participant (including these vendors) in the marketing process can avoid such costs brought about by seasonality. But to what extent are the traders' businesses affected by the seasons?

Though a variety of fruit and vegetables are available at different times of the year at the ELM the majority of vendors trade in few products (Table 4.3) due to customer composition, their preferences and taste. These products are available throughout the year due to continuous production by farmers and storage at the ELM. They are also handicapped by lack of storage facilities, as a result they buy in small clearable quantities to make spoilage costs minimal. For example, one woman said she sold spinach only on cool and rainy days because on sunny days the spinach leaves wilt faster and become unattractive to customers thereby preventing sales, which lead to reduced income.

Seasonality affects prices at the market (Figure 4.3) but these vendors sell at fixed prices per pack most of the times. They counteract the change in price (rise) by decreasing the quantity per pack. The rainy seasons affect the flow of customers. The summer and the accompanying heat lead to faster decomposition, the opposite was the case in winters (the cold delayed decomposition). All these factors influence trade and income.

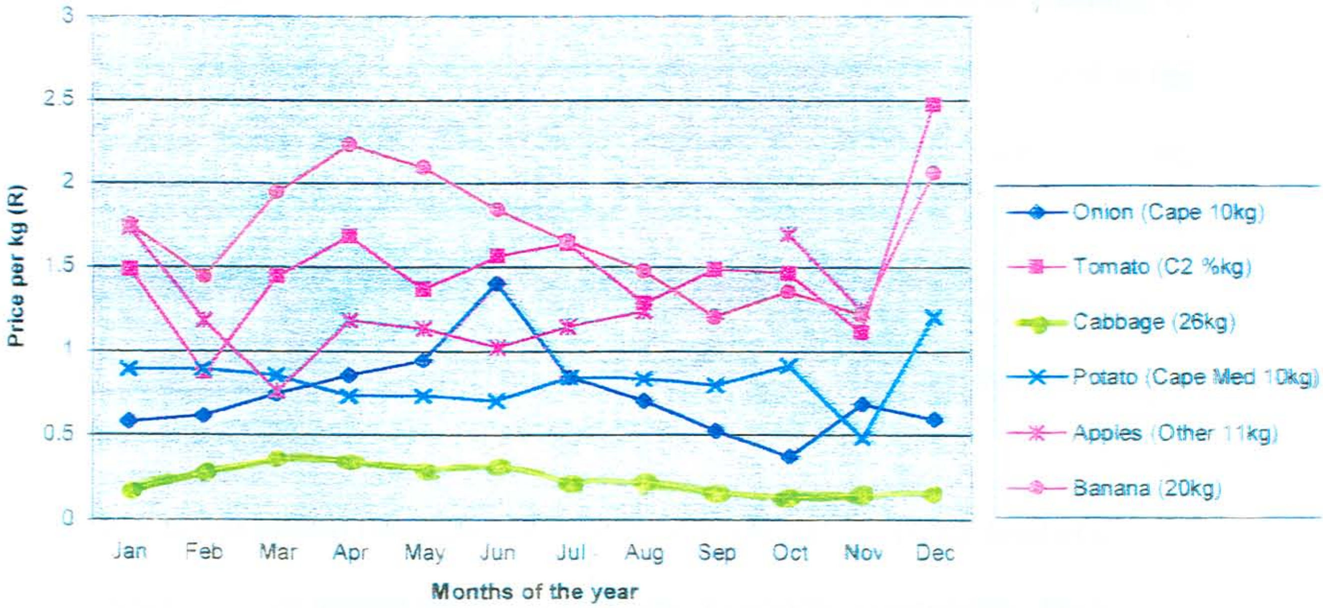


Figure 4.3: The seasons and prices(1996) East London Market

4.12 SAVING MOBILIZATION AND ACHIEVEMENTS

Shetty (1963) states that in a country of traditional historical background it is generally easier to raise small savings and mobilise them for local industrialisation. Mobilisation of small savings constitutes an important source of investible surplus and experience from elsewhere e.g. China has shown that generally, it is easier to raise capital for many small industrial units than for a few large ones. It has the advantage that once the productive mechanism of the labour intensive small-scale industries is set in force on sound competitive footing, capital formation gains momentum in other ways as well, i.e. if they find increased effective demand, their incomes increase, their desire to improve and innovate increases.

Anderson (1987) is of the opinion that for this to take off, low capital intensity in production and high propensity to save are needed. To be able to save, according to Harper (1985), needs frugality, and profits therefrom need to be re-invested in the business. Deaton (1993) states that saving is the main spring of economic development; it generates investments without which there is no economic growth. This is further confirmed by Snyder (1974) as being a major factor in the process of direct economic development by its diversion of resources into information technology that occurs when new capital is introduced.

According to Bhalla (1980), the link between economic growth and the level of savings assumes long-run income growth in developing investment opportunities. The bulk of this finance in most developing countries comes from domestic savings hence, their relevance.

The ability, willingness and opportunities of households to save over time can therefore significantly influence the rate of sustainability of capital formation (Bautista and Lamberte, 1990). Local savings accumulation contributes to the creation of resources for self-reliance on one hand and for lending on the other. Saving mobilisation is vital for the post-project sustainability of financial intermediaries (Schrieder and Heidhues, 1991).

Among the respondents about 40 % said they had money to save at the end of the day/month. Amounts saved averaged around R30/day with a range of R7-R70/day. These monies are kept with formal institutions or banks. Savings are mostly on individual basis while few used the " savings-club " in which members contribute a certain amount to the club and share accumulated capital at the end of the year. The remainder (60 %) did not save, their main reason being they have too many commitments.

Most of the respondents regard achievement as being able to settle food bills and accounts for things like clothes, furniture, school fees and caring for families. Though the majority had the ambitions of expansion (e.g. increased trading place, expansion (selling to hotels), and shelter for protection), how to achieve this is lacking, i.e. savings and re-investments. A focused objective helps to increase thriftiness to reach the goal.

4.13 SUMMARY

In this chapter, it has been shown that few of these traders have no education. They concentrate in already congested areas to have customers. The East London market is a major source of supply; this leads to the exploitation of traders who are far from the sourcing point by middlemen. Goods sold are limited, though a variety is available at the market. Diversification into other crops is a possibility to increase customer patronage. Most depend on hired transport and storage of unsold goods is a major problem. This means dwindled incomes. They do not use elaborate display means to attract their customers and they apply common sense rather than complex ways of pricing. Customers are generally satisfied with the service they provide. If goods are cleared, they always made profits. Their operations in relation to goods sold at a particular time are influenced by the seasons. Incomes are depleted or exhausted by other family commitments, this did not auger well for expansion and the future of the business.

CHAPTER FIVE

A WIDER PERSPECTIVE OF THE HAWKER'S ENVIRONMENT

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Hawker activities are outlined in the previous chapter but these are not only confined to market activities to dispose of goods to the final consumer. There are other issues within the environment of operation. Hygiene, threats and opportunities, permits and licensing, organisation and the role of the Government may bear importantly on the activities of these vendors in achieving an objective. These issues are considered in this chapter.

5.2 HYGIENE

The environment of operation needs to be preserved to ensure that product and operations do not cause hazards to health and safety (Walt 1991). There should be concern for consumer health because as stipulated by Kohls and Downey (1972) research has led some professional medical associations to take public stands on consumption of some agricultural products. Hobbs and Roberts (1993) describe food hygiene as the study of the methods of production, preparation and presentation of food, which is safe, and of good keeping quality. Food must be visibly clean and free from noxious materials, which give rise to food poisoning. According to Spence (1993) food sold to the customer must be fit to eat.

Sources of contamination of food, especially fruit and vegetables, could be from the farm (polluted water, diseases and parasites, use of insecticides), the stalls where goods are kept before distribution to retailers or where retailers keep their wares and from the persons or traders in their handling of products. What contingencies are in place to avert epidemics due to contamination?

From observations, these vendors sell firm and fresh fruits and vegetables. Wilted or wrinkled and damaged products are hardly sold because they deal in clearable quantities per day or every other day. Most products were nicely packed in plastic bags (except cabbage) to prevent contamination from flies (rampant only in summer) dusty winds, etc. These not withstanding, contamination and the resultant food poisoning could occur because there are certain aspects beyond the control of the hawkers e.g. contamination from the farm which cannot easily be detected from the physical appearance of the product. According to Cameroon (1995) it cannot be urged too strongly that personal hygiene is of the greatest importance at all times and especially when handling food. For example, covering the mouth when coughing and sneezing; cuts, scratches, pimples and boils collect bacteria and should be covered with waterproof dressing; wearing of clean clothes; keeping nails short and clean.

Proper sanitation of food premises and equipment used would go a long way to minimise outbreaks of epidemics. A major complaint from the public is the untidiness of the sites and its surroundings where the vendors trade. This could possibly also be a major health hazard.

5.3 THREATS AND OPPORTUNITIES

Various threats face these traders in the form of obstacles that hinder effective trading. How these problems can be turned around into opportunities for success is vital in any business venture. Studies elsewhere reveal countless obstacles especially for the small businessman. Ninsin (1988) recognises that the problems of informal and formal sectors are linked, and therefore any efforts in dealing with the problem of dis-articulation of the formal would be a precondition for effectively dealing with the problem of informal sector. They have idle capacity according to Shetty (1963) because of lack of funds, demand and insufficient sales, right volume, time and weather. Other factors are festivals, funerals, sickness. Directly raised unit cost of products also impinge on earnings and overall productivity. Credit stifling of micro entrepreneurs is quite evident.

Greenhow (1982) has noted that when it comes to competing for funds, the small business entrepreneur is at a disadvantage because of the qualitative controls imposed by bank lending, meaning preference is given to larger ones when allocating scarce resources due to their credit-worthiness compared to small risky enterprises. Harper (1985) says regulatory systems make it difficult for them to exist. They are tied to expensive sources of supply and serve the poor people and their poverty limits the demand for their products. According to the El Amouri Institute in Tunisia, the informal sector detects the market and develops it, but in the final analysis it is taken over by the formal sector. Growth in the market and large orders make small entrepreneurs suffer from competition. According to Khumalo (1995) they lack managerial skills and fail to keep the most rudimentary records.

This is confirmed by the concerns expressed by the International Labour Organisation regarding deficiencies in planning and management skills, which constitute the greatest, single stumbling block among micro-entrepreneurs (Cartell, 1992). Among others, the same author cites other problems which hamper growth as poor educational backgrounds and high inaccessibility to finance due to their high risk profiles (Johnstone, 1993).

All problems covered in this study (appendix A) showed various degrees of responses as follows: spoilage due to lack of storage facilities 82.3 % (99), transport 52.9 % (63), high fluctuating supplier prices 41.2 % (49) and competition 35.3 % (42). These revelations should be the guiding principles in formulating policies to help them, but their uncooperative attitude towards the local authorities in terms of obtaining permits, licenses and sites could thwart any policy formulation to alleviate their problems.

5.4 PERMITS LICENSES AND SITES (Appendix B)

Studies by Hart and Rogerson (1989) reveal that there existed stringent licensing and permit procedures particularly for the few black hawkers in most urban areas in South Africa. Hawkers were restricted to a Market Square and compliance by hawkers to antiquated dress and move-on regulations. The licensing ordinance ensured that street trading was the preserve of an elite group of relatively privileged, well brought up and "educated" Coloured and Indians. Generally past policies have been non-accommodating and restrictive for hawkers of any kind, especially for Blacks.

With the new dispensation hawker numbers especially in the black population have increased for a variety of reasons. For example, large numbers of the unemployed find opportunities in informal trading due to easy entry and the ready availability of cheap agricultural produce (Hart and Rogerson, 1989).

More than half (60 %) of the respondents in East London were aware of the requirement for a license or permission to sell (obtainable from the local authority). The remainder (40 %) was not aware. Among those who were aware few operated with a license. In King William's Town and Bisho the majority operated unaware of such requirement. In the townships, e.g. Zwelitsha and Mdantsane, few mentioned paying less than R10 to hawker associations to operate. The majority of traders (95 %) choose convenient trading sites themselves in all the places sampled. Few (4 traders) in the central East London claimed to have been allotted trading sites by the local authority.

In terms of the regional services councils Act number 109 of 1985, any person who is an employer or who carries on an enterprise (i.e. any trade, business, profession or similar activity which is of a continuing nature), must pay levies, to the regional services council at pre-determined rates. According to the council, efforts made to get traders registered have been unsuccessful.

Traders were found in clusters at various trading sites. Such clusters determined their organisation and did not belong to any formal association. The regional authorities want to organise them for effective control but there is a total lack of co-operation. Anderson (1987) suggests that association based on common interest, guilds and regular meetings would offer a forum for exchange of information, markets for raw materials and outlets for finished products and potential for becoming an instrument to allow entrepreneurs to collectively bargain for favourable terms when buying raw materials.

5.5 MERITS AND DEMERITS

According to McGee and Yeung (1977) a continuum of official attitudes exists towards street vendors. There exist two polar positions . The negative position sees hawkers as having no place to operate in urban areas because they are anti-developmental and hinder efficient operation of the city and generally prevent progress. At the opposite spectrum is a positive stance that they have every right to operate because they assist development and contribute to efficient functioning of the urban economy. Bromley (1978) points out that in Columbia the urban authorities considered them a nuisance. They made the city dirty and ugly by their presence, caused traffic congestion, littered and molested passers-by. They deprived the law abiding and paying shops of trade and spread diseases by physical contact. They sold contaminated or rotten food. This belief is held in certain quarters of South Africa. Hart and Rogerson (1989) found in Welkom that hawking clutters, dirties, infects and mars urban areas. Such attitudes put street vending at big disadvantage.

Another area where the small business is at a disadvantage as suggested by Harper (1985) who argues that politicians who are planners stand to gain more from larger businesses than from a multiplicity of small ones. It is difficult to monitor and control too many small firms. They are largely undocumented therefore it is not easy to know if they are acting in accordance with policy. They stifle activities of large business and crowd pavements and city roads. Abbot (1984) states that they are convenient scapegoats for shortages and other economic ills, which impinge directly on the mass of the people. Caballero (1980) quoted by Scott (1985) is of the view that, these traders enter into business with a limited amount of capital and the flow of such small and dispersed investment produces overcapitalisation and atomisation that raises marketing costs. They are faced with excessive competition therefore are unable to obtain enough produce to operate at the lowest average cost, as observed by Bauer and Yamey (1968). Limited competition on the other hand will allow the traders to earn excessive profits at the expense of producers making trade oligopolistic, which will place farmers at the mercy of limited number of traders.

Despite the demerits, there are numerous advantages derived from small businesses. Khumalo (1995) states that small-scale enterprises often assume the role of creating jobs in economies where large formal industries fail to do so. In South Africa and especially the Eastern Cape the huge unemployment numbers make street vending an inviting vessel for achieving job creation. This is confirmed by Harper (1985) who argues that this field is an important source of employment since it displays remarkable capacity to absorb labour.

Peters and Waterman (1982) show that people who work in small enterprises in the industrialised world are happier with their work than larger ones, aside from the fact that wages, standards of safety, comfort and welfare facilities are poor.

Informal micro enterprise serves as a nursery and a proving ground for formal enterprises, a valuable alternate source of income and personnel development. They use less management, which is even scarcer. Returns on capital in small firms are higher than in large ones, and they are more likely to be resilient to depression than larger ones because of diverse activities and locations. They also exhibit more flexibility (Harper 1985). Fraser (1989) lists the following advantages: they have low operating costs and are able to provide certain services at a lower cost than available alternatives; they operate with relatively small amounts of capital and are not a burden to the state. Lawson (1967) stipulates that each trader can perform a variety of functions and also provide services that would otherwise not be available. They operate with great amounts of mobility and flexibility and the incentive of profit and simplification of decision making contribute to adaptability seldom found in the public sector. Abbot (1984) is of the opinion that the strategic role of private traders in marketing is to seek opportunities to cash income by providing services to farmers or consumers. Hart (1969) views them as providing goods and services more cheaply in many instances than they could be provided by bureaucratic capitalist firms and thus keep down the cost of living throughout the economy and dampen demands for higher wages both in the private and Government sectors.

Eades (1993) finds them as occupying a dominant position in the distribution system. Shetty (1963) is of the view that smaller firms hold an advantage over their larger counterparts in markets, which are not easily accessible from remote industrial centres because of inadequate communicational facilities and perishability of products.

5.6 THE ROLE OF THE GOVERNMENT

The role of Governments can be appreciated in the form of support through policy statements in favour of these small firms. According to Kishida (1977) Japan did this through the following policy measures:

- Measures encouraging self-help efforts on the part of small business operators towards rationalisation and modernisation.
- Measures favouring the organisation of close co-operative relationship among small business operators so that they may learn how to perform more efficiently.
- Measures creating demand for small business.

Watanabe (1972) suggests "international subcontracting" as marketing and technical guidance. Chattel's (1977) approach is "tripartite company" where an existing company in a more developed nation enters into a relationship with a new company in an underdeveloped region under the auspices of a development agency to receive advice and technical assistance in discharging their contracts.

Anderson (1987) quoting ISSB (1977) says that in research centres, governments can provide services e.g. through annual comparative studies of enterprises and ranking as was done in Australia.

He also points out that in an economy with high unemployment and limited supply of capital, it is desirable to have enterprises that use small amounts of capital and much labour, especially if they are also viable and profit making. Governments should promote diffusion of new appropriate technologies and techniques coupled with closer links between formal and informal sectors. Research should also centre on "language development" i.e. to construct concepts that will make it easier to interpret and describe certain phenomena (Anderson 1987). For example, (a) Small-scale advantages (as opposed to large-scale advantages) such as superior knowledge of the local market - Ramstrom (1971). (b) The growth threshold an expanding firm goes through. These thresholds often put a strain on the manager and he has to change his role as a manager to that of an administrator - Lemar (1980). (c) Industrial service needed to complement the internal resources of an enterprise e.g. availability of specialist (consultants) of management training and financial services - Johanisson (1978).

Bolton (1971) stipulates that Governments should set up committees of inquiry on small firms and report as was done in the United Kingdom. Small firms are recognised in the following quote. "We believe, that the health of the economy requires birth of new enterprises in substantial numbers and the growth of some to a position from which they are able to and supplant the existing leaders of the industry," (Bolton 1971). Myrdal (1973) is against the use of Gross National Product as an indicator of development, instead he suggests the need to pay attention to non-economic factors like entrepreneurship and health as vital for growth and development.

Abbot (1984) recommends that, to avoid traders in the same market colluding, opportunities for profitable competition should be made known and accessible to enterprises elsewhere. Therefore to assist in establishing an efficient marketing system, Government policy must be aimed at encouraging the development of competing enterprises. For small-scale traders, he suggests following forms of assistance: -

(a) Changing of adverse attitudes and policies of central and local authorities into ones that provide encouragement and price incentives.

(b) The establishment of a support point in an appropriate Government Department and communications links with traders, so that policies and measures concerning them be discussed and explained.

(c) The provision of improved market facilities e.g. covered stalls storage overnight, sanitary, washing and child care facilities and transport services designed to meet small traders' needs against payment of a fee.

(d) The establishment of support services adapted to local requirement.

(e) Assistance in obtaining credit to purchase supplies and equipment.

Harper (1985) is of the view that existing policies and their impact on the small business sector need to be re-examined. The elimination of licensing requirements demanded of informal sector taxi operators had positive results in Kenya (I.L.O.1972). Setting standards that cannot be policed leads to corruption. Governments must avoid misguided financial assistance e.g. non-market related interest rates on loans. Defaulters are not pursued because of potential loss of political goodwill. If need be they can only be kick-started to get off the ground and assistance withdrawn.

Hall (1971) advocates the establishment of small central agencies to help traders know how to use the services available to them. Kirby (1982) suggests training and advisory programmes which help them to help themselves, e.g. formal training programmes in modules per day encourage participants to re-appraise their own business operations; forums for discussion of courses for understanding; advisory service consisting of on site visits to ensure understanding and implementation of techniques.

Harper (1985) recommends that training should consider the selection of the right and willing participants, the organisation of training programmes is important, as is follow up and after-care of the trained. The personality of trainer, i.e. enthusiasm and mutually generated spirit in the group are also very important. Resources are the small businesses themselves and they can learn from themselves about successes and failure through guidance from university lecturers, experienced bank managers and sales representatives. Training should be in a related sequence of presentation. As extension is practised in agriculture, use can be made of travelling salesmen who visit small business clients at their own premises to assist, advise and teach individually, and to take care of poor patronage of training programmes because of distance. The small business manager's task is personal therefore training should be geared in this direction e.g. it must be objective and realistic with clear information to follow. The training points must be centrally located to accommodate more trainees.

Malaysian authorities actively encourage street vending by means of a liberal licensing policy, the enforcement of law through education not prosecution, the provision of loans and their inducements and the recognition that hawking provided an important avenue for employment and entrepreneurial development (McGee and Yeung 1977).

5.7 SUMMARY

A clean and healthy environment of operation will attract extra customers who hitherto were sceptical to buy from these traders. If their management and planning skills are enhanced most of the problems faced will be eliminated to make them more successful.

There is a lack of co-operation between the traders and municipal authorities due to a lack of information or the inadequate manner by which such information is disseminated. The Society as whole stands to gain if traders are effectively organised to operate rather than stifled through restrictive laws. Feasible and attractive schemes in addition to the psychological preparedness of traders will make them work. Such efforts would be fruitless without government support.

CHAPTER SIX

OVERVIEW AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The socio-economic state of affairs in the region depicts a situation where especially a number of the unemployed have to depend on their initiatives to survive. The demand by these vendors to cater for their well being has to be encouraged through sustainable policies. This will in the end not only ensure the success of the traders but boost overall economic development in the region. In this chapter, an overview is given. Suggestions regarding the upliftment of the micro-enterprise are also discussed.

6.2 GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

A scrutiny of the study area reveals an array of more weaknesses than strengths. There are more people in the region because of its condusiveness for habitation and evidence exists that the population is increasing. Present unemployment numbers are high.

An increase in population creates an expansion in demand, but this might not be effective because of poverty. Demand will not be backed by effective purchasing power. The attractive coastal resorts, game reserves and other places of attraction make the region a tourist centre. Road and rail networks are developed and augur well for growth and expansion. Families have a high dependency ratio, therefore the need to engage in something that generates income. There are more young people in school, which is an indication of the scramble for jobs in future.

Poor socio - economic conditions in the vast rural areas have led to migration or influx to the already congested urban centres. Income sources are very unreliable especially among the rural folk. These conditions detrimentally affect economic development.

Those with initiative and aspirations to achieve something for themselves need encouragement through packaged incentive plans. Traditionalism may hamper change but despite the depths to which it has reached, understanding coupled with the educational levels of today can be tapped to the advantage of the society in the midst of any beliefs that may exist. Wrong policies can be traced and corrected since blaming the past evils for present predicaments really compounds the situation.

The positiveness in these vendors begins with the demand to fend for themselves by marketing agricultural products. Marketing is an art and needs to be attractive to entice people (customers) backed by an effective demand. This depends on methods employed to achieve the goal in mind, i.e. income for survival. It occurs in an ever-changing environment and needs adaptation from the participants. They need to apply common sense and judgement for a profitable end. Free enterprise prevails in South Africa today, and these vendors are responding to the ups and downs within the system. The response needs to be effective. Despite their smallness they fit into the system because of the patronage from the huge non-affluent population.

Tapping into successes and adapting (only if applicable in the South African context) and looking at failures and why they occur and not revisiting them would be a way out. If these traders trade successfully, the government's task to combat unemployment would have been solved through the people's initiatives of self-employment through the distribution service. The spin off or ripple effects would be favourable not only for the participants but their dependants, the society and over all economic development.

Too many idle hands within an ever-increasing population would mean the devil finding jobs for such hands. The semi-literate and the literate form the majority among these traders, therefore any efforts to educate and upgrade them would succeed.

Where they are mostly concentrated or located (city pavements, along busy streets and highways) leaves much to be desired. They are faced with several dangers and they create inconveniences for others. They would need to co-operate with local authorities in their efforts to decongest them.

Sourcing is not a major headache for these hawkers. Those around East London have proximity advantage because of their nearness to the East London market (ELM). Products from this market spill to other areas in the region but at high transaction cost (traders far from the ELM). The market in King William's Town (KWT) needs upgrading to cater for those away from ELM. It will also avert possible exploitation by other merchants.

This would enhance meaningful returns for the hawkers. Transport is easily available at the source (ELM) because privately owned trucks and bakkies are always available at the market to help cart goods to various destinations at shared cost. Fruit and vegetable markets as sourcing points are not well developed in the region. Efforts should be accelerated to improve other markets or create markets in the interior because of potential demand.

Despite their humble means of averting spoilage, perishability remains a problem which affect margins detrimentally. Vendors can use smaller grinders (available in most hardware shops in South Africa) to turn overripe tomato into puree. Yams (a tuber crop similar to potato) are cut and dried in the sun to store for a longer period or dried yams are grounded into powder to further increase storage time. Such possibilities can be exploited for potato, beetroot etc. Over-ripe fruits can be squeezed and washed for the seeds. The dried seeds could be sold to potential gardeners and farmers or used by traders themselves in their home gardens and farms. Damaged or extremely soft fruit and vegetables can also be taken home and fed to animals like fowls, pigs, and goats on free range.

As observed around, such spoils litter trading places, which are an eyesore. Livestock farmers around can organise them to put such spoils in bins for daily collection to feed animals. Such practices would not only alleviate the litter problem but also reduce cost as a result of spoilage.

Traders have tangible reasons for abandoning established trading sites in some areas (Figure 6.1). This problem has to be revisited to make these points conducive and attractive to use. For example, a central market should be well-fenced and lockable at night. This should be centrally located and within easy reach for both traders and buyers with places of convenience, day nurseries, apportioned trading sheds or stalls or kiosks, use of night guards to protect goods, and cleaners to clean the market everyday. However for this to materialise, there would be the need for a joint effort from the local authorities and the hawkers. Traders elsewhere in West Africa located in central markets pay a minimal fee daily by buying tickets from local council officials who go round the market. In addition to paying the daily fees, stalls are rented annually at affordable prices depending on the size of space occupied. This amount could be spread over one year to make payments flow and avoid accumulation. Proceeds from here are then used to maintain the market and related expenditures. The local authorities would need to be tough as well as flexible in the implementation of such a scheme.

Various reasons have been offered as reasons for hawking. But most importantly they are driven by the profit motive. They use modest means rather than complex pricing methods to arrive at this. While hawkers kept fixed prices, they were affected by frequent supplier price fluctuations. They need to adapt to such changes to run a good business.

Consumers may be satisfied with their prices, but the unpredictable environment should guard them in their daily chores of business. Selling a few commodities all the time could be a means of reducing risks. They would have to be risk favourable by looking at opportunities for expansion into other fruits and vegetables.

For example adding pepper and okro or okra to their wares could increase a number of customers and enhance income. The region abounds in other nationalities (West Africans, Indians, and Greeks) that use these vegetables a great deal.

Competition, which is fair, is needed for efficiency and will in a way sift the good from the bad traders. Those flushed out can engage in other self help businesses since they have the initiative. In a competitive spirit these traders would strive to succeed. Price differences between the market and hawkers show profits for almost all goods sold. This augurs well not only for traders in meeting some of their family commitments but also the local authorities to organise them to pay minimal and appropriate taxes which will enhance mutual benefits. Importantly traders should not concentrate their returns only on spending. They should learn to be thrifty and put money aside for bad times and to expand.

Mutual understanding and co-existence between local authorities and traders could help to counteract the problem of hygiene. Should there be understanding and co-operation, and proper organisation, the local authorities can put in place inspection mechanisms to ensure that non-contaminated products are sold to the public. Improved hygienic conditions and surroundings would attract more customers.

The understanding expected from traders would depend on how they are made to realise that their problems or fears can be turned into opportunities, paying a minimal fee could be used for a shelter to sell, store and protect not only goods but also the trader from hazards of the weather. Stolen goods mean loss of profits. Cold and flu due to exposure could mean loss of trading days and profits from sales.

Hawking or street trading is a reality, which we have to live with, especially in the face of high unemployment. Any attempts to stifle the activities of these traders in the form of stringent regulations as prevailed in the past would be counterproductive. The `carrot in front' approach would be needed to entice traders to apply for licenses or permits and sites (Appendix B). If grievances of traders are investigated thoroughly, corresponding solutions can be found to avert any chaotic situation.

Figure 6.1: Abandoned or under-used market in Bisho

If values and attitudes of recipients of package were remodelled though with time and education they would be receptive to innovations. Since every independent being has the internal urge to improve upon his present situation, if moves are made in this direction, favourable results could be achieved. Though the problems of changing men exist they can be surmounted if the "carrot infront" approach is adopted. Good entrepreneurship can exist without conflicting adversely with beliefs.

There are already in certain areas, abandoned market sites (Figure 6.1). These could be renovated into habitable and tradable points as suggested earlier through pilot schemes. Another way of siting them without incurring much displeasure is by looking at the possibility of developing the places where they are already concentrated into safe trading sites.

The government cannot provide jobs for everybody, but it can provide the necessary encouragement and backing in her role to favourably encourage these traders. For example, the need for tools that eliminate demerits and promote merits, through workable and flexible policies to compliment any effort to make them build on their laudable initiatives.

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APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX A - QUESTIONNAIRE

INFORMAL MARKETING OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS

Place: ....

Interviewer: ....

SECTION A

1. Gender of the respondent

Male	1
Female	2

2. Age of the respondent in years

Below 20	1
21 to 30	2
31 to 40	3
41 and above	4

3. Education

No schooling	1
Lower primary	2
Higher primary	3
Junior secondary	4
Senior secondary	5
Tertiary	6

4. Home language

Venda	1
North Sotho	2
South Sotho	3
Tswana	4
Zulu	5
Xhosa	6
Ndebele	7
Shangaan	8
Swazi	9
Afrikaans	10
English	11
Other	12

SECTION B

1. Which of the following vegetables/fruits do you sell?

Onions	1
Tomatoes	2
Cabbages	3
Potatoes	4
Oranges	5
Apples	6
Bananas	7
Pears	8

2. For how much do you sell these vegetables/fruits to consumers? (Indicate the price and measurement)

Veg / Fruit	Price	Measurement	Kilograms
Onions			
Tomatoes			
Cabbages			
Potatoes			
Oranges			
Apples			
Bananas			
Pears			

3. What factors do you consider when pricing your products?

Profit	1
Prices of others	2
Supply and demand	3
Quality	4
Time of the day	5
Other (Specify)	6

4. Do the prices vary on different weekdays?

5. Do other sellers on the same site charge the same price for similar products?

Never	1
Always	2
At times	3
Do not know	4

6. Are consumers satisfied with the prices of your vegetables/fruits?

Always satisfied	1
At times	2
Not satisfied at all	3
Do not know	4

7. If consumers complain about product prices, what can you do?

Lower the prices slightly	1
Keep the prices the same	2
Let them take the product at the amount they have	3

8. How many units of each vegetable/fruit can you sell per day?

Veg/Fruit	Normal day	Busiest day	Last busy day
Onions			
Tomatoes			
Cabbages			
Potatoes			
Oranges			
Apples			
Bananas			
Pears			

9. Where do you buy your vegetables/fruits?

Farms nearby	1
Bakkies	2
Fruit/Vegetables markets nearby	3
City Deep	4

10. How do you consider when choosing supplier?

Proximity	1
Relatively lower prices	2
Delivery	3
Convenience (Getting all products from one supplier)	4

11. Which form of transport do you use to reach the suppliers?

Own	1
Hired	2
Taxis	3
Buses	4
Train	5
Other	6

12. What are your main constraints/problems when selling agricultural products?

Cost and/or availability of transport	1
Lack of proper/protected place for selling	2
High and/or fluctuating supplier prices	3
Competition from other sellers	4
Spoilage of products due to lack of proper storage facilities	5

SECTION C

1. Do you require any license/permission to sell your products?

Yes	1
No	2

2. From where do you get a licence/permission?

Local authorities	1
Hawkers association	2

3. Do you pay any fee in order to get a license/permission?

Yes	1
No	2

4. If the answer to the above question (3) is yes, indicate the amount

Less than R10	1
Above R10 below R20	2
Above R20	3

5. Do you have to use a specific area for selling your products?

Yes	1
No	2

6. How is a trading site obtained?

....

....

7. At what time of the day do you start selling?

No fixed time	1
Before 12H00	2
From 12 onwards	3
Other (specify)	4

8. Who are your customers?

....

....

9. At what time of the day do you receive most customers?

At all times	1
Before 12H00	2
After 12H00	3
Other (specify)	

10. Why do customers prefer your products to those of competitors?

My products are cheaper	1
I offer better service	2
My products are of better quality	3
I sometimes sell on credit	4
Other (specify)	5

11. Are you prepared to move to a central point?

Yes - [Why?]

No - [Why?]

----

12. What are some of your major problems?

----

13. How would you like the Government to help you in your trade?

----

14. Are you prepared to pay for services?

15a. Do you have ambitions for expansion?

15b. How?

----

16. Why are you in hawking?

----

17. Do you save from your earning? --------------------------------

17b. How much a day? --

17c. Bank --

18. What are your achievements from this venture? -----------------

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME

APPENDIX B: LEVY AGENDA AND RELATED PAPERS

AMATOLA DISTRICT COUNCIL

AGENDA

1. How are District Council being financed?

2. When do levies become payable and who pays the levies?

3. To whom are levies payable?

4. How does this affect you as Entrepreneur or Business Owner?

5. Payment of Regional Levies in respect of:

   5.1. Gross Salaries / Wages / Personal Drawings
   5.2. Gross Income / Turnover

6. General:

   6.1.
   6.2.
   6.4.

LEVY/agenda

[1] HOW ARE RSC'S BEING FINANCED?

Two types of levies are payable.

1.1. Gross Wages / Salary /Personnel Drawings.
1.2. Gross Turnover/Income (less vat if applicable).

[2] WHEN DO THE LEVIES BECOME PAYABLE?

For the areas that were incorporated into the various TLC's, the levies become applicable with effect from 11 October 1995 as per Government Notice No 107 dated 11 October 1995.

[3] WHO PAYS THE LEVIES?

3.1. Any person who is an employer or who carries on an Enterprise.
3.2. An Enterprise is any trade, business, profession or similar activity which is of a continuing nature.

[4] TO WHOM ARE THE LEVIES PAYABLE?

The levies must be paid to the Regional Services Council and not to the Receiver of Revenue.

[5] HOW DOES THIS AFFECT YOU AS BUSINESS OWNER?

The following procedures have to be followed:-

5.1. A RSC1 Registration form must be obtained from the Regional Services Council's office at 40 Cambridge Street, completed and returned.
5.2. NO registration fee is payable.
5.3. It is also important to register with the Receiver of Revenue 1st Floor Room 27.
5.4. On receipt of the RSC1 Registration Form it will

be ascertained whether or not you may qualify to be exempted from payment of Regional Levies to Council.

5.5. The information on the RSC1 form will be captured and at the end of the month you will receive an RSC2 Certificate confirming that you are registered with Council as a levypayer.

5.6. VERY IMPORTANT! the day you decide to close or sell your business the Amatola RSC must be notified and a closure of business or confirmation of sale of business form must be completed.

5.7. Notice-change of address.

[6] PAYMENT OF LEVIES?

The present rate tariffs are as follows:-

6.1. Gross Wages/Drawings = 0036024% = R3.60 per R1000.
Gross Turnover/Income = .0014478% = R1.44 PER R1000

6.2. See Examples

6.3. You will receive an RSC4 levy return at the end each month which has to be completed by yourself. The top copy must be returned together with the necessary payment within 20 Days of the following month.

6.4 Payments may be made by cheque, cash or postal orders.

6.5. Cheques must be made payable to Amatola Regional Services Council, and must be crossed.

6.6. It is essential for the RSC4 levy return to accompany the payment.

6.7. Where it appears that the monthly levies in respect of wages etc and income is less than R50 in total, Council may permit the levypayer to pay such levies quarterly, half-yearly or annually.

and your entries will be captured on your copy. ... the declaration form when filling in your return amo

To avoid interest charges, payment sould reach the Council not later than the date shown here

Do not write in these columns - the computer will print out certain details here next month.

(M) indicates monthly returns required for the period of assessment shown here

AMATOLA REGIONAL SERVICES COUNCIL

X825 EAST LONDON 5200

(0431) 21261

				21/11/95	(M) RSC4 OCT 1995
Details which give rise to outstanding balance will be printed here by the computer next month					
Period of return			N.B. : x = multiply by		
WAGES	95/10	1		x . 0036024	
TURNOVER	95/10	5		x . 0014478	
NAME OF ENTERPRISE ADDRESS OF ENTERPRISE CODE	these are the levy codes	N.B.L.W.	01 11 24 00926 8		

Outstanding amount due, or payment in advance (shown by a - sign), will be rflected here on the next RSC4 form

Calculate the amounts payable for the period for which the return is made and write the amount in here

Add up the toatal payable, including outstanding amount or less payment in advance, and write total here. Pay this amount to the Council by cheque, cash or postal order.

FILL IN YOUR RETURN IN THIS ROW, as explained below :

WAGES Levy (levy Code 1) is the levy payable on REMUNERATION (including drawings) for the period of assessment. In the RETURN column, insert the total salaries/wages/drawings etc. (see notes on back of second copy) for the period of assessment then use the formula for calculation - multiply by .0036024 and write the answer in the right hand column. (See example above).

TURNOVER Levy (levy Code 5) is the levy payable on the LEVIABLE AMOUNT (i.e. turnover etc - see notes on back of second copy). In the RETURN column, insert the return amount then multiply by .0014478 and write the answer in the right hand column. (See example above)

N.B.

IF YOUR RETURN IS NIL FOR THE PERIOD, DO NOT LEAVE BLANK BUT WRITE IN "NIL"

REMEMBER TO COMPLETE AND SIGN THE DECLARATION ON THE BACK OF THE FORM

PAYMENTS IN ADVANCE

If the total monthly levy is too small to warrant a seperate cheque each month, you may estimate the total levies payable and pay this amount in advance. HOWEVER, YOU WILL STILL RECEIVE AN RSC4 DECLARATION FORM EVERY MONTH AND THE RETURN AMOUNTS MUST BE DECLARED FOR EACH MONTH. RETURNS CANNOT BE DECLARED IN ADVANCE.

If your monthly levy is less than R50,00 you may ask for assessment to be made half-yearly or annually.

(PLEASE GIVE PREFERRED MONTH/S FOR DECLARATIONS).

AMATOLA REGIONAL SERVICES COUNCIL
40 CAMBRIDGE STREET
EAST LONDON
PRIVATE BAG X825
5200 EAST LONDON
TELEPHONE (0431) 21261

DECLARATION FOR REGISTRA

FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY

REFERENCE NUMBER 1

AREA NO BC NUMBER

N.B. Please read the separate EXPLANATORY NOTES first, and refer to them if necessary when completing this form
ALL DETAILS MUST BE CLEARLY PRINTED IN CAPITAL LETTERS, using one letter per block

PARTICULARS OF BUSINESS

TRADE NAME OF ENTERPRISE OR EMPLOYER (See Explanatory Note 1(a)) 2

POSTAL ADDRESS 3

POSTAL CODE 4

STREET/FARM/HOLDING ADDRESS
If completing for more than one branch, an address of each branch (See note 1(b)) separate sheet if necessary. 5

MAGISTERIAL DISTRICT

NATURE OF ACTIVITIES CONDUCTED (describe)

TYPE OF ENTERPRISE (Mark with an X) 7

SOLE PROPRIETOR	01		7	PUBLIC SECTOR
PARTNERSHIP	02			OTHER: CLUB, TRUST ETC.
COMPANY/CLOSE CORPORATION	03			

PARTICULARS OF EMPLOYER/OWNER/PARTNERSHIP/COMPANY/INSTITUTION/CLUB/ETC

NAME (See Explanatory Note 2) 6

(i) EMPLOYER'S PAYE REFERENCE NUMBER, or 9

(ii) SALES TAX REFERENCE NUMBER OF ENTERPRISE (Only applicable if 2(b)(i) was not stated), or 10

(iii) INCOME TAX REFERENCE NUMBER OF PERSON/ENTERPRISE MENTIONED IN 2(a) (Only applicable if 2(b)(i) or (ii) was not stated), or 11

(iv) IF NOT REGISTERED FOR ANY OF

13

REVIOUS REGIONAL SERVICES COUNCIL REFERENCE NO.
(See Explanatory Note 3) 14

ERAL

PARTICULARS OF RESPONSIBLE PERSON OR OWNER (See Paragraph C of GENERAL INFORMATION)

SURNAME 15

FIRST NAMES 16

DESIGNATION 17

IDENTITY NUMBER 18

PARTICULARS OF LIAISON OFFICER (Person who will submit monthly returns on behalf of the responsible person or owner, and who will answer any queries regarding these returns) (See Explanatory Note 4)

INITIALS AND SURNAME 19

DESIGNATION 20

TELEPHONE NO. 21 DIALLING CODE

(c) Particulars of Landlord (Person who is deriving rental)

(i) Initials

Surname & Address Tel.

(d) LANGUAGE PREFERENCE (Mark with an X) ENGLISH 24 AFRIKAANS 24

NANCIAL INFORMATION (which will be treated in the strictest confidence)

GROSS ANNUAL REMUNERATION PAID, INCLUDING DRAWINGS (See Note 5)
(State amount in respect of previous financial year. In case of new business state estimated annual amount) 25 R

WHOLE RANDS ONLY

GROSS ANNUAL LEVIABLE AMOUNT FROM SALES OR SERVICES RENDERED
(See Note 6) (State amount in respect of previous financial year. In case of new business state estimated annual amount) 26 R

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS - IS EXEMPTION FROM THE REGIONAL ESTABLISHMENT LEVY CLAIMED?
(See Paragraph B(b) of GENERAL INFORMATION) Mark with an X YES 27 NO 27

ECLARATION

I declare that the information herein furnished is true and correct.

19

GNATURE OF PERSON RESPONSIBLE COMPLETING THIS DECLARATION (Paragraph D of GENERAL INFORMATION) | NAME | CAPACITY | DATE

R OFFICIAL USE ONLY DATE OF REGISTRATION 28 1 9

Y Y M M D D

AREA ACCOUNT STATUS 29 TARIFF CODES

DISTRICT DIST. CYCLE INDICATOR 30 ESTABLISH. CODE

40

AMATOLA REGIONAL SERVICES CO

...RMATION AND EXPLANATORY NOTES ON THE COMPLETING OF FORM RSC 1- ...ECLARATION FOR REGISTRATION : REGIONAL SERVICES COUNCIL LEVIES (REGIONAL SERVICES COUNCIL ACT, NO. 109 OF 1985)

...L INFORMATION

...RATION FOR REGISTRATION MUST BE FURNISHED BY:

...person (including an institution or company, etc.) who on or after 1 January 1990 carried on an enterprise within ...of the abovementioned Regional Services Council. An enterprise means any trade, business, profession or any ...vity of a continuing nature, whether or not carried on for the purpose of deriving a profit. An enterprise will therefore, ...or example - government departments, companies, corporations and Institutions without profit motives, etc.

...employer who on or after 1 January 1990 employs a person (except any bona fide private or domestic servant) ...e region.

...EPTIONS:

...jious and charitable institutions of a public character exempted from income tax in terms of section 10(1)(f) of the ...Tax Act need not complete this form. Religious or charitable institutions not so exempted and which clain ...ent to exemption from the Regional Services Council levies should submit, together with this form (duly completed ...ated application for exemption together with a copy of their deed of formation, constitution or other foundin ...ent.

...icational institutions of a public character exempted from income tax in terms of section 10(1)(f) of the Income Ta ...ed not complete this form for the purpose of registration in respect of the regional establishment levy. Any oth ...tional institutions not so exempted and which claim entitlement to exemption from the regional establishment le ...d submit, together with this form (duly completed), a motivated application for exemption together with a copy of th ...of formation, constitution or other founding document. All educational institutions are nevertheless required ...lete this form for the purpose of paying the regional services levy.

...ERSON RESPONSIBLE FOR COMPLETING THE DECLARATION FOR REGISTRATION FORM RSC 1

...e case of -

...sole proprietor - the proprietor;

...partnership - any partner;

...company - any director;

...close corporation - any member;

...company in liquidation or under judicial management - any liquidator or judicial manager;

...body corporate, whether constituted by any statute of the Republic of South Africa or not (including State departr ...incial administrations, local authorities, schools, Institutions, etc) - any manager, officer or any other responsible p ...ch organisation;

...a person under legal disability - the guardian, curator, administrator, or any other person vested with the r ...agement or control of the affairs of the person under legal disability;

...n insolvent/deceased estate, a trust, a benefit/pension/ provident/retirement annuity fund or any other fund - any ...cutor, administrator or any person acting on its behalf in a fiduciary capacity.

...BRANCHES AND TRADE NAMES

...ere an enterprise or person carried on various businesses under different trade names in the same Regional ...uncil region, each business will constitute a separate enterprise and must be registered separately.

...enterprise which carries on business in more than one branch under the same trade name within the Regional ...uncil region, may lodge a single Declaration for Registration covering the registration of that enterprise and ar ...reof.

...ere the head office of an enterprise is situated outside the Regional Services Council region in which its bran ...head office may register on behalf of its branches at the Regional Services Council in which region such br ...ated.

...the levies will be issued in due cours ddress of the Regional Services Council to which this declaration must be submitted is:

Amatola Regional Services Council
Private Bag X825 · 40 Cambridge Street
EAST LONDON · EAST LONDON
5200 · 5201

IQUIRIES

ies of a general nature, not requiring written confirmation, may be made telephonically during office hours (Monday ay : 7.30 am - 12.30 pm, 1.30 pm - 4.00 pm).

hone Number : (0431) 21261

ANATORY NOTES REGARDING DETAILS REQUIRED ON FORM RSC 1

1 (Trade Name)

ert name under which the enterprise or employer is known e.g. "XYZ Supermarket" or "XYZ Club" or "Highscore Union" or "B Town Municipality" or "X Bank Oxford Street Branch". If an enterprise or person carried on various ss under other trade names within the Regional Services Council region, each business must be registered separately. onal registration forms may be obtained from the Regional Services Council at the address given above.

ere one declaration for registration is completed in respect of several branches, the street address of each branch e furnished. (If necessary use a separate sheet.)

2 (Particulars of employer/owner/partnership/company/institution/club/etc.)

case of -

ole proprietor - the full names and surname of the proprietor

artnership - the name under which the partnership operates;

estate or trust - the name of the estate or trust;

ompany, close corporation, institution, etc. - the registered name of the organisation.

3 (Previous reference number - applicable only to businesses which change hands after 1 October 1989)

the reference number allocated by the Regional Services Council prior to the transfer of ownership of the business.

4 (Liaison Officer)

etails of the person who will submit monthly returns and who can be contacted by the Regional Services Council for queries. If same as responsible person, please repeat details.

5 (Remuneration)

gional Services Levy is based on gross remuneration:

remuneration is remuneration (including the value of fringe benefits) as defined in the Income Tax Act for PAYE es paid by employers to employees within the region; this includes remuneration paid to travelling employees (e.g. rs or truck drivers operating from a base within the region) but excludes remuneration to bona fide private or tic servants. For purposes of this levy remuneration to farm labourers is included. It also includes drawings from a ss/partnership by a sole proprietor/partner and any amount paid to a director of a company.

6 (Turnover)

gional Establishment Levy is based on leviable amount:

e amount is -

lation to an enterprise, other than a financial enterprise, the gross amount accrued or received from selling or letting s or fixed property, or the rendering of a service within a region. Services include industrial, commercial, professional nstruction services; or

elation to a financial enterprise, the gross amounts received or accrued by way of interest, financial charges, ds, rent, commission and fees; also the gross profit derived from dealing in financial assets exclusive of general x charged.

AMATOLA REGIONAL SERVICES COUNCIL
STREEKSDIENSTERAAD

DECLARATION FOR PAYMENT OF REGIONAL SERVICES COUNCIL LEVIES
VERKLARING VIR BETALING VAN STREEKSDIENSTERAAD HEFFINGS

P/BAG / P/SAK X825 EAST LONDON / OOS-LONDEN 5200 ☎ (0431) 21261

RSC 4

LAST RECEIPT / VORIGE KWITANSIE	FINAL DATE / FINALE DATUM	MONTH – MAAND
	21/10/95	SEPT 199

DATE – DATUM	CODE – KODE	RETURN – OPGAWE	LEVY – HEFFING	INTEREST – RENTE	TRANSFERS – OORPLASING	RECEIPTS – KWITANSIES	OUTSTANDING – U

LEVY DESCRIPTION – HEFFING BESKRYWING	DATE – DATUM		RETURN – OPGAWE	FORMULA FOR CALCULATION – FORMULE VIR BEREKENING	PLEASE COMPLETE – VOLTOOI A
WAGES	95/09	1	R 2500	x .0036024	R 9.
TURNOVER	95/09	5	8000	x .0014478	11.

TRADENAME
ADDRESS
EAST LONDON

DECLARATION ON REVERSE MUST BE COMPLETED
VERKLARING OP KEERSY MOET VOLTOOI WORD

N.B./L.W.
THIS ACCOUNT MUST ACCOMPANY YOUR PAYMENT
HIERDIE REKENING MOET U BETALING VERGESEL

ADDITIONAL CHARGES
ADDISIONELE KOSTE

REFERENCE NUMBER – VERWYSINGSNOMMER	TOTAL – TO
1011560324 11	R 20.5

DECLARATION / VERKLARING

I DECLARE THAT THE LEVIES AS DETERMINED AND CALCULATED OVERLEAF ARE TRUE AND CORRECT.
EK VERKLAAR DAT DIE HEFFINGS SOOS OP DIE KEERSY HIERVAN BEREKEN EN BEPAAL WAAR EN JUIS IS.

Signature / Handtekening	Capacity / Hoedanigheid	Date / Datum

CHANGE OF ADDRESS
VERANDERING VAN ADRES

THIS ACCOUNT/DECLARATION MUST ACCOMPANY YOUR PAYMENT
HIERDIE REKENING/VERKLARING MOET U BETALING VERGESEL
POST DATED CHEQUES WILL NOT BE ACCEPTED
VOORUIT GEDATEERDE TJEKS IS NIE AANVAARBAAR NIE
SEE NOTES ON THE REVERSE OF THE COPY FOR YOUR RECORDS
SIEN NOTAS OP KEERSY VAN DIE AFSKRIF VIR U REKORDS

NOTES

NOTE 1: REMUNERATION
The amount must reflect all remuneration (including the value of fringe benefits) as defined in the Income Tax Act, for TAX purposes paid by employers to employees within the region; this includes remuneration paid to travelling employees (e.g. travellers or truck drivers operating from a base within the region) but excludes remuneration to bona fide private or domestic servants. For purposes of this levy remuneration to farm labourers is included. It also includes drawings from a business/partnership by a sole proprietor/partner and any amount paid to a director of a private company for services rendered or director's fees paid by a public company to any person ordinarily resident in the Republic.

NOTE 2: LEVIABLE AMOUNT
Leviable amount is:

(a) in relation to an enterprise, excluding a financial enterprise, the gross amount accrued or received from selling or letting of goods or fixed property, or the rendering of a service within the region. Services include industrial, commercial, professional and construction services, or
(b) in relation to a financial enterprise, the gross amounts received or accrued by way of interest, financial charges, dividends, rent, commission and fees, also the gross profit derived from dealing in financial assets,

exclusive of V.A.T. charged.

NOTE 3: FINAL DATE FOR PAYMENT
The levies are payable on or before the final date for payment as reflected on the face of this form.

NOTE 4: PAYMENT
Payment made by cheque or postal order must be crossed and made payable to the AMATOLA REGIONAL SERVICES COUNCIL and may not be included with any payments made to any other local authority. Payments by cheque or postal order may be posted to the AMATOLA REGIONAL SERVICES COUNCIL at Private Bag X825 East London 5200. Alternatively, payments (including cash) may be tendered by hand at 40 Cambridge Street, East London. POST DATED CHEQUES WILL NOT BE ACCEPTED.

NOTE 5: LATE PAYMENTS
Payments received after the final date for payment are subject to interest.

NOTE 6: CORRESPONDENCE
Any correspondence entered into with the REGIONAL SERVICES COUNCIL with regard to the regional services council levies must disclose the reference number reflected on the face of this form.
(For additional information consult the Guide for Levy Payers or the Regional Services Council).

NOTAS

NOTA 1: BESOLDIGING
Die bedrag moet besoldiging verteenwoordig (met inbegrip van die waarde van byvoordele) soos omskryf in die Inkomstebelastingwet vir LBS-doeleindes en betaal deur die werkgewer aan die werknemer wat binne die streek geëmployeer word; dit sluit in besoldigings aan reisende werknemers (bv. handelsreisigers of wagmotorbestuurders) wat vanaf 'n basis binne die streek werk) maar sluit besoldiging aan bona fide privaat en huisbediendes uit. Vir doeleindes van die heffing word besoldiging aan plaasarbeiders ingesluit. Dit sluit ook trekkings uit 'n besigheid/vennootskap deur die alleeneienaar/vennote asook enige bedrag aan 'n direkteur van 'n privaat maatskappy vir dienste gelewer of direkteursgelde betaal deur 'n publieke maatskappy aan 'n persoon wat gewoonlik in die Republiek woonagtig is.

NOTA 2: HEFBARE BEDRAG
Hefbare bedrag beteken:

(a) met betrekking tot 'n onderneming, behalwe 'n finansiële onderneming, die bruto bedrae ontvang of toegeval uit die verkoop of verhuring van goed of vaste eiendom, en die lewering van dienste deur alle ondernemings binne die streek. Dienste sluit in nywerheids-, handels-, professionele- en konstruksiedienste; of
(b) met betrekking tot 'n finansiële onderneming, die bruto bedrae ontvang of toegeval uit rente, finansieringskoste, dividende, huurgeld, kommissie en fooie; en bruto winste uit die verkoop van finansiële bates,

uitsluitend van B.T.W. gehef.

NOTA 3: FINALE DATUM VIR BETALING
Die heffings is betaalbaar voor of op die finale datum vir betaling soos aan die voorkant van die vorm getoon.

NOTA 4: BETALING
Indien betaling per tjek of posorder geskied moet dit gekruis en betaalbaar gemaak word aan die AMATOLA STREEKSDIENSTERAAD en mag nie met ander betalings aan enige ander plaaslike owerheid gekombineer word nie. Betalings per tjek of posorders kan gepos word aan die AMATOLA STREEKSDIENSTERAAD, Privaatsak X825, Oos-Londen, 5200. Betalings (Kontant ingesluit) kan andersins ingehandig word te Cambridgestraat 40, Oos-Londen. VOORUIT GEDATEERDE TJEKS IS NIE AANVAARBAAR NIE.

NOTA 5: LAATBETALING
Betalings ontvang na die finale datum vir betaling is onderhewig aan rente.

NOTA 6: KORRESPONDENSIE
Indien enige korrespondensie met betrekking tot STREEKSDIENSTERAADHEFFINGS aan die Streeksdiensteraad gerig word, moet die verwysingsnommer soos op die voorkant van die vorm getoon vermeld word.
(Vir verdere inligting raadpleeg die Gids vir Heffingpligtiges of die Streeksdiensteraad.)

XXXX

Certificate / Sertifikaat

TRATION WITH THE AMATOLA REGIONAL COUNCIL (hereinafter referred to as 'the N TERMS OF THE REGIONAL SERVICES ACT, No. 109 OF 1985.

VAN REGISTRASIE BY DIE AMATOLA STREEKS-DIENSTERAAD 'die Raad' genoem) INGEVOLGE DIE WET OP STREEKS-DIENSTE No. 109 VAN 1985.

y certified that/Dit word hiermee verklaar dat

Reference Number: / Verwysingsnommer: XX XX XX XXXXX

(This refence number must be quoted on all correspondence and at interviews).

(Hierdie verwysingsnommer moet in alle korrespondens en by onderhoude vermeld word).

DE NAME: XXXXXXXX

RESS: XXXXX

XXXX

XXXX

stered for Regional Services Council Purposes in paragraph 10 of Government Notice No. R. 340, 7 February 1987.

Ingevolge paragraaf 10 van Goewermentskennisge No. R.340, gedateer 17 Februarie 1987, vir Streeksdiensteraad doeleindes geregistreer is.

EXAMPLE

nless otherwise notified by the Council, regional levies are ayable monthly to the Council and for this purpose a Declaration for Payment (form RSC 4) will be issued monthly.

ailure to submit the Declaration for Payment (form RSC 4) or make payment by the due date will result in interest being harged.

ayments made by cheque or postal order must be crossed and nade payable to the Amatola Regional Services Council and nay not be included with any other payments made to any ther local government body.

ayments by cheque or postal order may be posted to the Council at Private Bag X825, East London 5200. Alternatively, payments (including cash) may be handed in at 40 Cambridge Street, East London. POST DATED CHEQUES WILL NOT BE ACCEPTED.

he Council must be notified immediately should there be changes to any of the information supplied for the purposes of Registration.

A new Declaration for Registration (form RSC 1) must be completed in the event of any change in liability for payment of egional levies, e.g. if the business is sold.

1. Tensy u anders deur die Raad in kennis gestel word, is heffings maandeliks betaalbaar aan die Raad en vir dié d Verklaring vir Betaling (vorm RSC 4) maandeliks uitgere
2. Enige betaling wat na die keerdatum gemaak word of 'n ing vir Betaling (vorm RSC 4) wat nie ingedien word nie onderhewig wees aan rente.
3. Alle tjeks en posorders vir betaling moet gekruis en betaalbaar gemaak word aan die Amatola Streeksdie raad en mag nie ingeslult wees by enige ander bet aan enige ander plaaslike owerheidsliggaam nie.
4. Betalings aan die Raad per tjek of posorders kan ge aan Privaatsak X825, Oos-Londen, 5200. Betalings (k gesluit) kan andersins ingehandig word te Cambridgest Oos-Londen. VOORUIT GEDATEERDE TJEKS AANVAARBAAR NIE.
5. Die Raad moet onmiddellik in kennis gestel word ind enige verandering van die inligting ten opsigte van Regis
6. 'n Nuwe Verklaring vir Registrasie (vorm RSC 1) moet word indien aanspreeklikheid vir die betaling van streek verander, bv. indien die besigheid verkoop

CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICER / HOOF UITVOERENDE BEAMPTE

Amatola

APPENDIX C: NATIONAL SURVEY OF PRODUCE PRICES

JOHANNESBURGSE NASIONALE VARSPRODUKTEMARK
JOHANNESBURG NATIONAL FRESH PRODUCE MARKET

NASIONALE OORSIG VAN PRODUKTEPRYSE SOOS VERSKAF DEUR DIE BESTUUR VAN DIE JOHANNESBURG NASIONALE VARSPRODUKTEMARK. INLIGTING WORD VERSTREK VANAF HOOGSTE TOT GEMIDDELDE PRYSE IN SENT PER KILOGRAM.

HIERDIE PRYSE SLUIT B.T.W. UIT

NATIONAL SERVEY OF PRODUCE PRICES AS REPORTED BY THE MANAGEMENT OF JOHANNESBURG NATIONAL FRESH PRODUCE MARKET. INFORMATION IS GIVEN IN CENTS PER KILOGRAM, FROM THE HIGHEST TO AVERAGE PRICES.

THESE PRICES EXCLUDE V A T.

AARTAPPELS/POTATOES

JHB	KL/CL	1	MEDIUM	109	TOT/TO	77
JHB	KL/CL	2	MEDIUM	89	TOT/TO	62
KAAP	KL/CL	1	MEDIUM	100	TOT/TO	90
KAAP	KL/CL	2	MEDIUM	70	TOT/TO	65
PTA	KL/CL	1	MEDIUM	100	TOT/TO	76
PTA	KL/CL	2	MEDIUM	80	TOT/TO	64
OOSL	KL/CL	1	MEDIUM	90	TOT/TO	71
OOSL	KL/CL	2	MEDIUM	75	TOT/TO	62
PMB	KL/CL	1	MEDIUM	120	TOT/TO	70
PMB	KL/CL	2	MEDIUM	100	TOT/TO	65
VER	KL/CL	1	MEDIUM	95	TOT/TO	61
VER	KL/CL	2	MEDIUM	80	TOT/TO	50

APPELS/APPLES

JHB	GOLDEN DELI	324	TOT/TO	201
JHB	GRANNY SMITH	205	TOT/TO	137
JHB	STARKING	302	TOT/TO	195
KAAP	GOLDEN DELI	239	TOT/TO	222
KAAP	GRANNY SMITH	167	TOT/TO	139
KAAP	STARKING	267	TOT/TO	256
PTA	GOLDEN DELI	270	TOT/TO	205
PTA	GRANNY SMITH	216	TOT/TO	124
PTA	STARKING	281	TOT/TO	208
OOSL	GOLDEN DELI	265	TOT/TO	250
OOSL	GRANNY SMITH	233	TOT/TO	225
PMB	GOLDEN DELI	240	TOT/TO	190
PMB	GRANNY SMITH	125	TOT/TO	100
PMB	STARKING	275	TOT/TO	150
VER	GOLDEN DELI	230	TOT/TO	202
VER	STARKING	227	TOT/TO	227

AVOKADOS

JHB	400	TOT/TO	177
KAAP	275	TOT/TO	225
PTA	222	TOT/TO	205
OOSL	300	TOT/TO	266

PMB	300	TOT/TO	300
VER	500	TOT/TO	380

HUBBARDSKORSE/HUBBARD SQUASH

JHB	62	TOT/TO	38
KAAP	53	TOT/TO	37
PTA	69	TOT/TO	49
OOSL	25	TOT/TO	22
VER	56	TOT/TO	48

KIWI

JHB	733	TOT/TO	526
KAAP	600	TOT/TO	600
PTA	4.89	TOT/TO	4.41
PMB	160	TOT/TO	140

KNOFFEL/GARLIC

JHB	800	TOT/TO	498

KOEJAWEL/GUAVAS

JHB	242	TOT/TO	171
KAAP	220	TOT/TO	170
OOSL	175	TOT/TO	153

KOMKOMMERS/CUCUMBERS

JHB	500	TOT/TO	226
PTA	250	TOT/TO	217
OOSL	320	TOT/TO	307

KOPKOOL/CABBAGE

JHB	83	TOT/TO	49
KAAP	64	TOT/TO	44
PTA	38	TOT/TO	27
OOSL	46	TOT/TO	41
PMB	52	TOT/TO	13
VER	53	TOT/TO	38

LEMOENE (UITVOER)/ORANGES (EXPORT)

JHB	100	TOT/TO	74
KAAP	100	TOT/TO	60
OOSL	75	TOT/TO	64
PMB	80	TOT/TO	70

LEMOENPAMPOEN/GEM SQUASH

JHB	175	TOT/TO	63
KAAP	111	TOT/TO	75
PTA	80	TOT/TO	65
OOSL	133	TOT/TO	121
PMB	77	TOT/TO	62
VER	60	TOT/TO	40

LIETJIES/LITCHIS

'S/MANGOES — 1000 TOT/TO 1000

I.NES/NECTARINES

'NE/PUMPKIN

68	TOT/TO	41
83	TOT/TO	53
74	TOT/TO	49
73	TOT/TO	66
44	TOT/TO	33
76	TOT/TO	52

;/PAWPAWS

175	TOT/TO	89
200	TOT/TO	120
173	TOT/TO	123
155	TOT/TO	129
100	TOT/TO	80

SWEET POTATOES

100	TOT/TO	41
180	TOT/TO	100
59	TOT/TO	44
78	TOT/TO	69
56	TOT/TO	53
47	TOT/TO	41

4/IS

274	TOT/TO	204
138	TOT/TO	108
213	TOT/TO	201
150	TOT/TO	173

/PEACHES

5/BANANAS

189	TOT/TO	144
225	TOT/TO	200
210	TOT/TO	163
220	TOT/TO	202
220	TOT/TO	100
163	TOT/TO	127

LUMS

S/PINEAPPLES

200	TOT/TO	158
225	TOT/TO	175
250	TOT/TO	196
214	TOT/TO	214