

The Impact of Fast Moving Consumer Goods on Green Consumerism

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by

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ABSTRACT

THE IMPACT OF FAST MOVING CONSUMER GOODS ON GREEN CONSUMERISM

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Manufacturers, wholesalers and retailers of Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) have a social responsibility towards their consumer's environment. Fast Moving Consumer Goods are consumed on a daily basis and their by-products are often discarded incorrectly, impacting negatively on the environment. However, many companies are beginning to take steps towards ensuring that their products are manufactured according to environmentally friendly conditions. The responsibility should not just be placed on labels, but consumers should be properly educated and guided on how to dispose of a product's packaging such as bottles, cans and plastic bags. Producers, as well as retailers, of FMCG have an ethical responsibility towards their consumers. It has become fashionable and politically correct for FMCG companies all over the world to publicise themselves as "green companies." However, the materials used in the packaging of these products are most often found thrown in streets and other open areas in the community. This research investigates the impact that FMCG have on the community's green space and how companies and retailers can effectively communicate their green consumerism initiatives and demonstrate their CSR for both the environment and their consumers. This study revealed that 53.99% of the respondents do not recycle the unused packaging of goods. The primary reason was that recycling is inconvenient. The other conspicuous reason was lack of knowledge of recycling. Apart from that, they also mention that they do not have recycling bins in the community; they have not enough space in their yard and for the fact that they are not getting any incentives. This study focuses on how companies can assist in saving our planet by embracing the concept of green consumerism holistically. Further, the study exposes challenges faced by companies and social organisations with regard to green consumerism. It also tackles existing initiatives of entrenching green consumerism and the study goes on to offer suggestions and recommendations to effectively embrace green consumerism in a global society.

ETHICAL STATEMENT BY RESEARCHER

With the signature below I, MAKHUTLA ESTHER NTHABISENG, hereby declare that the work that I present in this thesis is based on my own research, and that I have not submitted this thesis to any other institution of higher education to obtain an academic qualification.

Makhutla Esther Nthabiseng

Date

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WRITING CONVENTIONS

The following conventions are used in this study is:

- The abbreviated Harvard style of referencing is used in this dissertation.

For example: Girod & Michael (2003:2) meaning Girod and Michael 2003, page 2.

- When referencing the source that consists of more than two authors for the first time, the name of the first author is identified followed by 'et al', for example, Shrum, *et al.* (2005:81).
- Illustrative tables and figures are all given as Figures 1 – 28 and Tables 1 – 32 in their chronological sequence of appearance.
- For commonly used terms, full terms are used headings. Acronyms are used in paragraphs. For example, Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG).
- The references have been organised alphabetically
- Relevant material relating to investigate the impact of fast moving consumer goods on green consumerism was tracked down from websites. Such websites addresses are included in the dissertation, both for verification and for acknowledgement of the source information. An example of a typical website is: <http://public.ezinemark.com/green-pr-ripens-7d32324e1eab.html>.

The World Wide Web (www) is transient and ever changing, therefore one should expect that websites from which information is gathered will be offline or may alter the contents of the website over a period of time.

- In instances where the electronic document has been downloaded from a website, the author is given, followed by the year and, where possible, the page number.

Example: Windsor (2010:9).

- Where the information from the website does not have an author, the corporate name or the name of the article is cited. For example, United Nations Guidelines for Consumer Protection (2005:18)

ACRONYMS

AIDS:	Acquired Immuno Deficiency Syndrome
CGCSA:	Consumer Goods Council of South Africa
CBD	Central Business District
CI:	Consumers International
CPG:	Consumer Packaging Goods
CSDs:	Carbonated Soft Drinks
CSI:	Corporate Social Investment
CSR:	Corporate Social Responsibility
FAO:	Food and Agricultural Organisation
FMCG:	Fast Moving Consumer Goods
GEAR:	Growth Employment and Redistribution
HIV:	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IOCU:	International Organisation of Consumer Union
JET:	Joint Educational Trust
PET:	Polythyle Terephthalate
PR:	Public Relations
RDP:	Reconstruction Development Programme
SAB:	South African Brewery
SABS:	South Africa Bureau of Standards
SANCU:	South Africa National Consumer Union
TV:	Television
UNEP:	United Nation Environment Programme
UNGCP:	United Nations Guidelines for Consumer Protection
WHO:	World Health Organisation
WIPO:	The World Intellectual Property Organisation
WWW:	World Wide Wed

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Chapter 1

ORIENTATION

INTRODUCTION

Richards Bay is a major economic hub in KwaZulu-Natal. A large number of multinational companies have established their footprint in this area. This resulted in a rapid growth of communities being established in this region. The Central Business District (CBD) area is surrounded with both formal and informal communities. Richards Bay has a number of shopping malls, which house various popular stores ranging from clothing shops, restaurants, supermarkets and many other small to medium size businesses. The consumption of Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG¹) has increased substantially in this economy. These products are consumed on a daily basis and their by-products are often discarded incorrectly and this negatively impact on our environment. Many companies are taking steps towards ensuring that their products are manufactured according to conditions that are environmentally friendly. They also provide information on their packaging and labels about their product and recycling possibilities. Many people do not understand the importance of recycling and, therefore, discard these items which normally end up in rivers, open fields and on the streets. It is important for companies who manufacture and supply FMCG to go beyond merely placing information on labels. They need to invest in educating consumers appropriately. Instructions should guide consumers on how to dispose a product's packaging such as bottles, cans and plastic

¹ Fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG) or consumer packaged goods (CPG) are products that are sold quickly and at relatively low cost.

bags. Manufactures as well as retailers of FMCG have an ethical responsibility to their consumers.

According to Townshend (2011:9), manufacturing companies must realise, that it is not just about the product, but how the consumers consider the company's ethical behaviour. Townshend (2011) further indicates that a small number of multi-national companies own a large proportion of brands that are classified as "favourite brands." Although these products are popular, some of these companies operate behind a facade of unethical manufacturing practices.

From a moral perspective, a company's green credentials must be clear and visible to its consumers. The importance of green marketing concepts goes beyond just selling the brand. The communication of "Green Public Relations" must not just appear on product labels and advertisements, but must be correctly communicated to their publics with detailed information that can be easily verified. Failure to do so will be seen as "Green Washing." This study focuses on the green consumerism credentials of manufacturing companies that produce FMCG, and the retailers of these products that are in Richards Bay. This research also investigates the impact that FMCG have on the community's green space and how manufacturing companies and retailers can effectively communicate their green consumerism initiatives and demonstrate their Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) for both the environment and their consumers.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Sustainability has become a leading topic in the green marketing agenda. According to Shamot (2011:30), environmentalism started in the 1960s and early 1970s with a greater concern about the impact of the production on the environment. Alsamdi (2007:341) states that today many companies have FMCG all over the world and are publicising themselves as “green companies”. Hartmann *et al.* (2005:10) emphasise that a green brand identity is defined by a specific set of brand attributes. These attributes relate to the reduced environmental impact of the brand and its perception as being environmentally sound. Many manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG are taking a step towards ensuring their brands are credentialed in the green space. However, the materials used in the packaging of these products are most often found thrown in streets and other open areas in the community. The core question of this study is:

How can manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG effectively communicate and demonstrate CSR to the environment and their consumers?

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1. To examine what strategies manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG are employing to reduce their carbon footprint on the environment.
2. To determine whether the manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG assist their consumers in the recycling of their products.

3. To evaluate the forms of communication or the communication outlets that the manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG are using to communicate their green credentials.
4. To ascertain if there are any partnerships that exists between the manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG, and other stakeholders to assist in the reduction of their carbon footprint in community of Richards Bay.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study has adopted both quantitative and qualitative research methods. The quantitative aspect involved the use of structured questionnaire which were administered to the respondents, members of the community. The qualitative aspect used personal interviews and semi-structured interviews. Respondents from the community of Richards Bay were interviewed to ascertain their views on this study. The researcher undertook a desktop search of manufacturing companies and retailers that manufacture FMCG. The researcher used the MoonStats2 to analyse the data collected. In chapter 7, a detailed methodology adopted in this study is further discussed.

ETHICAL REQUIREMENTS

The researcher sought permission from the FMCG manufacturers, on behalf of the University of Zululand and the Department of Communication Science, to undertake the research. Precautions were taken to ensure that all ethical procedures are followed. The objectives of the study were explained in detail to the participants. All participants were given an information sheet with all contact details and ensuring the respondents of their

right to confidentiality, anonymity and the right to withdraw from the research. Participants were required to sign a consent form which indicates their willingness to participate in the research. Only the researcher has access to the documents and it was not used (and will not be used) for any purpose other than this research. In chapter 7, a detailed explanation will be given for this study.

FEASIBILITY

The study was undertaken in Richards Bay, KwaZulu Natal and is limited to the following multinational manufacturing companies: Unilever, Nestle, Coca Cola and Tiger Brands. These manufacturing companies have dominant market segments in Richards Bay and supply FMCG to multinational retailers, such as: Shoprite, Spar and Pick n Pay. However, their products are popular and consumed on a daily basis by the community, therefore, their packaging is mostly seen on the streets, impacting the environment negatively. The researcher gathered information about these manufacturing companies by conducting a desktop research from the websites of these manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG. These manufacturing companies and retailers were critically examined to determine their social responsibility in environmental protection and how they help communities to be greener with regard to post consumption of their products. The researcher sought consent from these companies in order to conduct the study. The study did not include other companies and retailers of FMCG because of limited time and resources.

DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

GREEN

According to Roohi (2012:223), the term 'green', indicates an essential concern for protection of the environment and a greener lifestyle. Generally, targets for concerns are the preservation of the planet earth, personal health, and animal life. Consequently, activities causing the smallest amount of damage to the planet earth, its environment, human and animal life are preferred by green campaigners. Windsor (2010:9) states that 'green' has long-drawn-out not only to report direct environmental impact, but also social matters such as fair trade, free range, and organics that relate to the conditions under which the product is produced.

GREEN ADVERTISING

According to Chen (2010:308) green advertising refers to advertisements that address the relationship between a green product and the environment. Roohi (2012:223) defines green advertising as a social marketing effort by companies to promote a product or service from a green lifestyle perspective and to improve the image of the company using environmental activities. He further explains that green advertising is a plain link between a product and an organisation's service to the environment.

GREEN CONSUMERS

Alsmadi (2007:342) states that green consumers are environmentally conscious consumers who are loyal to green products. According to Shamot (2011:31) green consumers are consumers who are aware of environment related issues. Farjs & Martinez

(2007:73) define green consumers as consumers who are individuals interested and concerned for the environment and show essential verbal and active environmental commitment. Hamilton (2010:572) notes that green consumers have special environmental and social values that occur through their consumption behaviour. Shrum *et al.* (2005:81) also affirm that green consumers are consumers whose purchases are influenced by environmental issues.

GREEN CONSUMERISM

According to Hamilton (2010:573) green consumerism is the efforts by environmental NGOs, businesses and governments to persuade individuals to buy goods and services that have a less harmful environmental impact associated with their production, distribution and disposal. Alsmadi (2007:342) defines green consumerism as a pro-environmental consumer culture, which is characterised by a strong sense of environmental responsibility in consumption behaviour. Green consumerism refers to recycling, purchasing and using eco-friendly products that minimise damage to the environment. Moisander (2007:406) discusses green consumerism as a form of pro-social consumer behaviour. He adds that it may be seen as a specific type of socially conscious or socially responsible consumer behaviour that involves an environmentalist perspective and may thus be called environmentally concerned consumption.

GREEN MARKETING

Peattie (2001:129) outlines green marketing as activities which attempt to reduce the negative social and environmental impacts of existing products and production systems, and which promote less damaging products and services. He further explain that this is an

area of potential ‘sweet-spots’ between business, society and the environment. In other words, green marketing has potential for benefiting business, society and the environment, shifting these towards a sustainable future. Green marketing also communicates the ethical attributes of a product or brand to the consumer. Jacob & Jacob (2012:117) indicate that green marketing may be an approach which indicates signs of shift in consumer attention to green products. They further add that green marketing covers the overall brand of marketing activities undertaken by companies in a manner where they promote the manufacture of products which have a positive impact on the environment or which, alternatively reduce any negative impact on the environment.

GREEN PRODUCTS

Tomasin (2013:47) notes that green products are established with the purpose of reducing the environmental impact of the development, manufacture, use and disposal of products and services. According to Alsmadi (2007:342), green products refer to products that do not harm the environment; for example, products which use biologically friendly materials, consume minimum energy and use resources and which are recyclable. He further stresses that these are products which are manufactured through green technology and cause no environmental hazards.

GREEN PUBLIC RELATIONS (GREEN PR)

Waddel (2011:6) states that Green PR is a sub-field of public relations which communicates an organisation’s corporate social responsibility or environmentally friendly practices to the public. He further adds that the chief goals of Green PR are to produce increased brand awareness and improve an organisation’s reputation. Tactics

include placing news articles, winning awards, communicating with environmental groups and distributing publications

GREENTAILING

Stern & Ander (2008:31) articulate that greentailing is responsible retailing based on environmentally sustainable, socially responsible and economically profitable business practices. They further clarify that greentailing clearly consider the impact of a retailer's actions on the environment and community, customer perception and behaviour, employees, suppliers, and finally shareholder returns. Greentailers' main purpose is to sell products and services, as well as to lower the impact of pollution on the environment while at the same time maintaining and performing practices that minimise waste.

GREEN WASHING

Delmas & Burnano (2011:66) define green washing as the intersection of two behaviours: poor environmental practices and positive communication about environmental practices. They further stress that green washing is the act of misleading consumers regarding the environmental practices of a company or the environmental benefits of a product or service. Walker & Wan (2012:228) explain that green washing is disseminating disinformation by an organisation so as to present an environmentally responsible public image, where disinformation refers to deliberately misleading information.

CONCLUSION

The chapter outlined the foundation for the study by drawing attention to the research problems that are examined, the aims and objectives of the study and the research

methodology that is used to present the findings, conclusions and recommendations in the study. The chapter sets the pace for the investigation into how manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG can demonstrate Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). Chapter Two outlines how manufactures and retailers of MFCGs are impacting their environment through Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR).

LITERATURE REVIEW

INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter outlined the foundation for the study. The literature review for the study is presented in three parts:

- Part 1: deals with *Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)* of the companies and retailers of Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG). One of the main problems facing these companies is reducing their carbon footprint through their choice of packaging materials.
- Part 2: focuses on *Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG)*. The chapter discusses how the manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG are able to shift towards sustainability by altering their business practice.
- Part 3: discusses *Green Consumerism* of FMCG focusing on their manufacturing companies and retailers with reference to their post consumption by consumers.

While some major manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG are not very visible when it comes to corporate social responsibility initiatives, there are many manufacturing companies who go beyond their economic constraints to ensure that their products impact positively on the environment. Vallaster *et al.* (2012:35) affirm that CSR is about companies that go beyond legal obligation and their own interest to address and manage the impact their activities have on society and environment. They consider this to be ethically and morally correct in ensuring that communities and their environments are protected.

Businesses ensure that every decision is aligned to their vision and mission which also encompasses their responsibility to environmental issues. Vallaster *et al.* (2012:37) stresses that decisions about how much to pay executives, what technologies to install in new manufacturing facilities, and decommissioning old plants, impacts on the firm's stakeholders and the natural environment. This should also form a part of the firm's agenda for business sustainability. They further indicate that most organisations discuss the extensive impacts of social and environmental issues on their websites and also in their annual reports (Vallaster *et al.*: 2012). Kaler (2006:251) discovered that 90% of the manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG report on social responsibility at their websites globally. He further mentions that a global survey of senior managers and board of directors reported that corporate social responsibility had occurred as a significant business issue in many boardroom agendas and was likely to become increasingly important over the next years. Accounting firm KPMG found that 52% of the 250 firms in the International Survey on CSR published a social responsibility report in addition to their annual report (KPMG, 2005). Aguilera *et al.* (2007:641) concur that 25% of coursework offered by ranked business schools addressed some aspects of social and environmental responsibility. They add that the stability of evidence supports the observation that social and environmental responsibility is an essential business issue and that organisational topics are as wide-reaching as those that relate to society and the environment.

CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY (CSR)

Corporate Social Responsibility is a relational process between the corporate and the community where both enjoy a variety of mutual benefits. According to Piercy & Lane (2009:357) definitions for corporate social responsibility has sometimes become problematic since there has been so many. Werner & Chandler (2011:79) define CSR as an evaluation of the corporation and a part it plays in society that assumes a responsibility among firms to pursue goals in addition to profit maximisation and a responsibility among a firm's stakeholders to hold the firm accountable for its actions. According to Godfrey & Hatch (2007:91) CSR is established in the notion that corporations' responsibilities to society impart beyond profit-making activities. Brown & Dacin (1997:80) indicate that CSR associations manifest the organisation's status and activities with respect to its perceived societal responsibilities.

In as much as CSR has acquired increasing publicity across the business community during the past decade, it is important to distinguish that corporate social responsibility has a long history. Hopkins & Crowe (2004:207) state that there has always been a strained relationship between business and social goals. Sadler (2004:853) has maintained that the description of the roles of the corporation with relation to wider social and moral responsibilities took place in the middle of capitalist development in the 19th century.

A variety of factors are stated as being significant in building the current force behind CSR. According to Porter & Kramer (2006:79), there are four main justifications for CSR namely:

- Moral obligation,
- Sustainability,
- License to operate and
- Reputation.

Porter & Kramer (2006:79) mention that the moral argument is that companies are obliged to be good citizens while the notion of license to operate recognises the fact that companies need fully and clearly expressed or demonstrated endorsement from various stakeholders in order to operate. They further explain that a focus on reputation is rooted in the conviction that CSR commitments and achievements will help to improve a company's image and strengthen its brand(s) while sustainability looks to emphasise environmental and community stewardship. Marketing provides a strong extrinsic motivation for the increasing interest in CSR. Girod & Michael (2003:2) argue that CSR is a key tool to create, develop and sustain differential brand names. Middlemiss (2003:354) demonstrates that CSR is taking centre stage in providing a more sustainable, long term brand value. Piercy & Lane (2009:357) have claim that CSR is increasingly recognised as a source of competitive advantage.

Friedmann (2008:197) affirms that there is one social responsibility of business and that is to use its resources and engage in activities planned to increase its profits as long as it stays within the rules of the game. The business ought to engage in open and free competition without deception or fraud. Henderson (2007:28-9) speculates that growing business commitment to CSR is deeply damaged in that it rests on a mistaken view of issues and events and its general adoption by business would reduce welfare and undermine the market economy.

According to Lee (2008:54) CSR has develop from an inconsequential and usually discriminating concept to one that is today prominent and recognised in businesses globally. Campbell (2007:947) adds that CSR is seen as an umbrella phrase that takes into consideration the various ways and means a corporation conducts business which is ethically and morally justified. In the last decades, CSR has become widely famous globally.

Since the beginning of Industrial Revolution, CSR has been increasingly adopted by many businesses houses. Khan (2010:181) defines CSR as a concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interaction with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis. Jamali (2008:215) points out at that CSR has a source of competitive advantages, since it is viewed as an excellent vehicle to improve the lawfulness of the firm between relevant interest groups and to establish a strong long-term reputation. Bronn & Vrioni (2011:209) explain corporate social responsibility as the policy and practice of a corporation's social contribution over and beyond its legal responsibilities for benefiting the society at large. According to Bravo *et al.* (2012:130), CSR is corporate social actions whose purpose is to satisfy social needs. They suggest that CSR describes the extent to which organisational outcomes are consistent with societal values and expectations.

Campbell (2007:948) states that defining CSR is complex task as it has varied meanings to different people and organisations. This is because there is no agreed definition and as such organisations that are particular in their goals of incorporating CSR activities into their businesses are faced with compound problems. Campbell (2007:949) clarifies that

most of the stakeholders use different definitions that mostly suit their business actions, goals and aims. The definitions are mostly been related to the spatial dimensions or proportions of the corporations and how they look upon their officers who are accountable for CSR activities within their organisations.

Aguilera *et al.* (2007:837) assert that CSR is all about how company meditate and answer to issues beyond the limited economic, technical and legal requirements of the company so as to achieve social and environmental benefits together with traditional economic expansions. Carroll (1999:39) states that CSR comprises of four aspects: legal, economic, ethical and philanthropic (discretionary) responsibility. Carroll (1999:40-1) argues that for a corporation's strenuous efforts to be seen as good in the society, all of those four aspects should be achieved. Carroll (1999:49) clarifies the connection of the four aspects. Friedmann (2008:197) shows interest in the first three parts of CSR mentioning that corporations endure to make as much money as possible while complying with the elementary rules of society, both those associated in the law and in ethical custom. He totally opposed to the philanthropic aspect saying the business of business is business. In saying this, Carrol (1999) means that the usual economic position only acknowledges legal, ethical and economic responsibility as a crucial principle, while taking part in altruistic activities do not yield incentives for corporations.

According to Carrol (1999:49) there is an approach to the CSR issue called the functional theory which considers CSR as ethically neutral. Corporations are well-thought-out to have specific tasks or organisational codes of conduct that leverage their position in the society. Aguilera *et al.* (2007:837) put an emphasises that corporations are anticipated to

accomplish their social responsibilities by fulfilling with existing legal agendas, because the responsibility of determining social good is the responsibility of the state and not that of the corporations. Garriga & Mele (2004:52) suggest that social responsibility is in relation with corporations' decisions and actions that are taken for ins and outs at least somewhat beyond the firm's direct economic or technical interest. Portney (2008:261) debates the meaning of CSR and say that it relates to the difficulties that rise when corporate enterprise casts its shadow on the social scene, as well as the ethical principles that ought to govern the relationship between the corporation and society.

Deakin & Hobbs (2007:68) assert that corporations that perform CSR activities which are above the lowest legal requirements stand a good chance of benefiting greatly. Margolis & Walsh (2003:269) found that most corporations only focus on particular aspects of CSR: mainly the economic aspect and try to draw back from the social and environmental aspects.

CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY IN SOUTH AFRICA

The field of CSR has grown in the last decade. In South Africa, the different forms of CSR have been noticeable for many years. The nature and content given to these programmes were fundamentally shaped by apartheid. Fig (2002:81) states that the foundation for CSR in South Africa was established in the 1970s. He explains that Meyer Feldberg in 1972 delivered his inaugural lecture as the first professor of business administration at the University of Cape Town, urging that businesses function by public consent, and their main purpose is to satisfy the needs of the society.

According to Slabbert et al. (1998:16-8), Feldberg demonstrates that size, complexity, permanence and technology have contributed to necessitate businesses to be more socially responsible. Slabbert et al. (1998) further show that organisations are being requested to take responsibility of their society and to accommodate a comprehensive range of human values. Denton & Vloeberghs (2003:84) indicate that the expansion of CSR programs in South Africa has been geared towards overcoming the neglected opportunities which was entrenched by the sanctions which were placed on South Africa during the apartheid regime.

Slabbert et al. (1998:19) mention that from the 1970s towards the mid-1980s, organisations set up charitable trusts, to accommodate expanded community investments and to benefit from tax rebates. They add that tertiary institutions were the main beneficiaries of these funds. They further explain that undertakings were also made to establish formal networks between organisations interested in social responsibility in the 1980s, but this effort did not gain momentum.

Denton & Vloeberghs (2003:84) contend that the 1990s pronounced not only a new environment for business with the appearance of a new political administration, but also a stronger trend towards expanded CSR and CSI programs. The setting up of the Joint Education Trust (JET) by fifteen companies, trade unions, political parties and marked the growing importance of the trend Denton & Vloeberghs (2003).

After the 1994 South Africa's elections, Fig (2002:82) outlines that the new government launched a programme of legislation reform. The language of the Reconstruction and

Development Programme (RDP) was used by organisations to communicate their CSR programs. Spicer (2002:47) adds that by 1996, the RDP was subsidised in favour of the Growth, Employment and Redistribution strategy (GEAR). Fig (2002:82-83) indicates that later on, the government asked the businesses to help compensate for its depreciating capacity in several fields. He further indicates that this led to government appeals to businesses to help with the fight against HIV/AIDS, tourism promotion and many more community related projects.

Coldwell (2001:50) specifies that in South Africa, CSR refers to the manner in which organisations take responsibility for the social and environmental impact of their actions. He further explains that it involves developing policies and practices that integrate responsible practices into daily business practices.

CORPORATES' NEED FOR CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

Corporate social responsibility is a vital issue in current debate. New social activities and theories strongly support the expansion of socio-economically balanced corporation. According to Hall (2006:63) this means redefining the rules of the economic game in order to move from a situation of wasteful consumption and pollution to one of conservation, and from one privilege and protectionism to one of fair and equitable changes open to all. In the past the business has had to concern itself primarily with the economic results of its decisions. Presently, business must also take into account the legal, ethical, moral and social impact and impact of each of its decisions. Hall (2006) asserts that CSR refers to all of an organisation's impact on society and the needs to deal

responsibly with the impact on the group of shareholders including customers, suppliers, employees, environment and the community (both local and global).

According to Hopkins & Cowe (2004:6), key matters vary from sector to sector and organisation to organisation, but this approach usually embraces the following major issues;

- Human rights
- Labour conditions
- Environmental impact of products and/or services from creation to disposal
- Impacts of operations on local communities
- Impacts of products or services on customer

THE PRINCIPLES OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

According to Crowther & Guler (2008:14) there are three main principles that underlie CSR and these are the following: Sustainability

Society is required to use no more of a resource than can be regenerated. The effects must be taken into account not just for cost effectiveness, but also for the value it poses for future business.

ACCOUNTABILITY

This recognises that an organisation is part of a wider societal network and has responsibilities to the entire network than just the owners of the organisation. However they must recognise that external stakeholders have the power to affect the way in which those actions of the organisation can be justified. Accountability, therefore, requires

development of appropriate measures of environmental performance and reporting actions that an organisation has taken.

TRANSPARENCY

Transparency follows from the other two principles. This involves the organisation reporting all the important facts about its operation.

CORPORATE SUSTAINABILITY

Garriga & Mele (2004:52) state that sustainability as a vital issue was considered by governments when environmental problems threatening resources and natural degradation were addressed by international organisations and governments. According to Vinodh (2010:1016) sustainability refers to reducing the impact on the environment while increasing the rate of recycled materials. Joshi *et al.* (2006:76) stresses that sustainability includes the 6R concepts: recover, reuse, recycle, redesign, reduce and remanufacture. Saltaji (2013:4) states that corporate sustainability has been seen as a replacement theory to profit maximisation and traditional growth theories under conditions of bringing benefits and justice to society and protection to the environment. Eberner (2008:109) adds that business practices are enclosed by environmental and social considerations. That is, corporate sustainability covers these practices to help in accomplishing stakeholders' needs and to sustain them, increase and protect human and natural resources, in order to be used in future by upcoming generations.

Baumgartner *et al.* (2010:79) define corporate sustainability as the method used in business to ensure long-term success of shareholders' resources through opportunities

and risk management strategies derived from social, economic and environmental changes. Linneluecke & Griffiths (2010:359) are of the view that corporate sustainability is the ability to maintain economic success below environmental and social responsibilities attention. According to Kocmanove *et al* (2011:546) corporate sustainability is the capability of a firm's continuation of activities that consider the impact on social and human capitals. Kruse & Lundbergh (2010:47) view corporate sustainability as an organisation's product and services with stakeholder's expectations, thus attaching economic, environmental and social value to their products and services. Corporate sustainability tries to integrate social and environmental scope into business functions. According to Berthon (2010:357) corporate sustainability is a method of measuring performance on natural, social and environmental scopes, and to bring together social and natural values in corporate consideration.

CORPORATE ENVIRONMENTAL RESPOSIBILITY

According to Khan (2010:176) environmental problems have been raised by governments, environmental advocates, business organisations, and the public and decision makers in the previous of years. He asserts that since the beginning of the industrial revolution: global warming, ozone depletion, air and water pollution, soil erosion, and deforestation are now extensively seen as globally environmental problems which demand immediate solutions. International environmental agreements, government environmental policies and regulation, industry environmental management practices, and pro-environmental consumer behaviour are some ways of addressing environmental problems. Campbell (2007:951) mentions that although corporate environmental

expenditure have increased gradually since 1973, it is not suggestive of industries being motivated to act, but of its being forced to react.

Campbell (2007:952) suggests that corporate environmentalism, for instance the recognition and integration of environmental concerns into a firm's decision-making process, is the only way that business can address environment issues. Campbell (2007) also emphasises that corporate environmentalism has to do with the awareness by corporations that environmental problems arise from the development, manufacture, distribution and consumption of their products and services.

Lyon & Maxwell (2008:248) define environmental CSR as environmentally-friendly actions not enforced by law, but mainly viewed as a process going beyond compliance, According to Portney (2008:262) CSR is worthy if it is not advantageous to the corporation. He said that socially rewarding activities that increase profits are simply hypocritical window-dressing. It is also difficult to determine whether an organisation is intrinsically motivated to become environmentally responsible or whether their actions are propelled by external forces since there are legislations which they have to abide by. There have been attempts to explain the recent rise in environmental CSR by corporations. Lyon & Maxwell (2008:251) assume that pollution reveals wide production incompetence, and pollution reduction and cost reduction go hand in hand to create win-win opportunities in today's economy. They also mention that many green consumers are willing to pay higher prices for clean products, and firms are responding to this change.

PERFORMANCE MEASURING OF CSR

According to Aguilera (2007:837) the highly competitive environment in which corporations operate has made it necessary for them to not only engage in highly efficient CSR practices, but also account for every penny they spend in the process. Measuring how much CSR has contributed to the society and the organisations will not be possible if there are no sufficient reporting and evaluation methods in place. Aguilera (2007) further stresses that the impact of CSR is intangible; it cannot be measured accurately in either length or width, or in weight or distance.

According to Carroll (2000:466) the measurement of corporate social performance should be done as it is an important topic to both business and to society, and measurement is one part dealing seriously with an important matter. Substantial amount of effort have been channelled towards measuring the social responsible actions of corporations both by academic and business societies. On the other hand, Wolfe & Aupperle (2007:265) point out that there is no particularly good way of measuring the corporate social performance of an organisation.

BUSINESS' SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

A business's main responsibility is to make reasonable profits for its owners. According to Churchill & Peter (1998:112) an organisation's social responsibility is an acceptance of accountability to society for its actions. That is, an organisation is fully responsible for its stakeholders such as: shareholders, customers, employees, society as a whole, and the

earth's environment. Pride & Ferrell (2008:189) maintain that organisation's social responsibility should fall within three major categories:

NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Protecting and preserving the environment by participating in clean-up events, promoting reusing and recycling, minimising waste and pollution and generally re-evaluating the effects of their products on the natural environment. Saha & Darnton (2005:119) add that green marketing ought to be at the heart of any organisation's social responsibility campaign. That is, green marketing plays a vital role in communicating the organisational social responsibility.

CONSUMERISM:

Consumerism refers to all types of efforts to protect the rights of consumers. For instance, many pressure groups have taken actions against companies they consider irresponsible, such as lobbying government agencies, boycotts, and making public service announcements.

Pride & Ferrell (2008:189) further mention that in 1962, four basic consumer rights were clearly spelled out by President of United States of America, John F. Kennedy:

- The right to safety, which means that marketers have an obligation not to market harmful products,
- The right to be informed, which means that consumers should have access to all relevant information about a product before buying it,
- The right to choose means, which means that consumers should have access to a variety of satisfactory products and services at competitive prices, and

- The right to be heard, which ensures that consumers' interests will receive full consideration in the formulation of public policy.

COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Community relations refer to marketers' roles in the community. These are activities that reinforce an organisation's positive image in the community in which it operates. For example, they are expected to contribute to philanthropic activities and improve community's quality of life such as creating job opportunities, advancing economic development, upgrading technology, improving health and educational services, funding medical research projects and other similar areas.). Marketing practices are also expected to be consistent with both local and international regulations and have a high ethical integrity in relating to consumers.

THE KING REPORT ON CORPORATE GOVERNANCE

The King Report on Corporate Governance is fast becoming a useful establishment for all South African companies in terms of governance and operations. According to DuPlessis *et al.* (2011:57) the King Report on Corporate Governance (King III) was published by the King Committee on Corporate Governance headed by the former High Court Judge Mervyn King SC aimed at promoting the highest standards of corporate governance in South Africa. Engelbrecht (2010:30) states that King III became effective on 1 March 2010 and has been described by Sir Adrian Cadbury as 'the future of corporate governance.' King III (2009:4) contends that this third report on corporate governance in South Africa became necessary because of the new Companies Act no. 71 of 2008 ('the

Act’) and changes in international governance trends. It was compiled by the King Committee with the help of the King subcommittees. Its main purpose is to evaluate:

- How a company has, both positively and negatively, impacted on the economic life of the community in which it operated during the year under review; and
- How the company intends to enhance those positive aspects and eradicate or ameliorate the negative aspects in the year ahead.

According to Malan (2010:5) King III states that it has endeavoured to be at the forefront of governance internationally and focuses extensively on leadership, sustainability and corporate citizenship. He further mentions that this integrated report is defined as ‘a holistic and integrated representation of the company’s performance in terms of both its finance and its sustainability’. Malan (2010) further argues that King III states that ‘current incremental changes towards sustainability are not sufficient therefore, there is need for a fundamental shift in the way companies and directors act and organise themselves.’

According to the Institute of Directors in South Africa (2009:20) the company is important to society and is thought of a citizen of a country. Good governance can only be reached through effective leadership and ethical values of responsibility and accountability. According to the South African Institute of Chartered Accountants (2009:19) the King III report was updated and focused mainly on corporate citizenship, integrity of leadership and responsibility. The company must involve with external stakeholders, reduce the effect on the environment and help all the nations to become meaningful economic partners. According to Visser *et al* (2010:87) King III revolved around the philosophy of emphasising on good leadership, sustainability and corporate

citizenship. According to Malan (2010:5), the King III report was mainly based on the ‘apply or explain’ as opposed to ‘comply or explain’. The emphasis now falls on how the principles and recommendations can be applied, as opposed to whether to comply or not. This certainly makes it easier for small and medium enterprises, state-owned enterprises, government departments and non-profit organisations to make use of King III. Visser *et al.* (2010:87) adds that the ‘apply or explain’ allow companies to operate for the purposes for which they were intended without being bound to follow the standards which are inflexible.

According to Visser *et al.* (2010:87) social transformation and compensation within the King III report are important and must be linked with integrated sustainability reporting since sustainability is an indispensable moral and economic characteristic of any business. Sustainability reporting is now widely practised in South Africa and this seems to offer a mutual win-win solution for both the community and the organisation.

FAST MOVING CONSUMER GOODS

The previous section provides an understanding of corporate social responsibility. This section discusses how the companies and retailers of FMCG are able to shift towards sustainability by altering their business practice. FMCG brands pervade our everyday life in the form of consumer packaged goods. The FMCG sector is one of the largest sectors in the economy of South Africa which is characterised by strong multinational companies.

FAST MOVING CONSUMER GOODS

Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG), alternatively called Consumer Packed Goods (CPG) refers to retail goods that are consumed relatively quickly, many of them within a short time period of just a few days. Examples include non-durable goods such as soft drinks, toiletries, and grocery items such as meat, fruits or dairy products. According to Bala *et al.* (2010:29) FMCG are products that are characterised as being sold quickly and that have a short shelf life, either as a result of high consumer demand or because the product deteriorates rapidly. Generally, the profit per item is relatively small but since they sell in large quantities the cumulative profit can be large.

Shah (2011:69) sees FMCG as products that are sold fast at very lower prices with the smaller profit in terms of retail sales, but they are generally sold in large quantities in wholesale. Brand Career Glossary (2012:4) states that FMCG is an expression used to describe frequently purchased, low cost, low involvement, convenient consumer items, i.e., snack foods, cleaning products, stationeries, toiletries, and many more. According to Food and Safety Promotion Board (2005:2), there are other definitions regarding FMCG from various viewpoints. FMCG are usually everyday low-priced and low-risk products that require very little thought when purchasing. Examples of FMCG generally include a wide range of frequently purchased consumer products such as toiletries, cosmetics, oral hygiene products, shaving products and detergents, as well as other nondurables such as glassware, light bulbs, batteries, stationery products and plastic goods. FMCG may also include pharmaceuticals, consumer electronics, packaged food products and soft drinks, although these are often categorized separately.

FAST MOVING CONSUMER GOODS INDUSTRY

Industries for Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) have recently been one of the developing regions in the global economy. Kumar (2011:102) states that the FMCG industry is a quick, active industry with a wide range of products. Unilever (2007:5) a leading FMCG company confirms by stating that ‘150 million times a day, in 150 countries, people use our products at key moments of their day’. Bala *et al.* (2010:28) are of the same view by affirming that the FMCG industry is the world’s largest, high-velocity industry producing and selling branded goods consumed daily by consumers. Leszczyc *et al.* (2007:17) argue that FMCG industry has testified a high growth rate in the developed countries and is balanced for an exponential growth, in the revealed economies. At the same time as the rapid growth, FMCG have been described by growing competition and appearance of increasingly new formats of retailing. FMCG industry is one that deals primarily with the production, marketing, and distribution of consumer packed goods. Farfan (2011:4) contends that the FMCG industry is a unit of the economy that consists of individuals and firms dealing with sales of final products to terminate user or consumers. During the past decade, the FMCG industry has undergone main changes, which have resulted in the appearance and strength of domestic and international corporate power.

RETAIL FAST MOVING CONSUMER GOODS

Retailing is an ancient art that has been practised from the early years of mankind. Zentes *et al.* (2007:124) postulate that retailing includes the companies which basically deal with the activity of purchasing products from other firms with the purpose of reselling them to

final customers, totally without transformation, and transferring incidental services to sales department. Barman & Evans (2010:153) adds the retailing process is the last step regarding distributing the goods; thus, retailers are arranged to sell products in small quantities to the public. The services which are added to the products normally entail transportation and stock storage in order to ascertain that the products are accessible by the time they are going to be sold. In other words, retailing includes business affairs involved in selling goods and providing consumers with services considering their individual, family, or household application.

LIST OF TARGETED COMPANIES AND RETAILERS OF FMCG

Manufacturers		Retailers
		
		 

Table 1: List of targeted companies and retailers of FMCG

WASTE MANAGEMENT

Most FMCG companies are process-based, creating a lot of waste with disposal at various stages from the production, in the supply chain of goods to the consumption. Mazumder (2010:16) argues that it is the responsibility of waste management since it is

the main key in the greening initiative, because it has immediate effects on the environments.

Mazumder (2010:17) also outlines the inverted pyramid that illustrates the waste management principle. (See the diagram on the next page).

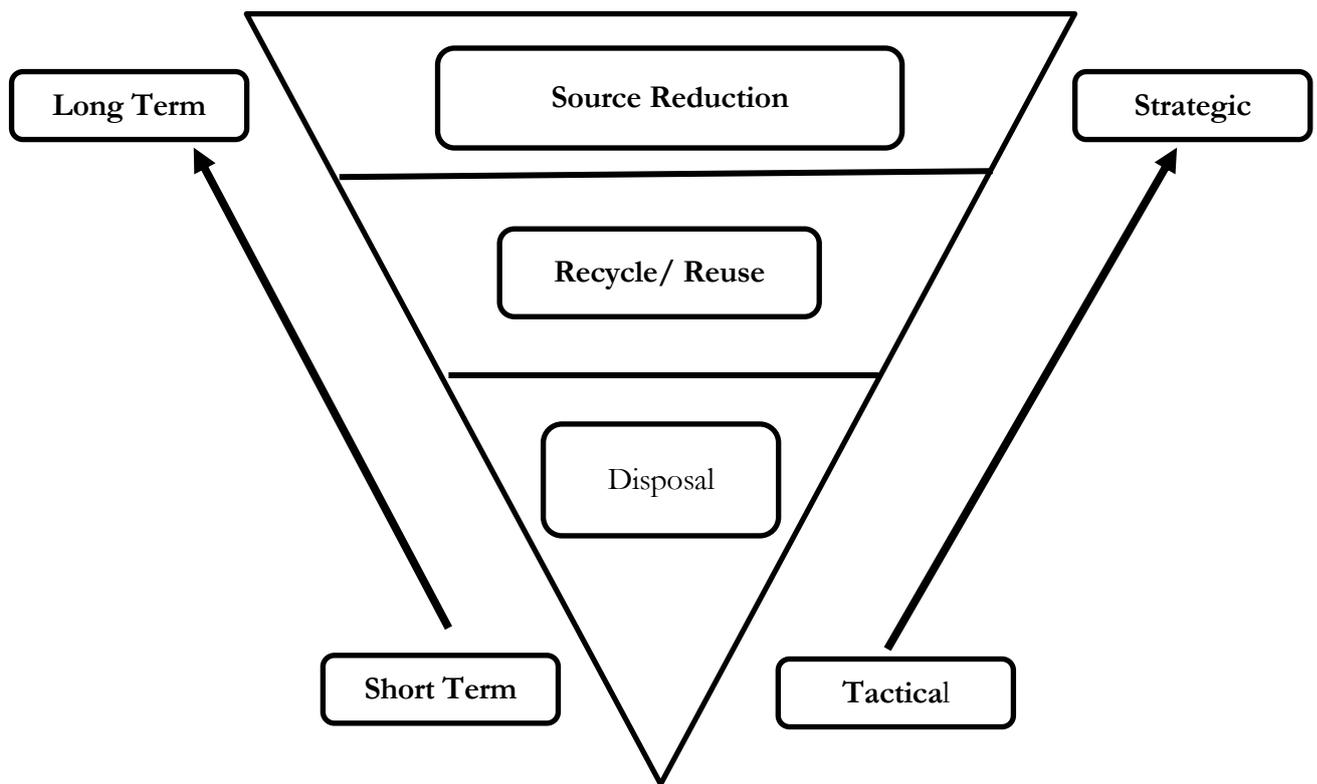


Figure 1: Inverted pyramid that illustrates the waste management principle.

Waste management (Source: Mazumder, 2010)

Mazumder (2010) specifies that a leading FMCG beverage company has taken the initiative to apply ‘reverse logistics’ by accepting used bottles. This leads to a reduction in waste both plastic and glass and produces cost savings because new bottles and

materials do not have to be produced again. He also notifies that, though a lot of companies are taking the 'greening path', it is still in the development phase. He stresses that FMCG companies need to realise the important role that the environment plays in their business, and then select the initiatives that are in line with their business strategy. The successful implementation of these 'greening' strategies or programmes is becoming a leading indicator of business success, and gives the companies a competitive advantage. In the decade ahead, when competition will only become tougher, FMCG companies that have ventured into different green supply chain management initiatives will be better placed than most traditional companies to win the customer's goodwill and to be game changers in the industry.

GREEN CONSUMERISM

The previous chapter has discussed how the manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG are able to shift towards sustainability by altering their business practice. This chapter deals with green consumerism of FMCG focusing on manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG with reference to their post consumption by consumers. Many manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG are taking a step towards ensuring their brands are credentialed in the green space. However, the materials used in the packaging of these products are most often found thrown in streets and other open areas in the community

Public concerns about the environment keep increasing globally and as well as the increasing amount of waste generated by excessive packaging and lifestyle. Alsamdi

(2007:341) states that the environment preservation and pollution reduction movements started in the 1960s, and have pressured governments and political systems to take actions towards saving the ecological system. Farjs & Martinez (2007:89) add that the global concern regarding environmental deterioration has translated into a commitment of businesses to change their processes in an attempt to protect the environment.

Baqer (2012:37) feels that pressure on businesses started in the 1980s when academic research identified increasing environmental threats. Throughout the years, companies moved from reducing pollution directly to changing their product design and their communication methods to keep up with the environmental movement. Serious deterioration of the environment became obvious in the 1990s (Alsamdi, 2007:343) when environmental movements gained importance (Paco *et al.* 2009:19). Baqer (2012:37) contends that the usual dilemma is to identify a balance between preserving the environment and sustaining economic growth. He further explains that consumers are more aware of ecological problems and are more willing to become responsible and careful with regard to consumption methods.

GREEN

There are mixed or various uses of the term 'green' globally. In nature green is mainly distinguished as a colour of growing vegetation. Simpson & Weiner (2008:81) explain that the designation often implies some additional sense: unripe and immature; young and tender; full of vigorous life and flourishing; retaining traces of newness; perceptibly fresh or recent. Eckersley (2009:78) states that the label 'green' is an extraordinarily flexible term that has been applied to, by all manner of environmental and political positions over

the past decade. McDonagh (2010:124) examines the meaning of 'green' within the context of advertising, and concludes that for different people 'green' will relate to one or more of a variety of components.

Kilbourne (2005:98) argues that there are at least five different types of green, comprising environmentalism, conservationism, human welfare ecology, preservationism and ecologism. Kilbourne (2005) states that the terms ecology, environment, and green appear synonymous. In developing clearer distinction between environmentalism and ecologism, he developed a framework within which the nature of green can be established. He then distinguishes two dimensions for the green concept; the political and the positional that is the positions of humans in nature and labelled them as environmentalism and ecologism. Carlson (2005:73) mentions that ecologism seeks qualitative change in the systems of thought that have structured the consciousness of western industrial society for the past three centuries representing ecologism as a change in consciousness rather than a change in behaviour. Kilbourne (2005:117) points out that the difference between the two types of green can also be described as anthropocentric green and eccentric green. Dobson (2006:57) refers to the two respectively as green with a 'little g' and Green with a 'capital G'.

Eckersley (2009:204) notes that according to green movement and green political party's participants, the word green portrays a typical body of ideas and a new political force. He adds that it progressed out of lack of social and political theory development, which is shortage in distributional justice and democratic participation. Porntt & Winner (2008:117) explain that the most essential purpose of green is to defeat pollution,

aggressive and money-oriented industrial society. They add that this would create a new economic and social order which will allow human beings to live in harmony with the planet.

Windsor mentions (2010:9) states that 'green' has expanded not only to address direct environmental impact, but also social issues such as fair trade, free range, and organics that relate to the conditions under which the product was produced. Shrum *et al.* (2005:72) indicate that the term 'green' is typically used interchangeably with pro environmental. However, because of differences in definitions of environment, the term is necessarily indefinite. Shrum *et al.* (2005) refer the use of the term 'green' to indicate concern with the physical environment which is air, water and land. Banerjee *et al.* (1995:187) classify different shades of green. They explained that, for consumers, being green is a lifestyle that has a minimal adverse effect on the biophysical environment. In choosing to minimise adverse environmental effects, the consumer is faced with a variety of consumption choices. They cited, for example, selecting a detergent packed in recycled paper over one that is not, or switching to a brand of detergent that contains less toxic chemicals are other examples of pursuing a green lifestyle. Banerjee *et al.* (1995:188) assert that such choices represent different degrees of greenness, but they all involve:

- Assessment of the environmental impact of product/service choices and
- Behavioural change in purchasing, consuming and disposing of product.

They conclude that being 'green' is not one part of dichotomous state. Instead, greenness should be conceptualised as a continuous variable with shallow and deep involvement as the two extremes.

Whether, the word 'green' is used in the context of consumerism, party politics, humanitarianism or corporate social responsiveness, it gives the idea of avoiding the bad use of natural resources in order to maintain originality of the environment. Prokop (1992:121) explains that, within an organisation, going green means that all parts of the organisation accept social and environmental responsibilities. An organisation's greenness can be determined from its policies and decision-making process. An organisation may decide to select suppliers based in part on the suppliers' environmental responsiveness. This kind of green organisation could provide recycling centres to which employees and community residents could bring recyclable paper, glass or aluminium, or it could share environmental awareness by ensuring that its employees are aware and informed green consumers.

GREEN CONSUMERISM

Alsmadi (2007:342) defines green consumerism as a pro-environmental consumer culture, which is characterised by a strong sense of environmental responsibility in consumption behaviour. Green consumerism is not just what we buy, but also how we live. Green consumerism refers to recycling, purchasing and using eco-friendly products that minimise damage to the environment. Moisander (2007:406) discusses green consumerism as a form of pro-social consumer behaviour. He adds that it may be seen as a specific type of socially conscious or socially responsible consumer behaviour that

involves an environmentalist perspective and may thus be called environmentally concerned consumption. Moisander (2007:407) describes environmentally concerned consumers as people whose behaviour exhibits and reflects conscious concern for the environmental consequences related to the purchase, ownership, use or disposal of particular products or services. He adds that a socially-conscious consumer, the green consumer, normally also takes into account the public consequences of his or her private consumption and attempts to use his or her purchasing power to bring about social change.

Akenji (2012:2) explains green consumerism as the production, promotion and preferential consumption of goods and services on the basis of their pro-environment claim. Green consumerism, he adds, is necessarily related to the market for products as is demonstrated by the case of eco-labelled and energy efficient products. Hartmann *et al.* (2005:22), looking at business strategies to position products as green, say that a green brand identity is defined by a specific set of brand attributes and benefits related to the reduced environmental impact of the brand and its perception as being environmentally sound. They add that although there might be diverse reasons for companies to choose eco-labelling, an important motivation is that such labelling can always be translated into traditional business criteria, aimed at short-term and long-term profits. Hobson (2009:307) adds that to the producer, being green strategically provides a market for its products placing consumers as final demanders and to the environmentally conscious consumer, green consumerism provides a warm light from acting in a selfless manner.

Princen *et al.* (2002; 310) argue that green consumerism has an end-of-pipe approach. The intention here is not to change the system, but to modify the production processes and the products that are consumed. The definition of green is based on the subjective perception of the producer and the consumer, not necessarily on the facts of whether such behaviour would achieve the end objectives of sustainability. Activities such as buying bottled tap water packaged in a recyclable PET bottle begin to take higher meaning under green consumerism. Green consumption takes place in support of some ethical imperative to consume recycled or recyclable products.

Elkington & Hailes (2008:67) state that green consumerism constitutes the protection and promotion of consumers' involvement in green products and services which are sustainable and environmentally acceptable through the cooperation of both consumers and producers. They further add that green consumerism demonstrates pressures, movements and policies of government, industry and the consumer to control their consumption patterns and lifestyle in order to prevent degrading the environment.

GREEN CONSUMERS

Farjs & Martinez (2007:73) define a green consumer as a green consumer who is an individual interested and concerned for the environment and shows an important verbal and real environmental commitment. Alsamdi (2007:341) agrees that green consumers are environmentally conscious consumers, who are loyal to green products. Shrum *et al.* (2005:81) also affirm that green consumers are consumers whose purchases are influenced by environmental issues. Chitra (2007:174) classifies green consumers into four categories of consumers:

- Aspirants who wish to purchase green products at reasonable price
- Addicts are addicted to buying green products
- Adjusters look for satisfying products (green or not green) and
- Avoiders do not believe in green consumption or green marketing.

TYPES OF GREEN CONSUMERS

According to Zinkhan & Carlson (2005:3), there are different categories of green. As per the figure of green consumers raises, organisations know them to be consistent enough to create a huge and possible market division. Coddington (1993:201) mentions that the best known division of consumers' environmental attitudes was developed in 1990 by the Roper Organisation for the consumer goods company S.C. Johnson & Son, Inc. The Roper/S.C. Johnson division identified five categories of consumer:

1. True-Blue Greens are the most vigorously green consumers. Their real behaviour is constant with very solid concerns about the environment. They might be measured as the best leaders of the green movement amongst the general population.
2. Greenback Greens are categorised because their commitment to the environment is mainly demonstrated by their willingness to pay higher prices for green products.
3. Sprouts express middle levels of concern about the environment and middle levels of behavioural response towards green products.
4. Grouzers consistently justify their lack of pro-environmental behaviour by presenting all types of excuses and criticising the poor performance of others.

5. Basic Browns simply do not believe individuals can make a difference in solving environmental problems; and they do not want to make effort.

IDENTIFICATION OF GREEN CONSUMERISM

Antweiler & Harrison (2003:494) note that the dissemination of environmental information is increasingly being used by companies and retailers of FMCG as a policy instrument to reduce their environmental impacts. Publication of information about facilities' pollutant releases can balance monitoring programs by representing which services are in obedience with existing standards. However, information may also serve as a substitute for parameter to the extent that it reminds companies to apply market pressure on to willingly reduce their carbon footprint. The idea of environmental information as an effective policy tool to reduce carbon footprint has gained support in many countries. Antweiler & Harrison (2003:497) argue that informational strategies for environmental protection are based on the postulation that firms will respond to pressure from consumers, workers, investors, and community groups armed with more complete information about firms' environmental practices.

BACKGROUND OF GREEN CONSUMERISM GLOBALLY

Concern about the impact of economic activity on the environment has been an issue of variable importance on society's agenda over many centuries. Taking the United Kingdom as an example, Freemantle & Rockey (2004:91) identify four peaks in environmental concern before the present day: the 1880s, the 1920s, the late 1950s and the early 1970s. They explain that these episodes can be viewed individually or seen as

part of regular procedure of excavating environmental concern. Each peak overlaps with the end of a period of sustained growth. According to Peattie (2001:76), during those times the environmental consequences of evolution are clear and the propensity to react in contradiction of materialist values is at its strongest.

Within the time of action in the consumer movement and its effect having increased during the 1930s, Hermann (2006:117) mentions that consumerism certainly would have gained even better impact in the following years had it not been for the coming of World War II that abstracted attention to the problem of national survival. Hermann (2006) adds that consumer actions continued to rise quickly during the 1950s. Peattie (2001:78) also says that the 'counterculture' of the late 1960s and the early 1970s challenged many of the fundamental values and expectations in industrialised society. This was also decades that environmental negligence started to clear them; and estimates of an awaiting environmental disaster were discussed and spoken as an important item on the business agenda for the first time. These portrayed helpfulness to the fact that we live in a determinate world in which constant and uninhibited economic growth and population expansion would eventually finish the natural resources and the structures upon which we hinge on.

Hermann (2006:119) says that threatening environmental estimates were mostly forgotten in the economic chaos that followed the oil crises of 1973 and 1978 and the limits to growth estimates seemed to be condemned. Peattie (2001:78) explains that environmental concern during the 1970s was very much an opportunity for self-actualisation among intellectual elite, but during the 1980s it became gradually clear that green issues drove

certain needs at all levels of society. Nevertheless, environmental regulation, like all others, was confronted as interference to economic development.

As per Peattie (2001:78), the majority of environmental legislation and energy saving measures which were the legacy of 1970s environmental concern remained in place, and this confirmed that the 1980s industrial growth was not attended by a relative rise in energy consumption and pollution. Peattie (2001) also mentions that a number of studies about the environment appeared during the late 1980s and early 1990s with the World Watch Resources Institute's State of the World Reports, World Resources Reports and the Environmental Almanacs, the organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development's State of the Environment Report and the Second Report of the United Nations Environment Programme.

Elkington & Hailes (2008:211) point out that the environmental lobby was quite weak in the 1950s and the World Wildlife Fund was not propelled until 1961. Environmental groups like Friends of the Earth and Greenpeace were products of the late 1960s and early 1970s. Nonetheless, the association of Britain's environmental and conservation organisations had then grown to around 3 million while Green peace worldwide membership increased by about 400,000 during the 1960s and early 1970s. With increasing public concern about environmental issues, European Union legislation forced new standards for products in Europe. This kind of legislature has intended that many products are 'greened' without the average consumer ever being aware of the fact.

According to Elkington & Hailes (2008:211), the 106th Plenary Meeting of the United Nations in 1985 adopted the United Nations' Guidelines for Consumer Protection (UNGCP). This was devised to address needs of consumers in all countries, particularly those in developing countries. Its objectives are:

- To assist countries in achieving or maintaining adequate protection for their population as consumers;
- To facilitate production and distribution patterns responsive to the needs and desires of consumers;
- To encourage high levels of ethical conduct for those engaged in the production and distribution of goods and services to consumers;
- To assist countries in curbing abusive business practices by all enterprises at the national and international levels which adversely affect consumers;
- To facilitate the development of independent consumer groups;
- To further international co-operation in the field of consumer protection;
- To encourage the development of market conditions which provide consumers with choice at lower prices.

Intended outcomes of the Guidelines for consumer protection:

- The protection of consumers from hazards to their health and safety;
- The promotion and protection of the economic interests of consumers;
- Access of consumers to adequate information to enable them to make informed choices according to individual wishes and needs;
- The right to consumer education;
- The right to availability of effective consumer redress
- Freedom to form consumer and other relevant groups or organisations and the opportunity of such organisations to present their views in decision-making processes affecting them.

Moolman (2005:17) indicates that governments felt the need for assistance with respect to the implementation of the guidelines. The International Organisation of Consumer Unions (IOCU) which is now called Consumers International (CI) held Regional Conferences and IOCU Regional Offices were established. However, major problems were identified, including:

- The lack of consumer protection legislation and adequate resources for enforcement thereof
- Lack of a clearly identified consumer protection authority
- Problems related to reliance on imported goods
- Inadequate labelling of goods
- Problems related to hazardous wastes and dangerous and defective goods Pricing of goods
- Lack of redress systems Lack of testing facilities
- Inadequate knowledge and training in consumer issues

Moolman (2005:19) reports that consumers globally confirmed that their countries are considering consumer protection legislation based on the consumer protection guidelines. United Nations Guidelines for Consumer Protection (UNGCP) (2005:13) summarises what has been done on a worldwide scale through agencies of the United Nations:

- The World Health Organisation (WHO) which has set appropriate standards for the use of pharmaceuticals, water, basic sanitary services and drinking water quality.
- The International Labour Organisation is active in standard setting for occupational safety and health.
- The Food and Agricultural Organisation of the United Nations (FAO) and the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) monitor harmful chemicals and

pesticides to consolidate information on products harmful to health and the environment. They also monitor disposal of hazardous waste and Trans boundary movements.

- The FAO and WHO's - Codex Alimentations Commission was established in 1962 to protect consumers to ensure fair food trade practices, food safety, pesticides and residues in food additives and contaminants.
- FAO promotes agricultural marketing activities to facilitate production and distribution patterns responsive to the needs and desires of consumers and to allow consumers the choice of products at lower prices.
- The World Intellectual Property Organisation (WIPO) is concerned with trademarks patent to protect against unfair competition.

GREEN CONSUMERISM IN SOUTH AFRICA

Tager (1995:3) mentions that South African consumers have been known for their indifference and for their lack of confidence. The absenteeism of a strong consumer movement in South Africa has to be seen in contradiction of the background of the country's history. The severe and overwhelming effects of apartheid were such that people were frightened and silenced as consumers. Apartheid deprived of people important human rights. Tager (1995) notes that consumer affairs were not been considered, and that there was an absence of interest in consumer affairs. Currently, with the post-apartheid era, there is a participation of the nine provinces in consumer affairs of which expresses better expectation for the growth of an active consumer movement.

According to Myburgh (1995:6) the South African National Consumer Union was established in 1961 as a voluntary uncontrolled body. Today it represents millions of consumers of different races. Myburgh (1995) mentions that its membership spreads from the grassroots support of women's organisations through to bodies such as the Public

Servants Association of South Africa, the South African Nursing Association and the South Africa Agricultural Union and consumers take their complaints to the suitable organisations. The Consumer Union trusts that by creating and maintaining a strong, responsible, structured consumer voice can help to build a strong economy and a more wealthy country. Consumer Union is responsible for distributing the consumer information, monitors local and overseas consumer trends, exerts influence on commerce and industry to inform the consumer better and maintains close, personal contact with consumers. The Consumer Union also investigates anything that is of concern to consumers with regards to fitness of purpose, quality, design, safety, health and hygiene, weights, sizes and packaging, and price for quality.

The Consumer Union works hand in hand with government bodies and manufacturers in the interest of consumers. Its approvals are considered by the description committees of the South Africa Bureau of Standards (SABS). The Consumer Union advises consumers to give preference to goods bearing the mark of the SABS. When a consumer is dissatisfied with a product or service, it is the consumer's right and duty to express this dissatisfaction to the dealer or manufacturer so that the latter can rectify or resolve the issue satisfactorily. After all efforts to reach satisfactory arrangement have failed one can then approach the right channels through a member organisation of the South Africa National Consumer Union (SANCU).

According to Moolman (2005:16), 31th March 1995 was declared Consumer Rights Day by the SANCU. Considering the position in South Africa, the union approached the South African Government to become signatory to the UNGCP. Moolman adds that a

Consumer Affairs Act is foreseen which will regulate national co-ordination as well as inter-provincial and inter-governmental co-operation to stop fragmentation of consumer protection legislation.

ENVIRONMENTAL CONSCIOUS

Esty (2008:837) emphasises that the environment is shared by nations around the world and therefore; the enforcement of international law is essential for solving ecological problems facing our planet. Alsamdi (2007:341) points out environmental consciousness as to show a strong sense of environmental responsibility. Miller & Washington (2009:5) further mention that among the activities that show consumers consciousness are recycling, buying environmental friendly products and reducing the use of energy. Schlegelmilch *et al.* (1996:35) investigate and discuss consumers' consciousness through four dimensions:

- perception of knowledge
- recycling
- attitude
- political actions

Pride & Ferrell (2008:109) assume that with increased ecological knowledge among consumers, companies started to produce green products. Alsamdi (2007:341) defines green marketing as marketing activities within a framework of environmental responsibility. He also defined green products as products that do not harm the environment. Davis (1994:27) states that companies are increasingly communicating their environmental activities in an attempt to strengthen their reputation and image to the

public. He also mentions that companies advertise their collaboration with charity organisations to support their good image. Environmental activities advertised include: protection of wildlife, green business processes and preserving natural resources (Davis, 1994:28). According to Schlegelmilch *et al.* (1996:35), companies are changing targeting strategies to include consumers' level of commitment to preserving the environment. They also explain that investigating green consumption habits is an important aspect of segmenting consumers by environmentally active companies.

RECYCLING

Retailers play an essential role in the recycling chain. They are the last exit point for food packaging and should be the first point of entry for re-useable waste. Fahy (2005:338) notes that the challenge to reduce carbon footprint in South Africa has become a priority for policy makers at a national, regional and local level. It has been established that levels of household waste are growing and the amount of household waste sent to landfill increased and that levels of recycling are way below the national average in addition to growing volumes of waste. Davies *et al.* (2005:209) note that although the existence of concern about the problem of household waste, there is still limited action by manufacturers and retailers of FMCG to reduce their carbon footprint.

Davies *et al.* (2005:211) emphasise that companies should reduce their waste and where it cannot be avoided it must be reduced, re-used, recycled or recovered. Only as a last resort may it be treated and safely disposed of. As such, most companies will need to review their current waste disposal and management strategies and in many instances put integrated waste management plans in place. According to Scholtz (2011:6) the most

common container in the soft drink market in South Africa is the plastic bottle or, more specifically, the polyethylene terephthalate (PET) bottle. The PET container is recognisable as the transparent, rigid container used to contain bottled water, carbonated soft drinks (CSDs), sports drinks, water, juice, household cleaners and food trays. Petco, the trading name for PET Plastic Recycling, represents major brand owners, raw materials producers, converters and bottlers. The organisation has taken the lead and responsibility for the recycling of post-consumer PET in SA, with the tonnage of post-consumer PET collected and recycled under the Petco-funded and driven projects increasing from fewer than 1 0001 recycled in 2000 to more than 22 0001 (28%) of beverage bottles recycled in SA last year that represents 1,5bn bottles to date.

GREENPEACE

According to Eden (2004:595), Greenpeace is probably the most widely recognised environmental pressure group in the world and, therefore, the *be^te noire* of many companies. It states its current mission as an independent, campaigning organisation that uses non-violent, creative confrontation to expose global environmental problems, and force solutions for a green and peaceful future. Greenpeace's goal is to ensure the ability of the Earth to nurture life in all its diversity. Schultz & Helleloid (2010:43) state that Greenpeace works to protect oceans and ancient forests, and to end toxic pollution, global warming, nuclear threats, and genetic engineering. They also outline that since 1971, Greenpeace has been the leading voice of the environmental movement by taking a stand against powerful political and corporate interests whose policies put the planet at risk.

According to Williams (2007), Greenpeace is an independent campaigning organisation that uses peaceful protest and creative communication to expose global environmental problems and promote solutions for the future. Greenpeace has sought to fulfil its mission through whistle-blowing, awareness raising, public education and political lobbying. Schultz & Helleloid (2010:43) affirm that Greenpeace's principles called for companies to eliminate hazardous substances from products and take back or recycle products once they became out-dated.

SUCCESSFUL GREENPEACE CAMPAIGNS

Deluca (2009:266) contend that there are many campaigns or actions that come to mind that were successful from a media viewpoint. Greenpeace challenged Apple to put as much effort into the environmental impact of its products as it did into other elements of product design. In 2006, Greenpeace launched a digital campaign with an imitation version of the Apple website called "GreenMyApple," which encouraged Mac lovers to push Apple to review its recycling policies and use of toxic chemicals. After having received thousands of reactions online, Apple finally decided start to comply with a more responsible rule of environmental stewardship.

Greenpeace anti-whaling campaign over the past years has also been increasingly successful in isolating Japan internationally on its defence of its inappropriate use of "scientific" whaling on a commercial scale. In 2008, Greenpeace decided to focus on Japanese youth to support Japan's termination of all whaling activities through a "whale love" bus tour and online campaign, as well as cartoon adverts in cinemas. For the first time in years, Greenpeace was able to generate significant media attention in Japan itself,

where the media were questioning the validity of the whaling industry's actions. Later on two of Greenpeace Japanese activists were unfairly arrested and charged for exposing corruption and scandal in the whaling industry. They had interrupted a box of whale meat being improperly transferred from the whaling ship Nisshin Maru to the private home of a crew member. Greenpeace Japanese colleagues took this box directly to the Tokyo public prosecutor as evidence of this improper transfer. The following press conference received major media coverage in Japan and has discredited the whaling industry. The public prosecutor actually dropped the charges against the Nisshin Maru whilst the Greenpeace activists are still under investigation.

Another direct Greenpeace action with a high media impact took place in January 2006 and actually resulted in the return of an asbestos-laden French aircraft carrier from France bound for shipbreaking in Alang, India. Greenpeace volunteers stopped and boarded the Clemenceau off the coast of Egypt and the resultant on-going international media attention ultimately forced the governments in France and India to react.

CONCLUSION

This chapter discusses the literature review aspect of the study and provides an overview for the rationale behind corporate social responsibility, fast moving consumer goods and green consumerism. It outlines how the manufacturing companies and retailers tried to reduce their carbon footprint through their choice of packaging. The chapter examines how manufacturing companies and retailers shift towards sustainability by altering their business practice and the way that post consumption managed to contribute to green renaissance. The next chapter goes on to discuss on green communication which

emphasis on communication of environmental responsibility by manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG.

COMMUNICATION PERSPECTIVES FOR GREEN CONSUMERISM

INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on green communication with emphasis on communication of environmental responsibility by manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG, as they are experiencing increased pressure to demonstrate their responsibility toward the environment. The purpose of the chapter is to assess on how companies and retailers of FMCG communicate green consumerism. An effective channel of communication is the key to providing the public with the understanding of environmental programmes.

Environmental issues have increased more prominent attention from the public and media. Communicating green consumerism issues helps creating awareness and understanding on environmental sustainability among the public. In particular, the appropriate channel used for communicating green consumerism is one of the factors that will help public to be more aware of environmental sustainability. There are a variety of communication channels through which information about a company's green initiatives can be disseminated. A company can communicate its green initiatives through official documents, such as an annual corporate responsibility report, press releases, and a dedicated section of its official corporate website; it can also use TV commercials, magazine or billboard advertisements, and product packaging.

CHANNELS OF COMMUNICATION

Companies use various types of channels for communicating green consumerism. According to Kalla (2005: 307), the choice of channels depend on how effective they are in achieving the company's goal and how they fit in a strategic external communication process. Traditional and online communication tools are two types of communication channel used for communicating with the companies stakeholders. Traditional communication tools comprise of written and face-to-face communication. Written communication is printed publication such as annual report, brochures, memorandum and newsletter. Lee (2010:41) believes that face-to-face communication is a conversation that one has while faced-to-faced with the other party which enables a person to hear and see the non-verbal communication conveyed by the sender and respond with feedback straightaway. Miller (2009:77) mentions that online or internet communications, on the other hand, are email, instant messaging, online chat rooms, e-forum, multimedia, and social media.

THE ANNUAL REPORT

Annual reports have traditionally been the most popular medium of communication. Tewari (2011:25) argues that environmental related activities are publicly declared and green initiatives are expressed by companies through their annual reports that use it as a management tool. Neu & Wright (2008:269) state that environmental communication in annual reports provides companies with an effective method of managing external impressions. Annual reports are a primary information source for investors, creditors, employees, environmental groups, the government and the public at large. Although

companies utilise a variety of communication media such as brochures and advertising in an attempt to communicate their green consumerism, Marx (2013:38) outlines that annual report appears to be the preferred method for communicating green messages with the community.

ADVERTISING

Companies also use traditional advertising channels to communicate their green messages. For example, Diet Coke has been running TV commercials on its CSR initiative to help raise environmental awareness about the deterioration of the earth, and the brand has also set up a website to communicate the brand's commitment to the cause and various ways for consumers to get involved.

SOCIAL MEDIA

Constantinides & Fountain (2008:232) discuss social media as new sources of online applications that permit user generated content which are introduced, created, disseminated and shared among people and organisations. There is a growing usage of the social media among the Global companies. Social media include a variety of on-line media platforms using social networking sites such as Facebook, Twitter, and LinkedIn, video-sharing sites such as YouTube, and photo sharing sites such as Flickr and Picasa. Unilever has developed its CSR programme on the premise that small actions make a big difference. Its CSR programme is known as the "Sustainable Living Plan." The company uses three social media platforms including YouTube, Twitter, and Facebook to communicate its green messages. The campaign focuses on three Ps: People, Planet, and

Profits. Unilever, also, makes a strong case as to why CSR makes good “Business Sense.”

PRODUCT PACKAGING

Companies can also use product packaging to communicate their green initiatives. For example, Nestle prints messages on the lids of its Nescafe container to communicate the company’s involvement in a wide variety of health and environmental initiatives.

INTERNET

This is the most important device of the new age media. Growth in information technology has transformed global accessibility of required information across boundaries and beyond national boundaries. With the onset and unique growth of internet, universally companies use internet to communicate their environmental awareness. According to Dawkins (2008:111), companies use the Internet as their main channel of communicating their green messages. He adds by mentioning that some companies are currently adapting their messages to meet the requirements of different audiences, but creative use of traditional and alternative communication channels is needed. Exchange of information through Internet is more efficient and flexible than other channels of communication. Kolk (2009:53) reports that internet reporting is increasingly preferred by companies, as it has the advantages of easy accessibility, instant availability, cost effective and environment friendly means of communicating green consumerism information among all stakeholders.

CAMPAIGN

Some companies communicate green consumerism through campaigns. For example, everybody begins to protect their environment: A rewarding recycling program in China. Coca-Cola often partners on initiatives with their key retail partners. In China, they worked with Wal-Mart and China Resources Vanguard Supermarket, to launch environmental campaigns in order to fully leverage their access to large numbers of consumers. In June 2011, together with China resources Vanguard Supermarket in Hangzhou, Coca Cola launched a three-month PET bottle recycling programme called “Everybody Begins to Protect Their Environment in Daily Life.” Consumers could send a used plastic Coca-Cola bottle to any Vanguard store, participate in trade-in deals and take part in various games, such as a creative craftsmanship contest on environmental protection, raising their environmental awareness.

CONCLUSION

This chapter has discussed the communication issues which relate to green consumerism. The different types of communication channels that manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG use to communicate their green messages were also discussed. The next chapter deals with a conceptual framework that facilitates the understating of the topic of green public relations.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR GREEN CONSUMERISM

INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter the researcher discussed the communication perspectives for green consumerism. This chapter focuses on the conceptual framework for green communication of the manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG. The various communication models are examined.

Communication does not take place by words only, but when people engage in a communication they almost always use language either for thinking or for expressing themselves. According to Frost *et al.* (1993:5), one of the ways in which people have tried to simplify the complexity of communication between people is by developing models. One of the ways in which scholars have sought to understand the nature of communication is by means of models which describe and explain the communication process. Models are visual diagrams of abstract ideas. The basic purpose of a model is to capture the essential features of a real situation in a simplified form so that it can be described, explained and understood more easily. Communication models help one to visualise the process of communication more clearly. Communication theorists use models to identify related components of the process and to provide a picture of how the components relate to each other during a communication encounter. Models can be said to reflect the view of communication presented by a particular theorist (Steinberg, 2007:52).

Steinberg (ibid) further states that a limitation of models is that it often provide simplified pictures of communication because they present only the perspectives of the communication process a particular theorist wishes to emphasise.

COMMUNICATION MODELS

A communication model describes what is necessary for an act of communication to take place. A model represents the major features and eliminates the necessary details of communication. According to Frost *et al.* (1993:5), a model is a picture or a diagram that represents a certain idea about a process which the model's developers have chosen to emphasise or study. A model is a physical or systematic representation of an object or event in idealised and abstract form. Huebsch (2000:45) contends that a model presents the core concepts of a certain subject graphically. These concepts are brought together in a logical context. He adds that a model is a virtual presentation of what actual communication could look like. Models are somewhat subjective by their nature. The act of conceptualising eliminates certain details to focus on essential factors. The key to the usefulness of a model is the degree to which it conforms in point by point correspondence to the underlying determinants of communicative behaviour. McQuali (1987:21) adds that the main aim of models is to indicate the dilemmas posed in the conceptualisation of communication. Communication models are merely pictures; they're even distorting pictures, because they stop or freeze an essentially dynamic interactive or trans-active process into a static picture. Models are metaphors. They allow us to see one thing in terms of another.

FUNCTIONS OF COMMUNICATION MODELS

- To clarify the scope of human interaction showing it to be a circular, continuous dynamic, or a coding process.
- To point out where the books and under what conditions to analyse different responses.
- To show the variables in human communication.
- Used as a framework in researches.

ADVANTAGES OF MODELS

Models represent the relevant elements of communication and they enable the reader to see an already familiar process from a different point of view. One of the advantages of a model is that it should allow one to ask questions. Huebsch (2000:45) emphasises that a good model indicates the main element of communication clearly, at the same time indicating the interrelationship between these elements. A good model is useful, then, in providing both general perspective and particular vantage points from which to ask questions and to interpret the raw stuff of observation. Huebsch (2000:46) further explains that models can simplify otherwise complex processes. He warns that models should not be oversimplified as this could cause misinterpretation and incompleteness which are serious communication barriers. They should clarify complexity. Models also clarify the structure of complex events. The aim of a model is not to ignore complexity or to explain it away, but rather to give it order and coherence.

Mortensen (2011:71) believes that models should lead us to new discoveries-most important. Furthermore, models have investigative value; that is, they provide new ways

to conceive of hypothetical ideas and relationships. With the support of a good model, suddenly we are jarred from conventional modes of thought.

DISADVANTAGES OF MODELS

Models can lead to oversimplification. There is no denying that much of the work in designing communication models illustrates the oft-repeated charge that anything in human affairs which can be modelled is by definition too superficial to be given serious consideration.

COMMUNICATION MODELS

Two models are discussed in the chapter, namely:

- Shannon & Weaver's model of Communication and
- Uses & gratification theory

These models will be used to conceptualise a model for communication between the manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG and the community.

SHANNON AND WEAVER'S VIEW OF COMMUNICATION

Fournier (2010:86) notes that Claude Shannon was research scientists at Bell Telephone Company trying to achieve maximum telephone line capacity with minimum distortion. He had never intended for his mathematical theory of signal transmission for anything, but telephones. But when Warren Weaver applied Shannon's concept of information loss to interpersonal communication, one of the most popular models of communication was

created. They developed a model of communication which was intended to assist in developing a mathematical theory of communication.

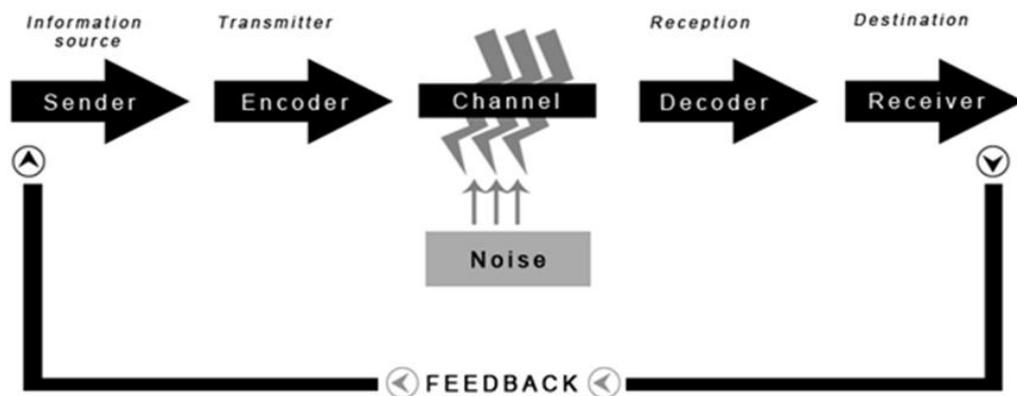


Figure 2: Shannon and Weaver Communication Model

Reference: Shannon-Weaver (2007:34)

ELEMENTS OF A MODEL

A regular communication model embraces the following elements:

- An information source, which produces a message (sender)
- A transmitter, which decodes the message into signals
- A channel, to which signals are adopted for transmission.
- A receiver/reception, which decodes (constructs) the message from the signal.
- A destination, where the message arrives
- Noise is a defective factor: which means any with the message travelling along the channel which may lead to the signal received being different from that sent.

Steinberg (2007:53) argues that Shannon and Weaver's model, an information source formulates a message, which is sent through a transmitter, and then sent along a signal towards the receiver. But before it reaches the receiver, the message must go via noise (sources of interference). Lastly, the receiver must convey the message to its destination.

Steinberg (ibid), supposes one has an idea in one's head (information source) that one want to tell someone about. One must first move the idea from ones' brain to ones' mouth (transmitter). Since one cannot actually share ones' grey matter, one must select words for ones' transmitter to use. Once one speaks, ones' voice (signal) is carried through the air toward the listener's ear (receiver). Along the way, ones' signal is joined by a numerous of other sounds and distractions (noises). The receiver then takes everything it receives and tries to maximum the message and minimises the noise. Finally, the receiver conveys its message to the other person's mind (destination) to understand why other people just cannot clasp what one already knows.

ADVANTAGES OF SHANNON AND WEAVER'S MODEL

Shannon & Weaver's model has the following advantages:

- It is simple to understand
- It can be used generally to understand communication
- It can be used to quantify communication perspectives

LIMITATION OF SHANNON AND WEAVER MODEL

The information source is seen as the active decision-maker who determines the meaning of the message; the destination is the passive target. It is linear, one-way model, scribing

a secondary role to the receiver, who is seen as absorbing information. There is no provision for feedback from the receiver which enables the speakers to adjust their performance to the need and responses of their audience. This model tends to connect content and meaning, whereas there may be varying degrees of separation between the intended meaning and the meaning generated by interpreters. It is assumed that meaning is contained in the message rather than in its interpretation.

USES AND GRATIFICATION THEORY

According to Steinberg (2007:268-269) the uses and gratification theory suggests that essential human needs motivate individuals to focus on particular mass media, and to select and use media messages in ways they find personally gratifying or rewarding. Therefore, a specified medium, such as the radio, and a certain message, such as weather information, might be used by different individuals in different ways depending on their particular needs and interests they are seeking to satisfy.

Banning (2002:17), states that uses and gratifications theory suggests that people interact with media messages and use the media for different purposes. Certain types of media have often been found to correspond with certain types of uses. Steinberg (2007:268-272) is of the same view by mentioning that uses and gratification theory suggests that basic human needs motivates individuals to attend to particular mass media, and to select and use media message in ways they find personally gratifying. The mass media, in turn, compete with one another to gratify these needs (Rensburg, 1996:169). In assumption, people use specific media for specific reasons and frequently interact with the media on purpose. It has been said that advertisers use different types of media to sell their

products and, within the process the receivers are made aware of other needs while satisfying another one particular need. For example, I may be watching a movie at metro cinema because I have a need for watching that particular movie, but during the break time, I am also confronted with various advertisements which could make me aware of other needs I might have, such as hunger brought to mind by an advertisement for Wimpy burger combo and pop-corns. According to Steinberg (2007:268-269) the use and gratification theory puts the receiver at the centre of the persuasive process, not the message. Rensburg (1996:169) states that by focusing on the active participation of the receiver, the question becomes not what does the media do to the receiver? But what does the receiver do with the media?

Some of the theories on media say a lot about the special effects media have on people. It is the theory which states of how people consumes or utilise media for their need and gratification. In other words, we can guess this theory explains not what media do to people, what people do with the media. According to uses and gratification theory, people make use of the media for their specific needs. The theory can be said to have a people oriented approach. Even for communication people refer to the media for the topic they like and they obtain knowledge by using media. Steinberg (2007:268-269) also mentions that one of the major consequences of uses and gratification research is to identify the essential need categories that can be fulfilled by using different media. Tan (1985) in Steinberg (2007:268-269) suggests five categories which represent mass communication can satisfy people's needs.

COGNITIVE NEEDS

According to Steinberg (2007:268-269) these are needs connected to gaining information, knowledge and understanding the environment, and also satisfying curiosity. In other words, people use media to obtain knowledge and information. Some of the audiences have intelligence need to gain knowledge, but they obtain knowledge in different ways as people have different needs. For example, other people can acquire knowledge and information by watching news on television or through listening to the radio to satisfy their need. Some people make a use of search engines in the internet to obtain more knowledge and they can even look for any subject. Dominick (2005:43-44) is of the same point by saying cognition is the act of coming to know something. When a person uses a mass medium to obtain information about something, then he or she is using the medium in a cognitive way. Dominick (2005) mentions that the uses and gratification model posits that the audience members have certain needs or drives that are satisfied by using both non-media and media sources. He further explains that the two different types of cognitive functions are performed. One has to do with using the media to keep up with information on current events, while the other has to do with using the media to learn about things in general or things that relate to a person's general curiosity. Several surveys have found that many people give the following reasons for using the media:

- To keep up with what the government is doing.
- To understand what is going on in the world.
- To know what political leaders are doing.

These reasons constitute the current-event type of cognitive gratification. At the same time, many people also report the following reasons for using mass media:

- To learn how to do things I have never done before.
- To satisfy my curiosity.
- The media make them to want to learn more about things
- The media gave them ideas.

These statements illustrate the second type of cognition; using the media to satisfy a desire for general knowledge.

DIVERSION

Another basic need of human beings is for diversion. According to Dominick (2005:44-46), diversion can take many forms. Some of the forms identified by researchers are:

- Stimulation or seeking relief from boredom or the routine activities of everyday life.
- Relaxation or escape from the pressures and problems of day-to-day existence.
- Emotional release of pent-up emotions and energy.

STIMULATION

Seeking emotional or intellectual stimulation seems to be an inherent motivation in a human being. Dominick (2005:44-46) explains that many people report that they watch, read, or listen simply to pass the time. The media have taken advantage of this need to avoid boredom in many creative ways. Ted Turner has started an airport TV channel that beams news and commercials to passengers in airline terminals. Some airlines provide audio and video entertainment during long flights. Supermarkets have grocery carts with video screens that display the latest bargains. Some restaurants and coffee houses have computers on their tables to allow customers to surf before they sup. There are now

special magazine that are distributed only to doctors' waiting rooms. Advertisements are now found on the walls and on the backs of stall doors in the rest rooms.

RELAXATION

Too much stimulation, however, is undesirable. According to Dominick (2005:44-46), psychological experiments have indicated that human beings are negatively affected by sensory overload, in which too much information and stimulation are present in the environment. When faced with sensory overload, people tend to seek relief. The media are one source of this relief. Watching *Friends* or reading *People* magazine represents a pleasant diversion from the frustrations of everyday life. The choice of material used for relaxation might not always be apparent from surface content (Dominick, 2005). Some people relax by reading articles about grocery items; others read about the apartheid history. Still others might relax by listening to serious classical music. The content is not the defining factor, since virtually any media material might be used for relaxation by some audience members.

EMOTIONAL RELEASE

The last manifestation of the diversion function is the most complex. On the one hand, the use of the media for emotional release is fairly obvious. For instance, *Titanic* has prompted thousands, perhaps millions, to cry their eyes out. On the other hand, emotional release can take more subtle forms. One of the big attractions of soap operas, for example, seems to be that many people in the audiences are comforted by seeing by seeing that other people (even fictional people) have troubles greater than their own. Other people identify with media heroes and participate vicariously in their triumphs.

Such a process evidently enables these people to vent some of the frustrations connected with their own normal lives. Emotional release was probably one of the first functions to be attributed to media content.

SOCIAL UTILITY

Dominick (2005:46-47) reports that psychologists have also identified a set of social integrative needs, including our need to strengthen our contact with family, friends, and others in our society. Dominick (2005) further argues that the social integrative needs seem to spring from an individual's need to affiliate with others. The media function that addresses this need is called social utility, and this usage can take several forms. First, if a person have ever talked with a friend about TV programme or discussed the issues they heard on the radio, then they are using the media as conversational currency. According to Dominick (2005), the media provide common ground for social conversations and many people use thing that they have read, seen, or heard as topics for discussion when talking with others. There is certain social usefulness in having a large repository of things to talk about so that, no matter where you are, you can strike up a conversation and be fairly sure that the person you are talking to is familiar with the subject. Other people report that they use the media, particularly TV and radio, as a means to overcome loneliness. The TV set represents a voice in the house for people who might otherwise be alone. Radio keeps people company in their cars. In fact, some viewers might go so far as to develop feelings of kinship and friendship with media characters.

WITHDRAWAL

Dominick (2005:46-47) states that at times, people use mass media to create a barrier between themselves and other people or activities. For example, the media help people avoid certain chores that should be done. In this case, attending to mass media content was defined as a socially appropriate behaviour that should not be interrupted. People also use the media to create a barrier zone between themselves and other people. When a person is riding a bus or sitting in a public place and do not want to be disturbed, she or he can bury his or her head in a book, magazine, or newspaper. Sometimes they can even insert a pair of earphones in their ears and tune everybody out.

CONTENT AND CONTEXT

Dominick (2005:46-47) emphasises that it is not only media content that determines audience usage, but also the social context within which the media exposure occur. For example, soap operas, situation comedies, and movie magazines all contain material that audiences can use for escape purposes. People going to a movie, however, might value the opportunity to socialise more than they value any aspect of the film itself. Here the social context is the deciding factor. Dominick (2005) explains that it is also important to note that the functional approach makes several assumptions:

1. Audience take an active role in their interaction with various media. That is, the needs of each individual provide motivation that channels that individual's media use.

2. The mass media compete with the other sources of satisfaction. Relaxation, for example, can also be achieved by taking a nap or having a couple of drinks, and social utility needs can be satisfied by joining a club or playing touch football.
3. The uses-and-gratifications approach assumes that people are aware of their own needs and are able to verbalise them.

CONCEPTUALISING A MODEL FOR PROMOTING A GREENER ENVIRONMENT THROUGH FMCG

Shannon & Weaver's (2007) communication model helps us understand the communication problem which exists in promoting a greener environment through FMCG. Shannon & Weaver (2007) probe us to identify the distractors of communication which hinders effective communication in promoting a greener environment through FMCG.

According to the literature review, possible problems in communication could arise from the following:

- Incorrect choice of language (encoding) is the main distortion to an effective communication.
- A wrong medium or an inappropriate medium chosen for communicating a message will act as a barrier to communication.
- Lack of communication skills/knowledge by managers who hold higher positions in the organisations.
- Lack of communication is considered to be a major reason for commercial failures of environmentally sustainable products mainly because communication

is a major step in the development of a positive behaviour towards consumer's consumption and disposal patterns.

When we apply the "Uses & Gratification theory" to this situation, we notice that the organisations provide information to the community on how to be greener. However, the organisations seem not to send the message or information using the best channel for the community.

Finally, from a theoretical perspective the following would be an 'ideal' solution to the problem:

- An organisation must communicate message using the best channel for the audience.
- The language that is used to communicate information must be best suitable for the audience that the message is intended for.
- The communication officers/public relations officer must be people who are clearly qualified for that specific job description.

In looking at some of these attempts this is not the best solution or the most feasible solution, but it is an ideal solution which offers the framework or the starting point from which we can examine the real solution. The following chapters will look at responses from real people. This will enable us to provide a more realist solution.

CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided a conceptual framework for communication perspectives for green consumerism. With regard to the conceptual aspect of communication, two models namely: Shannon & Weaver (2007) and uses and gratification theories were discussed.

The following chapter explains the research procedures that were used in conducting the study.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter has provided the conceptual framework for green consumerism. In this chapter, the researcher will provide insights into research methodology techniques used in this study. The researcher will, therefore, discuss in detail how a questionnaire was designed; the methods of data collection, evaluation of results, analysis and data processing will also be outlined.

RESEARCH

Fraenkel & Wallen (2000:9) argues that research refers to any careful, systematic, patient study and/or investigation into some field of knowledge that is undertaken to discover or establish facts and principles.

RESEARCH DESIGN

Best & Kahn (2006:246) explain that research methodologies can be divided into two major paradigms: logical positivism and phenomenological enquiry. Durrheim & Painter (2006:47) observe that the research paradigm has many implications for the design, sampling, data collection instruments, and analysis of a study, because these aspects differ depending on which research approach is chosen. As Best & Kahn (2006:246) assert that all qualitative research uses the design strategies of emergent design flexibility and purposeful sampling, and most use naturalistic enquiry. In contrast, quantitative

research makes use of experimental methods and quantitative measures to test hypothetical generalizations. Quantitative researchers, according to Hoepfl (2007:87), seek causal determination, prediction, and the generalisation of findings, while qualitative researchers seek illumination, understanding, and extrapolation to similar situations.

THE NATURE OF THE RESEARCH

This research study is quantitative in nature. Best & Kahn (2006:246) explain that research methodologies can be divided into two major paradigms: logical positivism and phenomenological enquiry. Quantitative research methodologies fall within the logical positivist paradigm while qualitative research methodologies fall within the phenomenological enquiry paradigm. According to Leedy (1998:9), research methodology assists in controlling the study, dictating the acquisition of data to address the research question, arranging data into logical relationships to enable analysis, and the drawing of conclusions that can contribute to the expansion of knowledge. Both quantitative and qualitative approaches were used by the researcher to complement each other and to obtain in depth analyses. The qualitative point of view implicated an empirical literature review. The quantitative study involves research methodology based on sampling techniques, questionnaires and interviews. The data was then captured and coded on MoonStats2 programme which was then employed for the interpretation of the data results.

QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

Quantitative research refers to a study that is numerically oriented, requires significant attention to the measurement of phenomena, and often involves statistical analysis. Hopkins (2007:109) defines it as research that aims to determine the relationship between one thing (an independent variable) and another (a dependent or outcome variable) in a population. There are various quantitative research methods that researchers can use in studies today. Myers (1997:28) identifies the following quantitative methods, which are all generally accepted in the social sciences: surveys, laboratory experiments, formal methods (e.g. econometrics) and numerical methods, such as mathematical modelling.

According to McCarthy (2006:67), quantitative methods are perfect for getting to the nuts-and-bolts of a situation, or the what, where, when and questions. The quantitative approach was combined in the structured questions included in the survey (specifically the questionnaire). Its inclusion was necessary to reach out to a relatively large population reasonably and easily. It also made it easier to measure descriptive aspects of the study, such as the composition of the population. Opperman (2004:31) provides the following advantages and disadvantages pertaining to quantitative:

ADVANTAGES OF QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

- The research method is easy to imitate and consequently has high reliability.
- Results can be reduced to a few numerical statistics and interpreted easily.

DISADVANTAGE OF QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

- Quantitative research restricts itself to data experiences and rejects any speculation.

- Knowledge is based on rationally and this approach denies other methods of acquiring knowledge. (Opperman, 2004:31).

QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

According to Trochim (2001:78), qualitative research may generally be understood as research that is conducted in a natural setting; a researcher gathers words or pictures, analyses them inductively, focuses on the meaning of the participants, and describes a process that is both expressive and persuasive in language. Sarantakos (1997:6) recaps that qualitative research employs methods of data collection and analysis that are non-quantitative. Such research aims to explore sociological elements and describe reality as experienced by the respondents. Flick (2006:11) confirms the view that qualitative research is of specific relevance to the study of social relations.

According to Shenton & Dixon (2003:1), qualitative research can explore a particular phenomenon at length, typically through the collection and analysis of subjective data from a relatively small number of participants involved in the processes, circumstances or situations at the heart of the enquiry. Examples of qualitative research methods include action research, case study research and ethnography. Qualitative data collection techniques include general and participant observation (fieldwork), interviews and questionnaires, documents and texts, and descriptions of the researcher's impressions and reactions (recorded or noted down) (Myers, 1997:26). The qualitative methods employed in this study were interviews and the questionnaires. Opperman (2004:30) provides the following advantages and disadvantages pertaining to qualitative:

ADVANTAGES OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

- Qualitative designs are more flexible than quantitative designs.
- Qualitative themes and categories can be developed as methods to explore and describe meanings in particular contexts.

DISADVANTAGES OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

- It is hard to replicate qualitative research as it does not have structured design or a standardized procedure.

TARGET POPULATION

According to Neuman (1998:166-167), a target population is the concretely specified large group of many cases from which the researcher draws a sample and to which results from the sample are generalized. He further states that it studies objects which can be individuals, groups, or organisations. Neuman (1998) also states that population is the abstract idea of large group of many cases from which a researcher draws a sample and to which results from a sample are generalized. The target population of the study were people in Richards Bay.

ETHICAL REQUIREMENTS

The researcher issued a consent letter seeking permission on behalf of the University of Zululand and the Department of Communication Science to carry out the research study to the respondents. The researcher ensured that all ethical procedures are followed. The researcher explained in detail the objectives of the study to the participants. All participants were given an information sheet with all contact details and ensuring the respondent of the confidentiality, anonymity and right to withdraw from this research. Participants were required to sign a consent which indicates their willingness to

participate in the research study. All relevant research documents were handled as confidential and only the researcher had access to them. Findings would be published and made available to the respondents from the community and participating companies that manufacture FMCG and retailers.

CONFIDENTIALITY AND ANONYMITY

According to Grinyer (2012:7) making data anonymous means removing the respondent's name to protect a participant's identity. The researcher took as many precautions as she could to protect anonymity by handling data with an intensive care. Confidentiality relates to the protection of the data collected. Where the aim of the research is specifically to access private feelings, and concerns, the researcher was clear about how the confidentiality of that data will be respected. The researcher was clear about the level of confidentiality, that no one except her (the researcher) will have access to the information given.

THE SAMPLING PROCEDURE

Kumar (2011:194) defines the sample size as the number of individuals included in a study from whom the required information is obtained. According to Neuman (1998:164), a sample is a smaller set of cases a researcher selects from a larger pool and generalises to the population. According to Goddard & Melville (2001:1), random selection is the basic principle used to try to avoid bias in a sample. A simple random sampling was selected as the sampling method. The consumers of FMCG in Richards Bay were sampled to respond to the questionnaires. The desktop research was conducted

from the manufacturing companies and retailing stores of FMCG websites. According to Du Plooy (2002:104) the table below can be used to select a sample size that provides a 95% confidence level.

Population size	Sample size
Infinity	384
500 000	384
100 000	383
50 000	381
10 000	370
5 000	357
3 000	341
2 000	322
1 000	278

Table 2: Sample size at 95% confidence level
Source: Du Plooy (2009:113)

According to Fisher (2007:97), the number of distributed questionnaires will have to be larger than the minimum required and the response rate of 30% is considered very well. The researcher targeted was 384 respondents, but handed out more in case some of the questionnaires are not returned or destroyed. In the study, 400 questionnaires were distributed and 363 questionnaires were returned almost 91% response rate.

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Joseph *et al.* (2003:169) explain that the reliability is associated with consistency of a measure and validity is related with accuracy. If there are any interpretations of the findings, the credibility of the study must be recognised through the determination of its reliability and validity.

Coolican (1992:35) affirms that an effect or test is valid if it measures what the researcher thinks or claims it does. Du Plooy (2002:125) states that face validity, expert-validity, criterion-based validity and construct validity are various procedures or methods that could be used to support the validity of a measurement. For the purposes of this study, construct validity was used to support the validity. Welman *et al.* (2008:142) add that when something is measured with an instrument, the instrument used to measure the variable must measure that which it expected to measure. This requirement is referred to as the construct validity of the scores obtained on a measuring instrument. This concludes that construct validity involves a measuring instrument to some overall theoretical framework to make certain that the measurement is actually logically correlated to other concepts in the framework. For the purpose of this study validity was implemented by using the literature review to construct the measuring instrument (i.e., the questionnaire).

On the other hand, reliability involves the consistency of the research findings. To enhance reliability, the researcher conducted a pilot test among five consumers. The responses of the five interviewees were comparatively similar, and the participants indicated that the questions were relevant, adequate and easily understood; thereby leaving the researcher to believe that the questionnaire used for the purpose of this study was fairly reliable.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Du Plooy (2002: 147) argues that in addition to use of questions, scales and self-administered questionnaires, researchers who want to collect information by means of observations can use different instruments, or even design their own. Mouton (2001:100)

states that in order to collect data, some form of measuring instrument has to be used. Therefore, self-administered questionnaires were used to collect data in this study.

THE QUESTIONNAIRES AS A RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

According to Sekaran (1984: 200), survey questionnaires are pre-formulated written set of questions to which respondents record their answers. Leedy (1998:142) agrees by stating that its basic function is to collect data. He further stated that the questionnaires must be planned or designed to fulfil a definite research objective.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire was carefully constructed in both structured and unstructured to facilitate maximum response and at the same time, obtain more detailed information. The questionnaire is made up of three sections which are sections; A, B and C.

Section A consisted of personal information of the respondent, section B focuses on Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) and section C focuses on community's carbon footprint concerning the post consumption of FMCG.

DATA ANALYSIS

A large number of statistical techniques are available for analysing data and the researcher decided to use MoonStats2 to analyse data in this study. Welman *et al.* (2005:319) states that MoonStats2 is a statistical software program that gives the statistical tools for data exploration and data descriptions. All statistical routines are complemented by graphs to enhance the user's visual understanding of the statistic. The

program performs the standard descriptive statistical computations as well as a selection of bivariate descriptive and inferential statistics.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Several problems were encountered during the course of this study. Often with research that involves big multinational companies, problems of access are bound to occur and complicate matters. The researcher wrote an access letter to the companies and retailers of FMCGs in August 2013 seeking for a permission to conduct a study, but she did not get any responses from any of the companies. In December of the very same year, the researcher wrote another letter to those companies again. In December the 17, the researcher received an email from one of the companies, with some questions that were addressed to the researcher. The researcher answered those questions and emailed her responses, but this time around she was told to seek consent from Consumer Goods Council of South Africa (CGCSA), the body that represents retailers and manufacturers. The researcher wrote the CGCSA a letter, but she never receives any response.

The initial non-response of the manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCGs as well as the CGCSA was very frustrating to the researcher and had a negative impact on the completion of the study. As a result, the no-response-stance resulted into an arm's-length study being conducted through a desktop research. Unfortunately the manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCGs have no voice in such an arm's-length study.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the researcher outlines the research procedure of this study. It focuses on the methodology used to conduct the empirical study. It explains the research design that was used, the methods and the instrument used for collecting the data, as well as techniques which are used for analysis. The following chapter provides a foundation for the analysis and interpretation of raw data which leads to the findings of the study.

Chapter 6

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided an overview of the research procedures that was used for the study. This chapter focuses on analysing raw data and presents the results of the study. Graphs and tables are used as addendum to demonstrate the findings. This chapter is important since it provides the views of the various respondents that participated in the study.

DATA ANALYSIS

Section A outlined personal information of the respondents.

Gender of respondents

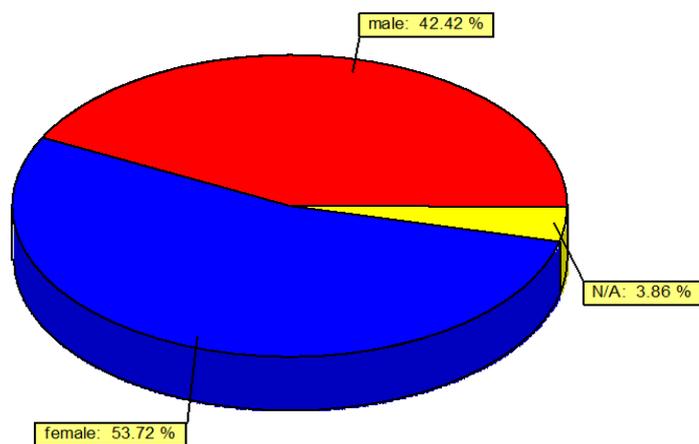


Figure 3: The distribution of respondents according to their gender

Figure 3 displays the respondents' gender. Out of the 363 respondents that were interviewed, 54% were female, 42% were male and 4% of the respondents remain unknown.

Age of Respondents

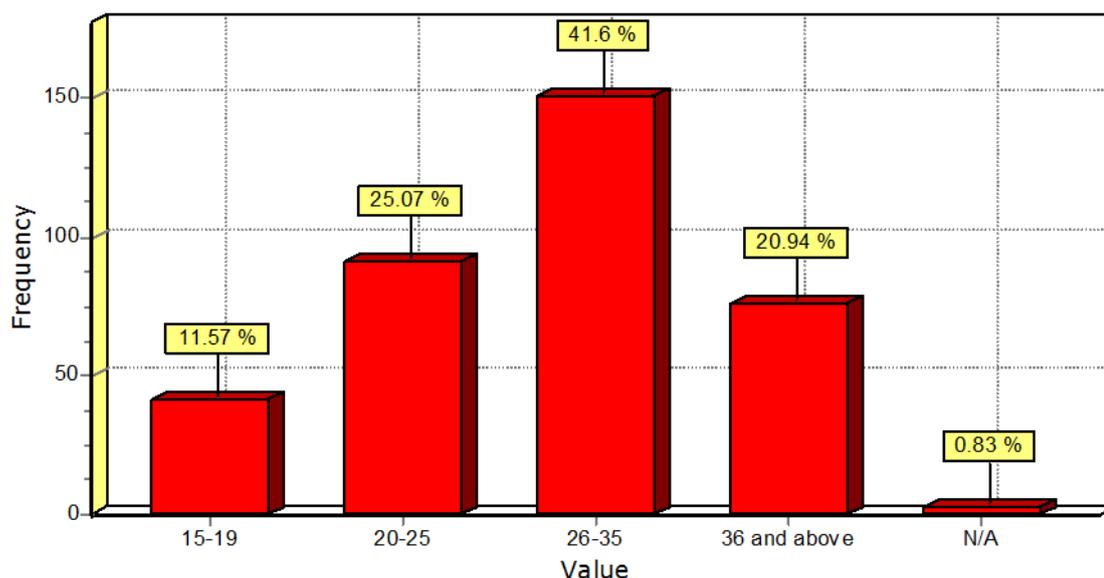


Figure 4: The distribution of respondents according to their age

Figure 4 illustrates the various age categories of the respondents that participated in the research. The age of respondents ranges from, 15-19, 20-25, 26-35, 36 and above. A total of 42% were between 26-35 years of age, 25% were between 20-25 years of age, about 21% were 36 and above years of age. Almost 12% were between the ages of 15-19 and about 1% chose not applicable. The highest percentage of respondents was between the ages of 26-35 which totalled to 42% of the sample population. This indicates that the majority of the respondents were youth.

Children of Respondents

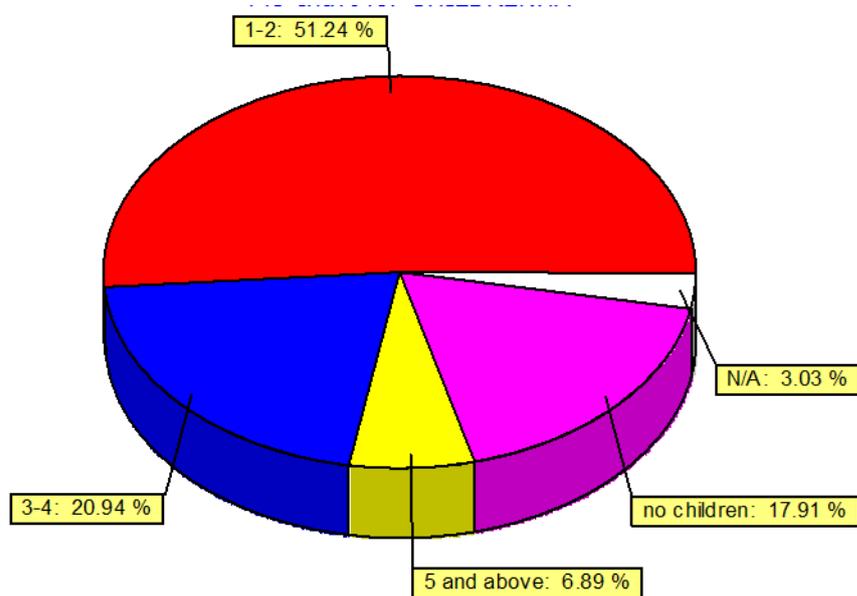


Figure 5: The distribution of respondents according to their children

Figure 5 illustrates that 51% of respondents have 1-2 children, 18% of the respondents have no children, about 21% of the population have 3-4 and almost 7% have 5 and more children. It is important to note that respondents who have child that range between 3-4 and 5 and above may very well be unable to provide adequately for their children's well-being since they could face financial difficulties.

Employment of Respondents

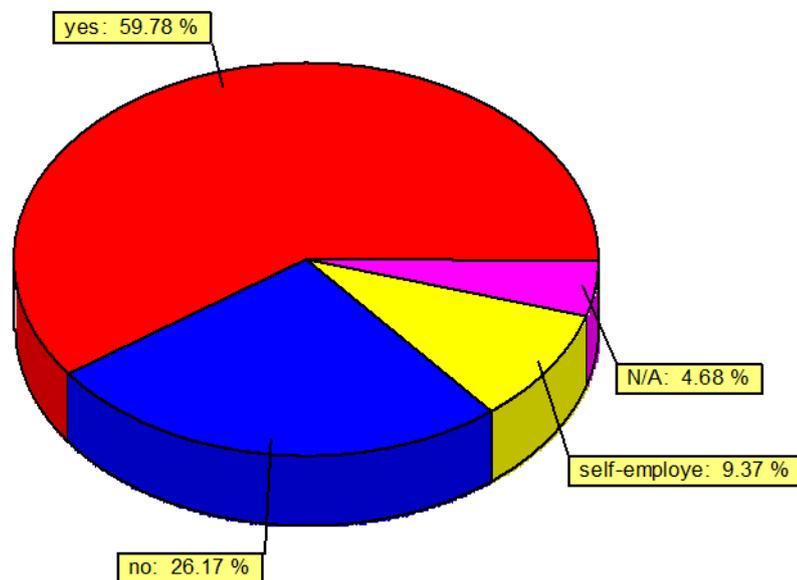


Figure 6: The distribution of respondents according to their employment

Figure 6 graphically demonstrates that almost 60% of respondents' represents the working class, while 26% of the sample populations are not working and 9% of the respondents are self-employed. A total of 5% indicated not applicable to them. It is clear that unemployment is high and if it is not attended to it could rapidly increase. Furthermore, if there is no development and no effort to overcome this unemployment problem, the view of the local community will deteriorates which can also lead to anti-social behaviour and even serious crime.

Section B focused a lot more on information about FMCG. Note that FMCG are low-priced items that are used with a single or limited number of consumption occasions and are also sometime referred to as consumer packaged goods or groceries.

Familiarity of FMCG

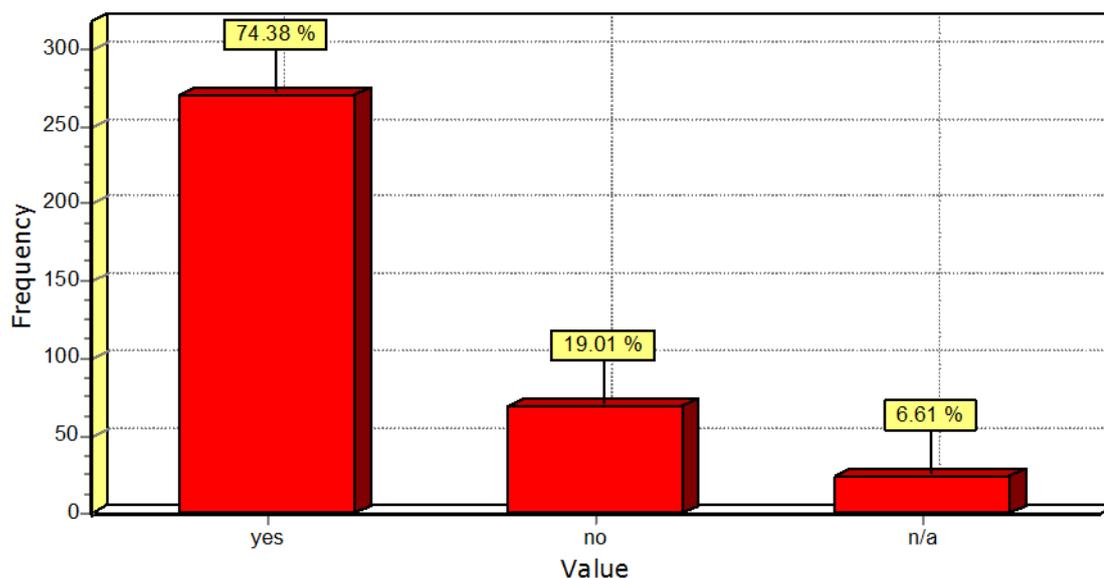


Figure 7: Familiarity of FMCG

Figure 7 illustrates that more than 74% of the sample population is familiar with the FMCG products. 19% of the respondents were certain that they are not familiar with the FMCG products. Nearly 7% felt that the question was not applicable to them. Most of the respondents are familiar with the FMCG. Some of the respondents are not familiar with the FMCG; however, they consume the FMCG on their daily basis. This is satisfactory because a large number of the population is familiar with these products.

Shopping for grocery items

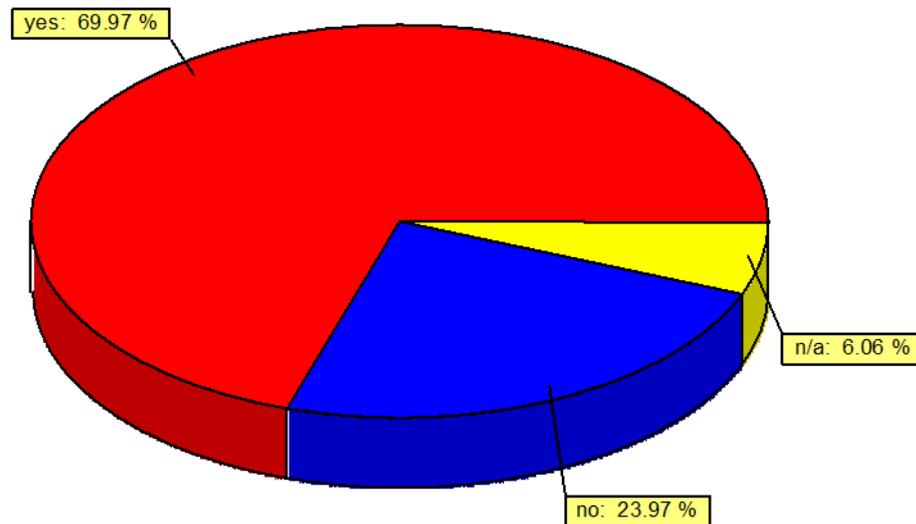


Figure 8: Shopping for grocery items

Figure 8 shows that about 70% of the sample population does shop for grocery items. Roughly 24% indicated “no” and 6% felt that the question was not applicable to them. The large number of respondents shop for groceries. However, this indicates that whether the respondents are working or not, poor or rich, almost every person does buy and consumes FMCG products.

Satisfaction about FMCG

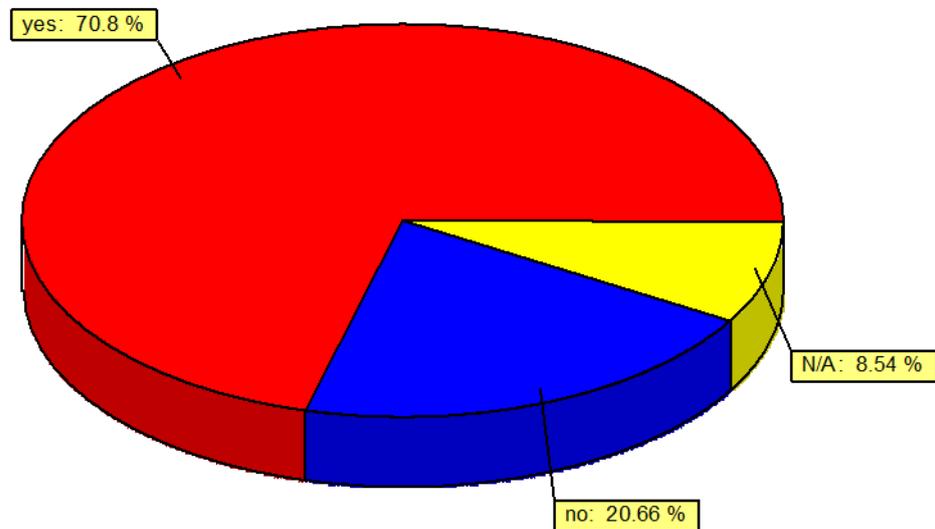


Figure 9: Satisfaction about FMCG

Figure 9 indicates that 71% of the respondents are satisfied with the FMCG products that they are using. A very little percentage 21% of the respondents seems not to be satisfied with the FMCG products that they are using. About 9% felt that the question was not applicable to them.

Brand Consciousness

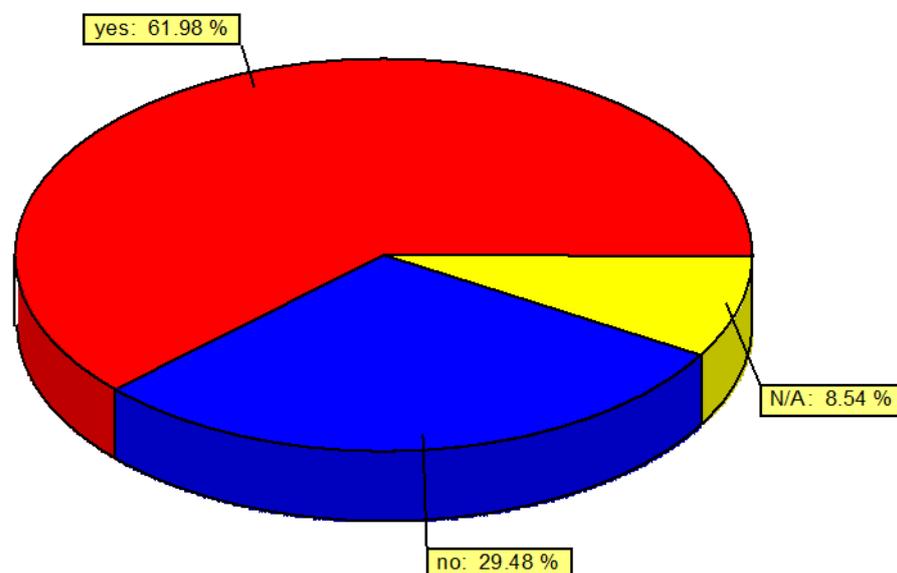


Figure 10: Brand consciousness

Figure 10 demonstrates that about 62% of the sample population, which represents the majority of the respondents are brand conscious. This shows the loyalty that the respondents have towards their choice of FMCG that they buy and consume. At least only 29% of the respondents are not brand conscious, which is a very little number of the sample population. Almost 9% felt that the question was not applicable to them.

The Retailing Stores where the Community Buys their FMCG

	Frequency	Percentage
Pick n Pay	281	77.41%
Shoprite	235	64.74%
Spar	214	58.95%

Table 3 : The Retailing Stores where the Community Buys their FMCG

Table 4 indicates the retailing stores where people buy their FMCG. Here the respondents were choosing more than one retailing store where they buy their FMCG. The retailing stores offer households with FMCG for the consumption at home. The results illustrate that the respondents buy their FMCG from Pick n Pay, Shoprite and Spar.

FMCG products that the respondents buy

	Frequency	Percentage
Bread	287	79.6%
Milk	262	72.18%
Soft drinks	273	75.21%
Beer	231	63.81%
Sugar	275	75.76%
Butter	253	69.7%
Cheese	280	77.13%
Biscuits	254	70.36%
Soap	281	77.62%
Oil	265	73%

Table 4: FMCG products that the respondents buy

Table 4 shows what percentages of respondents concerning the FMCG products that they buy. Note that the respondents were to choose more than one product. More than 70% of the respondents consume the necessary FMCG for a survival purpose. This shows that even the people who are poor and unemployed are spending their life on few monies simply because they want to provide for their families regardless of thinking what they have. About 64% of the respondents consume beer for enjoyment.

The packaging of FMCG products

	Frequency	Percentage
Plastic	291	80.17%
Paperboard	230	63.54%
Plastic bottle	274	75.48%
Can	255	70.25%
Glass	266	73.28%
Foil	224	61.71%

Table 5: The packaging of FMCG products

Table 5 illustrates the responses on how the respondents' FMCG products are packaged. Here, the respondents were asked to select more than one packaging as well. FMCG come with different packaging. Packaging protects food from production to usage by the consumer. Following the post consumption of FMCG, the food packaging must be removed in an environmentally responsible way. However, the chosen one are most of the time seen littering the environment. The respondents show that they buy FMCG products that are packaged with plastic, paperboard, plastic bottle, can, glass as well as foil.

Section C focused on the community's carbon footprint concerning their post consumption.

I buy products that are packaged with recycled material

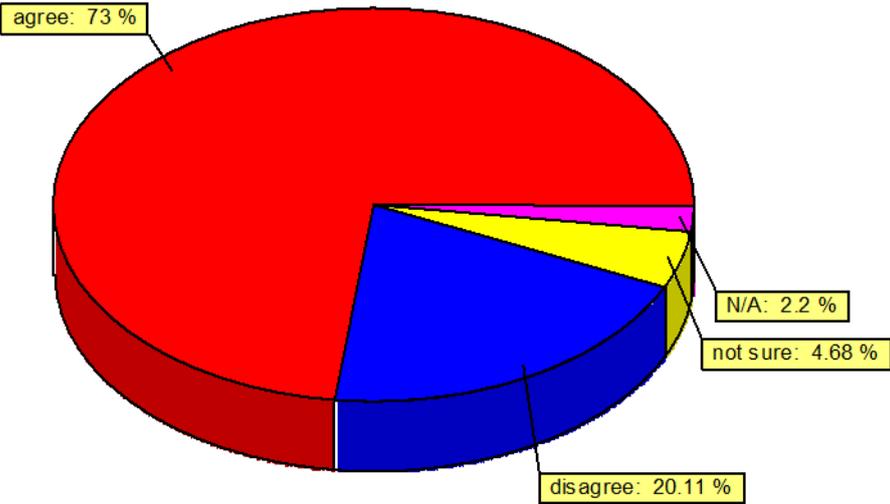


Figure 11: I buy FMCG products that are packaged with recycled material

Figure 11 indicates that 73% of the total sample, which is large number of the respondents, agrees that they buy FMCG products that are packaged with recycled material and only 20% disagreed. However, a small portion of the respondents 5% indicates that they are not sure and 2% felt that the question was not applicable to them.

I buy FMCG products that packaged with material that can be recycled

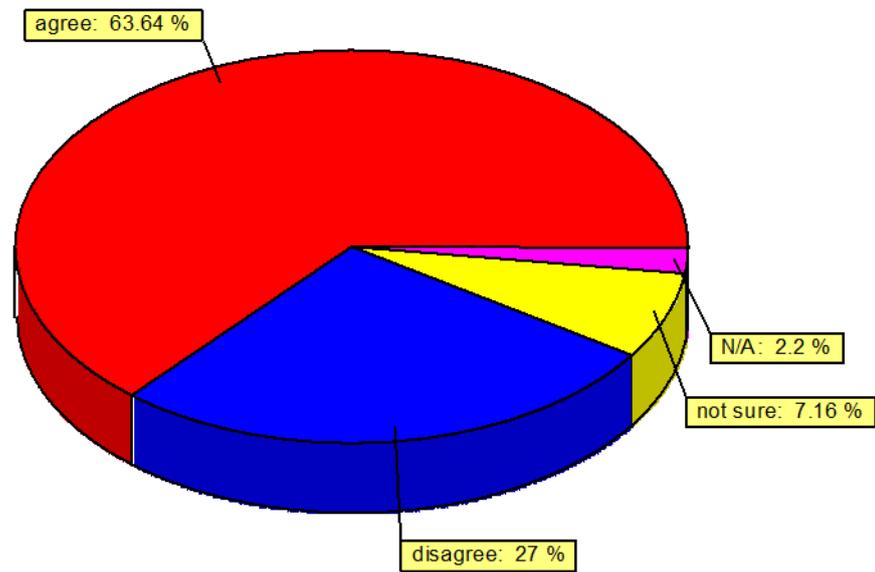


Figure 12: I buy FMCG products that packaged with material that can be recycled

Figure 12 shows that about 64% of the respondents buy FMCG that are packaged with material that can be recycled, 27% indicated “disagree”, about 7% is not sure and only 2% felt that the question is not applicable to them. A high percentage of the sample population affirms that the FMCG products that they buy are packaged with material that can be recycled. This means that the FMCG can create job opportunities for South Africans by recycling the FMCG packaging.

I read the packaging to see whether the product packaging is recyclable.

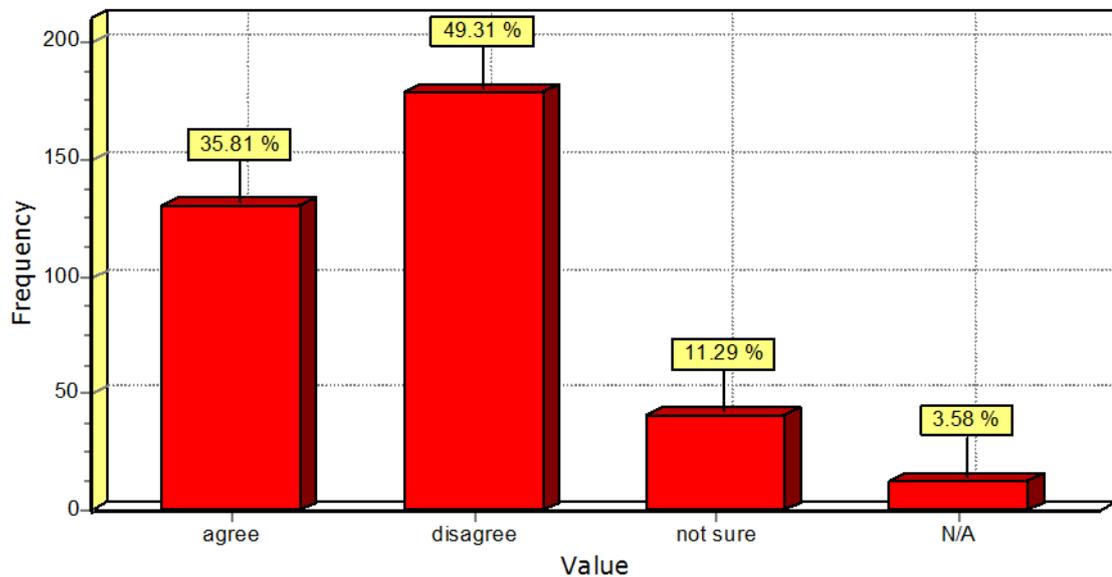


Figure 13: I read the packaging to see whether the product packaging is recyclable

Figure 13 designates that nearly 36% agree that they read the FMCG packaging to see whether the product packaging is recyclable. A large portion of the sample population 49% does not read the packaging to see whether the product packaging is recyclable. Only 11% is not sure and almost 4% felt that the question was not applicable to them. However, this may be because a person does not have enough time to read on the package while he or she might have gone for shopping.

I usually buy environmental-friendly products

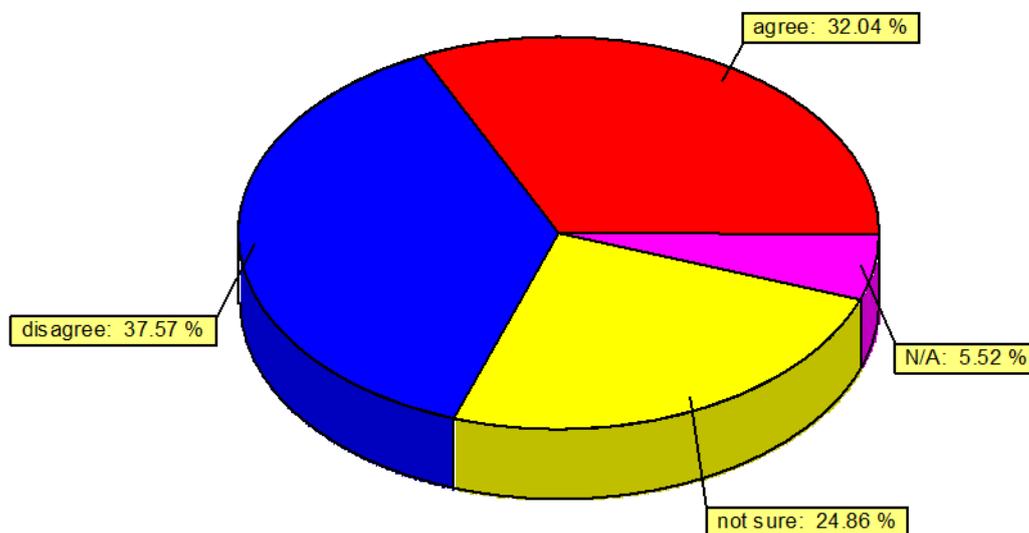


Figure 14: I usually buy environment-friendly products

Figure 14 demonstrates that 32% of the respondents agree that they usually buy environment-friendly products. This figure indicates that about 38% of the total sample population disagree that they usually buy environment-friendly products. Almost 25% were not sure and nearly 6% felt that the questions were not applicable to them. Some of the consumers, for example, buy FMCG not knowing whether they are environmentally-friendly. In this way, they may be passively contributing to the disposal of hazardous products which may harm the environment.

When I buy a product, I always consider its impact on the environment.

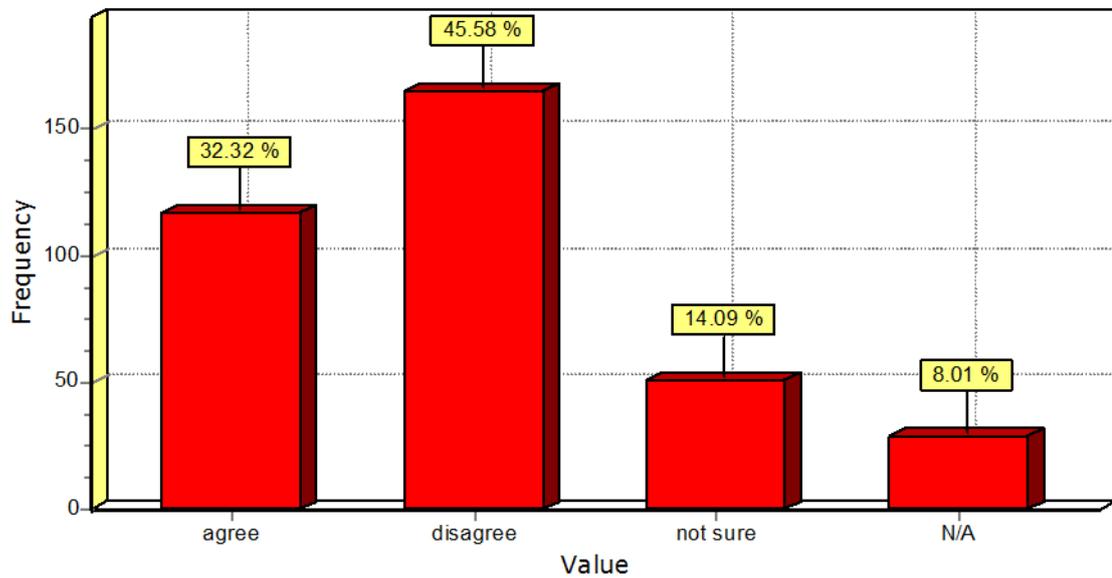


Figure 15: When I buy a product, I always consider its impact on the environment.

Figure 15 discloses that 32% of the respondents agree that when they buy products, they always consider its impact on the environment. This figure demonstrates that about 46% disagree. 14% indicated that they are not sure and only 8% felt that the question was not applicable to them. This may indicate that most people do not consider the impact of the product on the environment when they have gone for shopping.

I always choose products with reusable packaging

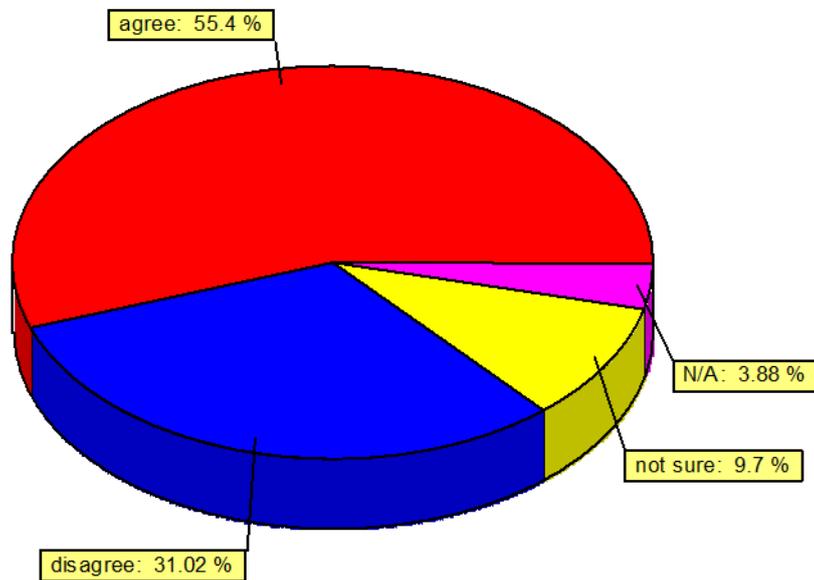


Figure 16: I always choose products with reusable packaging

Figure 16 indicates that 55% of the total respondents, which is a bigger number, agree that they always choose products with reusable packaging and 31% disagree with that statement. About 10% mentions that they are not sure and only nearly 4% felt that the question was not applicable to them. This is an indication that there may be a decrease in waste from packaging material since one container is being used several times and for an extended period of time before it can be thrown away. In this case, there might be a chance of little waste ending up in the landfill.

I buy products because of the bright packaging container

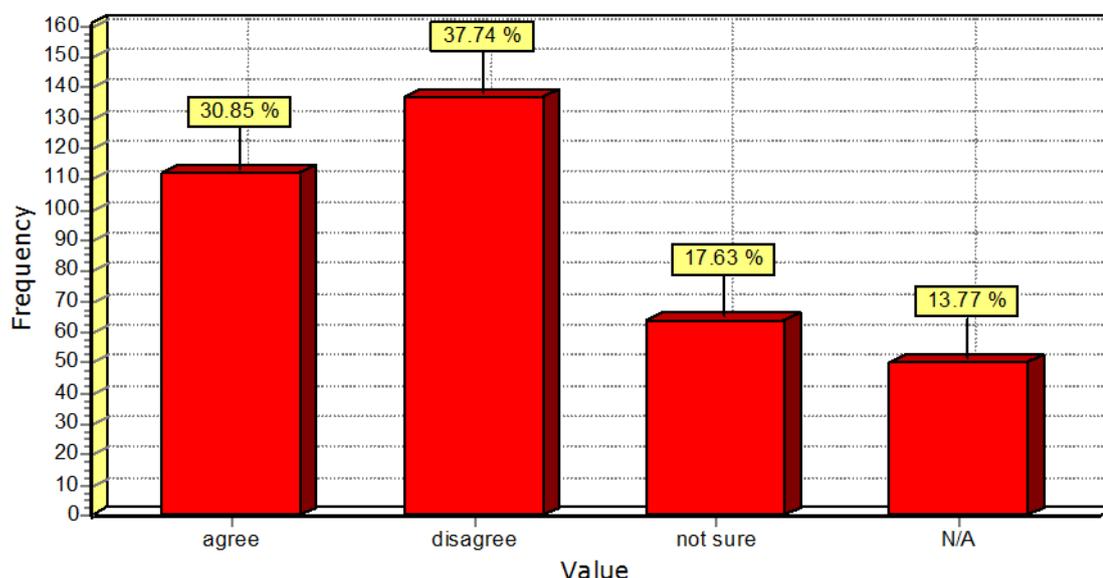


Figure 17: I buy products because of the bright packaging container

Figure 17 illustrates that the majority of the respondents 38% disagree that they buy products because of the bright packaging container. 31% of the respondents indicate that they agree to buy the products because of the bright packaging container. Roughly 18% of the respondents indicated that they were not sure and about 14% felt that the question was not applicable to them.

Garbage bins per household

	Frequency	Percentage
One	149	41.05%
Two	190	52.34%
More	94	25.9%

Table 6: Garbage bins per household

Table 6 explains that 52% of households fill at least two bins each week, followed by 41.05%, which fills one bin per week. It is impressive to see that out of 363 respondents; only 12% of households fill more than two bins per household.

Recycling

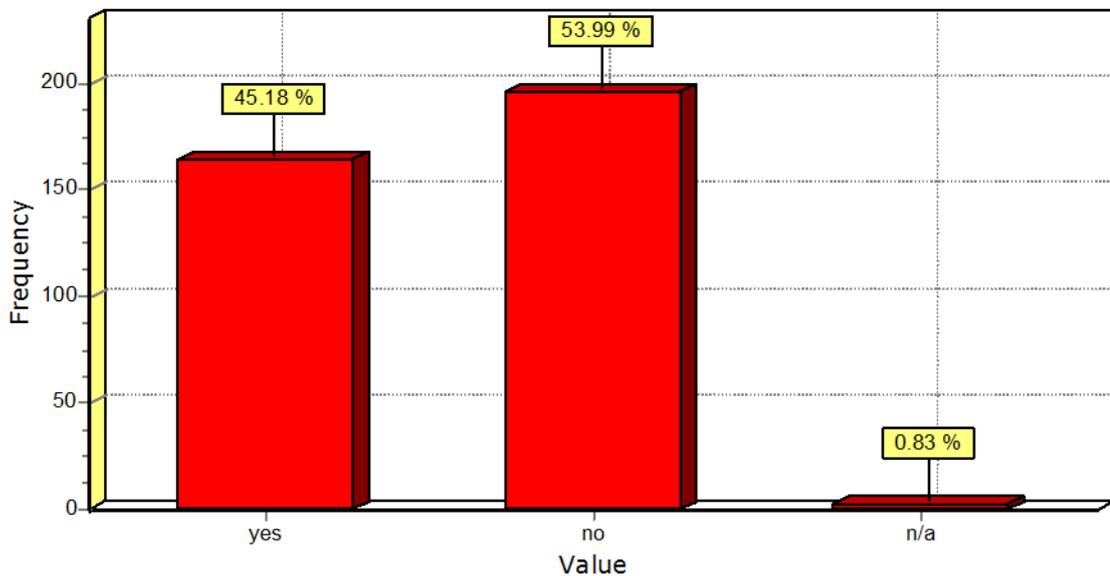


Figure 18: Recycling

Figure 18 demonstrates that about 54% of the respondents do not recycle and only the minority of the total respondents which is 45% agree that they recycle. About 1% of the respondents felt that the question was not applicable to them. The respondents who did not recycle justified their reasons by mentioning that recycling is inconvenient, they do not have enough information on how and where to recycle as well as the products that are made or remade from recycling materials. Apart from that, they also mention that they do not have recycling bins in the community; they have not enough space in their yard and for the fact that they are not getting any incentives. Above all, there are no recycling plants that they know and the municipality is responsible for collecting waste. It is possible that manufacturing companies and the retailers of FMCG do not run adequate campaigns to increase customer awareness about recycling. The FMCG packaging waste can be recycled through effective strategic coordination of the business functions and the tactics, incentivised based marketing strategies and programmes that will include the

direct participation of the consumers. Manufacturing companies can remove their packaging material from the streets only if they are financially rewarded. This can work as an incentive to consumers who return the packaging or materials which can be recycled and reused back to retailers. In this way, it is highly probable that the consumers will not throw waste away, but they will return them to the company in return for money. This can reduce the hazardous waste in environment and waste which ends up in landfills. Further, this process can be an excellent means of job creation.

Separation of waste

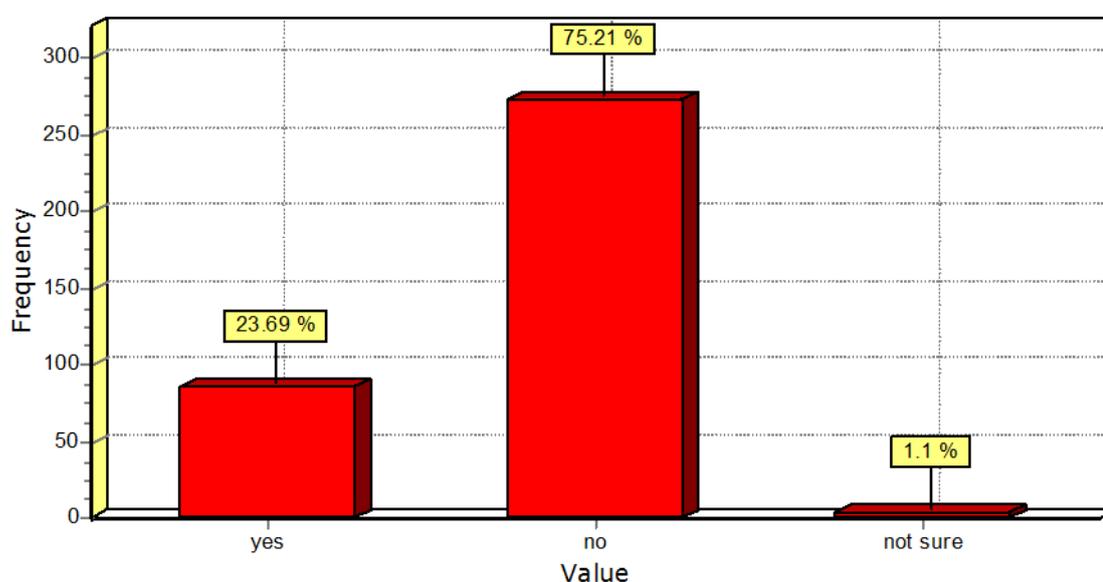


Figure 19: Separation of waste

Consumers can separate their waste into food waste or organic matter and recyclables. Figure 19 indicates that out of 363 respondents, 75% do not separate waste into organic and non-organic waste while about 24% indicated “yes” and only 1% appeared not to be sure.

Facilities to be provided by retailers of FMCG

	Frequency	Percentage
Colour coded bins	258	71.07%
Drop of points	260	71.82%
Collection of waste	234	64.46%
Incentives	266	73.28%

Table 7: Facilities to be provided by retailers of FMCG

Table 7 shows that all of the options were given to the respondents; more than 70% reveals that the retailers of FMCG should provide the community with colour coded bins, drop of points, collection of waste and incentives. Colour coded bins will help the community to sort out or separate their waste according to their material. All the same packaging materials will be thrown on the same bin. Hence, the waste sorting programmes in the manufacturing places and its recycling would play a vital role in reducing the amount going to the landfill. Furthermore, this can as well be a job opportunity to unemployed community. With the collection of waste, manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG can work together with the municipality or hire people who collect garbage in the community. Incentives play an important role. Retailers should give incentives to any customer who is collecting waste back to the store. For instance, economic incentives or financial rewards are given to the consumers the for returning of their bottles for deposit. This can also help an unemployed people to make a living out of the waste that can be recyclable.

CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented the results of the study. The findings of the study were explained and demonstrated graphically and by the use of figures and table. The results have shown that majority of the respondents do not recycle, because recycling is

inconvenient, they do not have enough information on how and where to recycle as well as the products that are made or remade from recycling materials. They also mention that they do not have recycling bins in the community; they have not enough space in their yard and for the fact that they are not getting any incentives. The following chapter draws conclusions and suggest recommendations that would promote green consumerism concerning the post consumption of FMCG.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided analysis of the research study conducted. In this chapter, the researcher presents and summarises key findings that connect to the impact of FMCG on green consumerism at Richards Bay and how the manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG can help to reduce the rate of unemployment through CSR initiatives. Carbon footprint difficulties have become an increasing global concern for local governments, environmentalists, businesses and the community. However, recycling can be a resource and complete waste management strategy to help the environment in the shift from disposal to resource recovery and to create job and income, therefore, addressing the rate of unemployment in the community of Richards Bay. The chapter also provides the conclusion of the results, conclusions and recommendations regarding the study conducted on the impact of fast moving consumer goods on green consumerism.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1. To examine what strategies manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG are employing to reduce their carbon footprint on the environment.
2. To determine whether the manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG assist their consumers in the recycling of their products.

3. To evaluate the forms of communication or the communication outlets that the manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG are using to communicate their green credentials.
4. To ascertain if there are any partnerships that exists between the manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG, and other stakeholders to assist in the reduction of their carbon footprint in community of Richards Bay.

OBSERVATIONS

The study examined the impact that FMCG has on the environment. FMCG products are consumed and then disposed of incorrectly by consumers, affecting the environment negatively. While some major manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG are not very visible when it comes to corporate social responsibility initiatives, there are many manufacturing companies who go beyond their economic constraints to ensure that their products impacts positively on the environment. Vallaster *et al.* (2012:35) affirm that CSR is about companies that go beyond legal obligation and their own interest to address and manage the impact their activities have on society and environment. They consider this to be ethically and morally correct in ensuring that communities and their environments are protected.

Businesses try to ensure that every decision is aligned to their vision and mission which also encompasses their responsibility to environmental issues. The businesses' decisions about how much to pay executives, what technologies to install in new manufacturing facilities, and how and when to retire old plants, impacts on the firm's stakeholders and

the natural environment. This should also form a part of the firm's agenda for business sustainability. Most organisations these days discuss the extensive impacts of social and environmental issues on their websites and also in their annual reports. Kaler (2006:251) discovered that 90% of the manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG report on social responsibility at their websites globally. He further mentions that a global survey of senior managers and board of directors reported that corporate social responsibility had occurred as a significant business issue in many boardroom agendas and was likely to become increasingly important over the next years. Accounting firm KPMG found that 52% of the 250 firms in the International Survey on CSR published a social responsibility report in addition to their annual report (KPMG, 2005). Aguilera *et al.* (2007:641) concur that 25% of coursework offered by ranked business schools addressed some aspects of social and environmental responsibility. They add that the balance of evidence favours the view that social and environmental responsibility is a core business issue and that organisational topics are as wide-reaching as those that relate to society and the environment.

The results of the study indicates that respondents who have children who range between 3 - 5 years and above may be unable to provide adequately for their children's well-being since they could face financial difficulties. Furthermore, the rate of unemployment is high and if it is not attended to it could rapidly increase. If there is no development and no effort to overcome this unemployment problem, the view of the local community will deteriorates which can also lead to anti-social behaviour and even serious crime. Every person consumes FMCG products regardless of their social status. The study also indicated that a high percentage of the sample population affirms that the FMCG products

that they buy are packaged with material that can be recycled. This means that the FMCG industry can create job opportunities for South Africans by recycling the FMCG packaging. This will serve as a win-win for both companies and the society.

The study demonstrates that about 54% of the respondents do not recycle. The respondents who did not recycle justified their reasons by mentioning that recycling is inconvenient, they do not have enough information on how and where to recycle as well as the products that are made or remade from recycling materials. Apart from that, they also mention that they do not have recycling bins in the community; they have not enough space in their yard and for the fact that they are not getting any incentives. Above all, there are no recycling plants that they know and the municipality is responsible for collecting waste. This might be because the manufacturing companies and the retailers of FMCG do not run adequate campaigns to increase customer awareness about recycling. The FMCG packaging waste can be recycled through effective strategic coordination of the business functions and the tactics, incentivised based marketing strategies and programmes that will include the direct participation of the consumers. Manufacturing companies can remove their packaging material from the streets only if they can convince people of the potential of making money out of recycling. This can work as an incentive to consumers who return the packaging waste or materials which can be recycled and reused back to retailers. In this way, it is highly probable that the consumers will not throw waste away, but they will return them to company in return with the money. This can reduce the hazardous packaging waste in environment and the waste that is going to the landfill; while on the other hand, can be a job creation in disguise for unemployed people.

ASSESSMENT OF THE OBJECTIVES

Objective one was to examine the strategies that manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG are employing to reduce their carbon footprint on the environment. However, this objective was not achieved as the researcher did not get necessary information from both manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCGs.

Objective two sought to determine whether the manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG assist their consumers in the recycling of their products. This objective was achieved through the findings. About 54% of the respondents do not recycle because they do not have enough information on how and where to recycle as well as the products that are made or remade from recycling materials.

Objective three aimed to evaluate the forms of communication or the communication outlets that the manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG are using to communicate their green credentials. This objective was partially achieved due to lack of manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG's voice in the study. However, since 54% of the respondents lack information about recycling, the researcher made an assumption that this might be because the manufacturing companies and the retailers of FMCG do not run adequate campaigns to increase customer awareness about recycling. Furthermore, this might also be that these companies select the channels of communication that do not suit the community.

Lastly, objective four aimed to ascertain if there are any partnerships that exist between the manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG, and other stakeholders to assist in

the reduction of their carbon footprint in community of Richards Bay. This objective was achieved. The study demonstrated the manufacturing companies as well as the retailres of FMCG do not work hand-in-hand with the municipality. More than 70% of respondents reveal that the community should be provided with colour coded bins that will help the community to sort out or separate their waste according to their material.

RECOMMENDATIONS

RECYCLING AS A JOB CREATION AND INCOME

Recycling means business. ‘Vallaster *et al.* (2012:38) affirm that recycling means business “when collected with skill and care, and upgraded with quality in mind, discarded materials are a local resource that can contribute to local revenue, job creation, business expansion, and the local economic base”. Recovering the FMCG packaging can become a social and economic development instrument that can create job opportunities for communities decrease the rate of unemployment. Manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG can use recycling as a tool to create and expand environmental awareness, especially when they become educator talking to household members, at schools or at public events.

To start with, manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG must create organised recycling programmes that produce income, by combining the community into meaningful work. The connection with the community can grant a chance to increase environmental and social awareness because they act as communicators of information about waste reduction, recycling practices and ‘zero waste’ aims and a job creation. The

recycling benefits are not just only creating jobs, but it also brings other benefits to the economy of South Africa.

Furthermore, recycling generates new business opportunities such as for transporting, processing and selling recovered materials as well as companies that produce and transport products made with recycled materials. This also emphasises on a jobs creation for the South Africans. The more recycling is done, the more the new jobs are created. Recycling improves value to the materials; as such contribute to a growing labour force.

There is certainly a high market for recyclable materials and the returns on investments in the recycling industry can be quite high at the same time, the community can generate a lot of income by selling some of their recyclable materials. As the market for recyclable materials increases, the income made as well and jobs are created. Recycling is not only good to the environment, but also for monetary benefits as well.

FURTHER RECOMMENDATIONS

- With a number of companies that are already collecting and recovering recycling waste, such as collect-a-can, the glass recycling company and PETCo, retailers of FMCG should be more active in projects like these, because a large amount of recycled materials is generated from food products sold in their stores.
- Retailers of FMCG can take part by placing bins for re-useable waste in front of stores. They can also facilitate programmes that inspire consumers to recycle. For example, rewarding consumers with loyalty card points, or offering a larger discount when recycling is disposed in-store. This kind of a programme might

also have extra benefits for retailers, not only to create a good image and increases the amount of waste recovered, but it also might serve as a way to increase sales to the store.

- Through implementing incentivised programmes retailers of FMCG would help contribute to the many exciting initiatives and promising numbers already achieved, like beverage cans and bottles being South Africa's most recycled form of packaging. This would also mean generating jobs for unemployed South Africans.
- Both design companies and suppliers of FMCG also need to be involved by ensuring that food packaging they use is both environmentally-friendly and easy to recover. They too also must be incentivised to use and manufacture it. Recycling should be a collective responsibility whereby everybody needs to take part. Suppliers FMCG need to produce packaging that is easy to recover while retailers need to initiate recycling programmes and consumers need to recycle. The long-term achievement in these initiatives depends in making them advantageous for all parties.
- With the collection of waste, manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG can work together with the municipality or hire people who collect garbage in the community

CONCLUSION

This chapter outlined the conclusion of the results, conclusions and recommendations of the study. The results of the study generally show that the consumers of FMCG lack adequate information about green consumerism of the FMCG. The recommendations

provided are means to improve green consumerism as well as community's green space. This chapter is important because it provides a way forward on how manufacturing companies and retailers of FMCG could help the community to go greener. It is important for these industries to create the projects such as; recycling plants that would recover their packaging off the streets, which would also be job creation for South Africans at the same time.

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ADDENDUM

ADDENDUM 1: INFORMATION SHEET

Information Sheet

The Impact of Fast Moving Consumer Goods on Green Consumerism

University of Zululand

Department of Communication Science

Researcher: Esther Nthabiseng Makhutla (Student Number: 200805512)

Supervisors: Prof H. Rugbeer & Dr G.M. Naidoo

Part A: Note to the respondent

- I appreciate your willingness to assist in this research, however, please note that you are not compelled to partake in this survey.
- Your contributions to this questionnaire will remain private and confidential. No one will be able to trace your responses back to you as a person.
- Your permission to use these responses is required. This will form the first part of the questionnaire.
- This is a confidential survey and your name will not be linked to your responses. All personal information will remain confidential.
- This questionnaire will take approximately 5-10 minutes.

Part B: The questionnaire as two parts:

Section A requests for permission to use your responses for academic research.

Section B focuses on: ***The Corporate Social Responsibility of Fast Moving Consumer Goods on Green Consumerism in Richards Bay***

How to complete the questionnaire

1. Your opinion is required. It does not matter what other people think. I am solely interested in your opinion. Tell me how you feel. Your responses are important to me.
2. Read each question carefully and take a moment to ponder your answer.
3. Please use a pen to mark your responses by placing a tick (✓) or a cross (X), in the appropriate column, or by writing down the appropriate information, where ever required.
4. Please do not change any of your responses afterwards (for instance: do not scratch out or tippex any of your responses).

Thank you for your participation.

Contact Details: E.N. Makhutla. **Address:** P.O. Box 4529 Maseru, Lesotho, 0100

Tel: 0729747452

Email: makhutlanthabiseng@gmail.com

ADDENDUM 2: CONSENT FORM

CONSENT FORM

The Impact of Fast Moving Consumer Goods on Green Consumerism

Researcher: **Makhutla, EN**

Contact Details: (Tel) 0729747452 Email: makhutlanthabiseng@gmail.com

Please tick box

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.
2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving reason.
3. I agree to take part in the above study.

Please Note: indicate Yes or No only if the following statements, if appropriate, or delete this section from the consent form:

Please tick box

- | | Yes | No |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 4. I agree to the interview / focus group / consultation being audio recorded | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. I agree to the interview / focus group / consultation being video recorded | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Name of Participant Date Signature

Name of Researcher Date Signature

ADDENDUM 3: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR COMPANIES AND RETAILERS

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY: RESPONDENT CODE _____

**VOLUNTARY INTERVIEW FOR COMPANIES OF FMCG AND THE
RETAILERS OF FMCG**

The Impact of Fast Moving Consumer Goods on Green Consumerism

SECTION A

Please provide the following information about your company.

1. Name of a company

Please indicate your response by a tick (✓) or a cross (X) in **ONLY ONE** row.

2. How long is your company existing?	a tick (✓) or a cross (X),	OFFICE USE
10-30		1
31-50		2
51-70		3
71-100		4
101 and above		5
I do not want to answer this question.		6

3. How long have you been employed?	a tick (✓) or a cross (X),	OFFICE USE
1-10		1
11-20		2
21-30		3
31-40		4
41-50		5
50 and above		6
I do not want to answer this question.		7

4. Designation

SECTION B: This section focuses on your company as a manufacturer of Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) products.

Please indicate your response for **each statement** by checking the appropriate boxes.

		SOME OF THEM	MOST OF THEM	NOT SURE
5.	Your packaging is made from recycled materials.	1	2	3
6.	Your packaging is recyclable.	1	2	3
7.	Your packaging displays all product information about environment or eco-friendly credentials.	1	2	3

Please indicate your response for **each statement** by checking the appropriate boxes.

		YES	NO	NOT APPLICABLE
8.	Does your company have a recycling plan?	1	2	3
9.	Do you offer recycling bins to the community?	1	2	3

10. If yes for Question 9, how often do you empty them? Please elaborate.

Please indicate your response for **each statement** by checking the appropriate boxes.

		YES	NO	NOT APPLICABLE
11.	Does your company communicate information to the community on how to recycle your FMCG packaging?	1	2	3
12.	Does your company provide any incentives for communities that recycle?	1	2	3
13.	Do you provide consumers with educational communication or events to recycle?	1	2	3
14.	Do you have any partnership with local government or CBO for assisting in this process?	1	2	3
15.	Do you think that the community can assist with reducing the carbon footprint?	1	2	3

16. If yes for Question 15, how?

Please indicate your response by a tick (✓) or a cross (X) in **ONLY ONE** row.

17. What percentage of your company is green?	a tick (✓) or a cross (X),	OFFICE USE
10-30 %		1
31-50 %		2
51-70 %		3
71-100 %		4

18. What do you suggest that can be done to reduce the carbon foot print of communities Richards Bay?

SECTION C: This section focuses on your company as a retailer of Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) products.

Please indicate your response for **each statement** by checking the appropriate boxes

		AGREE	DISAGREE	NOT SURE	NOT APPLICABLE
19.	We sell FMCG that are packaged with recycled material.	1	2	3	4
20.	We usually sell environment-friendly products.	1	2	3	4
21.	We sell FMCG that always consider its impact on the environment.	1	2	3	4

22.	We sell FMCG with reusable packaging.	1	2	3	4
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Please indicate your response for **each statement** by checking the appropriate boxes.

		YES	NO	NOT APPLICABLE
23.	Does your retailer recycle?	1	2	3

24.	If you answered yes to Question 23, does your retailer recycles any of the following:	YES	NO	NOT APPLICABLE
24.1	Plastic.	1	2	3
24.2	Paperboard.	1	2	3
24.3	Plastic bottle.	1	2	3
24.4	Can.	1	2	3
24.5	Paper	1	2	3
24.6	Glass.	1	2	3
24.7	Foil	1	2	3

25.If you answered no to Question 24, please explain why?

Please indicate your response for **each statement** by checking the appropriate boxes.

26.	Does your retailer should provide facility's such as:	YES	NO	NOT SURE
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26.1	Colour coded bins	1	2	3
26.2	Drop of points	1	2	3
26.3	Collection of waste	1	2	3
26.4	Incentives	1	2	3

27. What do you suggest that can be used to make your community more environmentally friendly?

Thank you very much for helping with this research

ADDENDUM 4: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR COMMUNITY

The Impact of Fast Moving Consumer Goods on Green Consumerism

SECTION A

Please provide the following confidential information to indicate that you are granting me **permission** to use your responses in my research. *Your personal identity will NOT be revealed when the survey results are published in my thesis.*

1. Your initials and surname

2. Your home address

Suburb		Postal code	

3. Your signature

You may choose **ONLY ONE**.

4. GENDER	a tick (✓) or a cross (X),	OFFICE USE
Male		1
Female		2
I do not want to answer this question.		3

5. YOUR AGE	a tick (✓) or a cross (X),	OFFICE USE
15-19		1
20-25		2
26-35		3
36 and above		4
I do not want to answer this question.		5

6. MARITAL STATUS	a tick (√) or a cross (X),	OFFICE USE
Single		1
Married		2
Divorced		3
Widowed		4
I do not want to answer this question.		5

7. HOW MANY CHILDREN DO YOU HAVE?	A tick (√) or a cross (X),	OFFICE USE
1-2		1
3-4		2
5 and above		3
No children		4
I do not want to answer this question.		5

8. TYPE OF DWELLING:	a tick (√) or a cross (X),	OFFICE USE
House		1
Flat		2
Hostel		3
Boarding		4
Other		5
I do not want to answer this question.		6

9. ARE YOU CURRENTLY EMPLOYED?	a tick (√) or a cross (X),	OFFICE USE
Yes		1
No		2
Self-employed		3
I do not want to answer this question.		4

10. If yes, where?

SECTION B: This section focuses on Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG). FMCG are low-priced items that are used with a single or limited number of consumption occasions and are also sometimes referred to as consumer packaged goods or groceries such as: bread, milk, sugar, beverages etc.

You may choose **MORE THAN ONE**.

	INFORMATION ABOUT FMCG	YES	NO	NOT APPLICABLE
11.	Are you familiar with FMCG?	1	2	3
12.	Do you shop for grocery items?	1	2	3
13.	Are you satisfied with the products you are using?	1	2	3
14.	Are you brand conscious?	1	2	3

15.	Where do you buy your FMCG?	a tick (√) or a cross (X),	OFFICE USE
15.1	Pick n Pay		1
15.2	Shoprite		2
15.3	Spar		3

You may choose **ONLY ONE**.

16.	When do you prefer to purchase?	a tick (√) or a cross (X),	OFFICE USE
	Daily		1
	Weekly		2
	Monthly		3

You may choose **MORE THAN ONE**

17.	Which FMCG Products do you buy?	a tick (√) or a cross (X),	OFFICE USE
17.1	Bread		1
17.2	Milk		2
17.3	Soft drink		3
17.4	Beer		4
17.5	Sugar		5
17.6	Butter		6
17.7	Cheese		7
17.8	Biscuits		8
17.9	Soap		9
17.10	Oil		10

18.	How are your FMCG products packaged?	a tick (√) or a cross (X),	OFFICE USE
18.1	Plastic		1
18.2	Paperboard.		2
18.3	Plastic bottle		3
18.4	Can		4
18.5	Glass		5
18.6	Foil		6

SECTION C: This section focuses on community's carbon footprint. A carbon footprint is whereby FMCG products are consumed and discarded incorrectly by littering the environment.

Please indicate your response for **each statement** by checking the appropriate boxes

		AGREE	DISAGREE	NOT SURE	NOT APPLICABLE
19.	I buy FMCG products that are packaged with recycled material.	1	2	3	4
20.	I buy FMCG products that packaged with material that can be recycled.	1	2	3	4
21.	I read the packaging to see whether the product packaging is recyclable.	1	2	3	4
22.	I usually buy environment-friendly products.	1	2	3	4
23.	When I buy a product, I always consider its impact on the environment.	1	2	3	4
24.	I always choose products with reusable packaging.	1	2	3	4
25.	I buy products because of the bright packaging container.	1	2	3	4

You may choose **ONLY ONE**.

26.	How many standard size garbage bins does your household fill each week?	a tick (√) or a cross (X),	OFFICE USE
	One		1
	Two.		2
	More		3

Please indicate your response for **each statement** by checking the appropriate boxes.

		YES	NO	NOT APPLICABLE
27.	Do you recycle?	1	2	3

28.	If you answered yes to Question 27, does your household recycles any of the following:	YES	NO	NOT APPLICABLE
28.1	Plastic.	1	2	3
28.2	Paperboard.	1	2	3
28.3	Plastic bottle.	1	2	3
28.4	Can.	1	2	3
28.5	Paper	1	2	3
28.6	Glass.	1	2	3
28.7	Foil	1	2	3

29.If you answered no to Question 27, please explain why?

Please indicate your response for **each statement** by checking the appropriate boxes.

		YES	NO	NOT APPLICABLE
30.	Do you separate your waste between organic and non-organic?	1	2	3

31.If yes, how do you depose of your organic waste? Please elaborate.

Please indicate your response for **each statement** by checking the appropriate boxes.

32.	If no, do you think that FMCG retailers should provide facility's such as:	YES	NO	NOT SURE
32.1	Colour coded bins	1	2	3
32.2	Drop of points	1	2	3
32.3	Collection of waste	1	2	3
32.4	Incentives	1	2	3

33. What do you suggest that can be used to make your community more environmentally friendly?

Thank you very much for helping with this research

