An Evaluation of The Social Impact of Cheap, Short-Lived Consumer Goods and The Throwaway Culture: A Case Study of Nyimba District.

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[1]**Goma Pearson,**
Email: [1]gomapearson@yahoo.com,
School of Business/Humanities
Information and Communication University,
Lusaka, Zambia

Abstract:

The global trade in second-hand clothing is worth more than $1 billion each year. It also provides low-cost clothing for people living in poverty. At the same time, however, there are concerns that the trade may be undermining local textile and garment industries, and livelihoods in some developing countries. Although there are both benefits and problems that come with short-lived consumer goods, the problems outweigh the benefits. One of the most notable problems of short-lived consumer goods is solid waste due to disposable effects. This study attempted to evaluate the social impact of cheap, short-lived consumer goods and the "throwaway culture" and to develop strategies to ameliorate any burdens so that long-lasting goods could be placed on people in low income households in a poor nation like Zambia. This research was conducted on households, and organizations which operate and conduct business within the District of Nyimba. The research used primary and secondary data. Primary data was collected using questionnaires and interviews. Secondary data was collected through review of previous literature on the subject and employ observation as the major technique. Purposive sampling technique was used to select households and business houses for this research. It has been revealed that Cheap Short-live Consumer goods imports are likely to have played a role in undermining industrial textile/clothing production and employment in Zambia. The government should ensure that these products were made available to consumers in rural areas where they currently do not benefit from the trade since these are people with low income. Therefore, observing, scrupulously the customs requirements of recipient countries, to set a lead in the fight against customs fraud. Improved customs enforcement, including tightening controls on import regulation to reduce fraud to enable the recipient countries fully benefits. This research study may have only revealed some of the impact of imported goods to the households and the economy as whole, more research needs to be conducted so as to bring to the fore the impact of these goods.

Keywords: *Global trade, Throwaway culture, Short-lived consumer goods, Solid waste and Disposable effects.*

1.0 Introduction

The second-hand clothes sector has grown into an important economic factor which provides a living for more than a hundred thousand people in African and Zambia in particular. Added to this is the fact that second-hand clothes enjoy a high degree of acceptance in all African countries and among all social strata.

The research paper would look at the benefits of second hand clothes on the Zambian markets compared to new products. It would further bring out information on whether it was necessary to sell second hand clothes on the Zambian markets or ban the sell to allow for long lasting clothes that may not litter the country or rather pollute the nation.

Almost all countries are involved in the trade, either as exporters, processors and re-exporters, or importers, with some countries playing more than one role. Developing countries are the major consumers of second-hand clothing.

It should be noted that the SHC industry in exporting countries is considered by some commentators to be in difficulties. This is largely attributed to the rise in cheap but lower-quality new clothing imported from Asia.

The global trade in second-hand clothing (SHC) has grown ten-fold since 1990 to reach a value of around $1 billion annually. Supporters of the SHC industry point out that the trade creates employment in the receiving countries (in transporting, cleaning, repairing, restyling clothes, etc.). It also provides low-cost clothing for people living in poverty. At the same time, however, there are concerns that the trade may be undermining local textiles and garment industries and livelihoods in some developing countries. Production, in sub-Saharan Africa in particular, has declined over the past two decades, with numerous firms reducing their output or going out of business altogether, and industrial production falling substantially. A number of parties have cited SHC imports as a causal factor in this decline.

1.1 Background of the Study

In the last decade, Zambia has seen an ever-increasing number of imports from china by both Chinese and Zambian traders. China, on the other hand, is also using its economic power to dump its goods in developing African countries like Zambia. The goods that china is dumping in most African countries, Zambia inclusive, are not only of low quality but they are also cheap and short-lived.

The major problem that these cheap, short-lived consumer goods are causing is killing the domestic market (anti-competitiveness effect). Nelson who is employed in Chinese-owned business, gestures at the piles of blankets, sports shoes, T-shirts and nylon bags for sale. "Everything here comes from China," he says. "That's why it's so cheap." Nelson has no shortage of customers eager for bargains to stretch their limited budgets (Fitzgerald 2008).

Majorly, dumping is one of the causes of price discrimination in trade. Fitzgerald 2008 bemoaned how unlucky Susan Kalal is because she sells clothing produced in South Africa and the cut-price Chinese goods have lured away her customers. "Business has been very slow since they moved in.

The Chinese sell everything so cheaply, it's impossible for me to compete." As if not enough, another Zambian trader selling jeans made in South Africa in the neighboring stalls alludes to the fact that Chinese imports are not of good quality compared to the South African imports.

He adds that, "People buy them and then they fall apart after one wear which hardly equal the value for their money." Typically, dumping occurs when one country exports products which sell at a lower price than it sells the same products in its market within or a situation where the cost of producing the exported goods is higher than the price, they fetch in the importing country. The anti-dumping cases initiated by the European Union (EU) against china are characterized by a destructive market displacement due to price undercutting (Liu and Vandenbussche, 2002).

The revelation of the study carried out by the Centre for Transitional Economics on the EU market was that in a four-year period the Chinese imports in the EU of schoolbags and briefcases increased by more than 200%, while market share increased by over 300%, and the price undercutting was 74%.

Not only was there a rise in the market share that resulted in the decline of the EU market share but there was loss of profit as a result of Chinese dumping in the EU. The massive decline in the profitability of cotton fabrics indicated was from 100% to 25% resulting in 88 firms closing down and 8, 625 people losing their employment (Liu and Vandenbussche, 2002).

Look back into history and you would find patterns of consumption very different from those that exist today. Turn the clock back just a few centuries, and almost no one in any country spent a significant amount of time or resources on shopping for goods produced far from home. Before the Industrial Revolution that is, before the late 18th century in England, or the middle of the 19th century in the rest of Western Europe and North America the vast majority of each country's population lived in rural areas and worked in agriculture.

Their clothing and household possessions were extremely limited by today's standards and were typically made by household members or by artisans from the same village. Fashions, technological change, and social pressure did not drive people constantly to make new purchases; rather, individual material goods were used, with repairs if needed, for decades. Major items such as winter coats were expected to last a lifetime and more and were often passed from one generation to the next.

Small elite, of course, had long enjoyed higher consumption standards and habitually bought luxury goods and services. Elite consumption created employment for small numbers of artisans and merchants, often clustered around the courts and trading centers of each country. However, purchases by the elite were not large enough to transform a predominantly agrarian economy. Rather, elite consumption depended on the existence of agriculture, since upper-class incomes were directly or indirectly derived from rents, taxes, or other payments extracted from rural areas.

The Industrial Revolution clearly transformed production. It is less obvious, but equally true, that it transformed consumption. Large-scale industrialization began in the British textile industry; the amount of cotton used in that industry rose from less than 3 million pounds in 1760 to more than 360 million pounds annually in the 1830s. Within one lifetime, that is to say, the production of textiles in Britain was multiplied more than 100-fold. Luxury consumption by the English upper class did not grow nearly that rapidly. Who, then, bought and used the vast outpouring of cloth?

In the early 19th century, roughly two-thirds of the increased output was sold to other countries around the world. Much of it went to less developed areas such as India, which was rapidly becoming a British colony (and where the British conquest was followed by the destruction of India's formerly thriving textile industry), and to the newly independent states of Latin America,

3

where British merchants displaced the earlier commercial connections to Spain and Portugal.

There were limits, however, to the possibility of growth through expansion into foreign markets. As other industries followed textiles, and other countries followed Britain's example of industrialization, much of the growing output was inevitably sold at home or to other relatively developed countries. Thus mass production required mass consumption. (Even when two-thirds of England's burgeoning textile output was sold abroad, the domestic absorption of the remaining one-third involved sweeping changes in English patterns of consumption.) Over the course of the 19th century, both the growing middle class and the working class became consuming classes as well.

Obsolescence was there to stay and was another major contributor to a throwaway culture. Obsolescence is a term or a process of an object or gadget becoming no longer useful. There are two type of obsolescence and these are Technical obsolescence (obsolescence of function) and Psychological obsolescence (obsolescence of desirability). Obsolescence may be built in by the manufacturer or may be by the influence of advertisement.

Technical obsolescence (obsolescence of function) means an object is intended to be technically defective. The cause is the manufacturing process (raw materials, production methods) or design (object that can't be repaired, short warranty, difficulty getting spare parts).

Toffler 1970 says obsolescence also happens when the needs of the consumer change, when the functions to be performed by the product are themselves altered. These needs are not as simply described as the critics of planned obsolescence sometimes assume.

Obsolescence is bounded to happen when new gadgets are produced on the market to perform these functions more effectively than the old gadgets could. Take for example the new anti-malaria drug it does a more effective job of curing malaria than the old drug. The new computers are infinitely faster and cheaper to operate than the antique models of the early 1960's. This is obsolescence due to substantive technological advance (Toffler 1970).

Psychological obsolescence (obsolescence of desirability) is the more puzzling of the two, this occurs when consumers, often strongly influenced by fashion and advertising, decide to replace something before it wears out. The line-ups for the latest generation of a cell phone, which has just a few more features than the previous one, say a lot.

Equiterre2017posted an article on their webpage says that in 2016, nearly 1.5 billion cell phones were purchased globally, even though 7 billion were already in circulation in 2015.

In the past, people built to last. New York, according to Toffler has been a "city without history", to exemplify this conception. Technology is ever changing such that obsolescence is on the faster increases than any other time in the past. This brings into perspective the notion of 'fashionableness', which is marked by the basic characteristics of a "…buy, use and throwaway society" (Toffler 1970:56).

Vince 2012 reports that in the 1950s, planned obsolescence had become the dominant paradigm in mass production with things no longer built to last. A sophisticated advertising industry persuaded people to shop. Mechanisms flourished to make this easier, from department stores to credit. Consumerism was born.

Some industries, such as fashion were predicated on planned obsolescence, with items being made to last a single season or less. Other industries are following fashion's high-turnover model and bringing out products that have cosmetic gimmicks or seasonal appeal but which will soon appear dated.

In addition, advancement in technology is one of the reasons why this generation is rooted in the throwaway culture. Take for example with computer operating systems, before one learns fully on how to use Windows Vista or Windows 7, Windows 10 is out, with more advance features than the previous windows.

Toffler 1970 writes that advancing technology is making it possible to improve the gadgets as time goes by. The second- generation computer is better than the first, and the third is better than the second. Since we can anticipate further technological advance, more improvements coming at ever shorter intervals, it often makes hard economic sense to build for the short term rather than the long term. It's the same with phone manufacturers, they are producing phone fast due to the advance in technology.

The more manufacturers produce advanced gadgets the more people are encouraged to throw away their old gadgets or encouraged to exchange with the newly produced gadget.

Take for example what happened when Mattel produced a new improved Barbie doll. The new version has a slimmer figure, "real" eyelashes, and a twist-and-turn waist that makes her more human-like than ever. To entice people in buy news, Mattel said that, any young lady wishing to purchase a new Barbie would receive a trade-in allowance for her old one.

What Mattel did not announce was that by trading in her old doll for a technologically improved model, the little girl of today, citizen of tomorrow's super industrial world, would learn a fundamental lesson about the new society: that man's relationships with things are increasingly temporary (Toffler 1970).

Advance in technology lowers the cost of production for the manufacturers thereby increasing productivity and in the long run increasing profitability. Toffler 1970 says advancing technology tends to lower the costs of manufacture much more rapidly than the costs of repair work. The one is automated; the other remains largely a handcraft operation. This means that it often becomes cheaper to replace than to repair.

It is economically sensible to build cheap, unrepairable, throwaway gargets, even though they could not last as long as repairable objects.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Zambian like many other developing countries in Africa and the world over has her households increasingly consuming the cheap, short-lived consumer goods because it's what their income could allow. Cheaply produced goods with shorter life span have today flooded our markets. Manufacturers may intently produce such goods to either make them affordable to the low-income households or to increase their sales so as to maximize their profitability.

Zambia is characterized by low income households resulting from a high rate of unemployment which makes them to live below the poverty line. This hampers these households from affording to acquire good quality consumer goods that will last a test of time with their meager incomes but opt to buy the affordable cheap, short-lived consumer goods.

Although there are both benefits and problems that come with short-lived consumer goods, the problems outweigh the benefits. One of the most

notable problems of short-lived consumer goods is solid waste due to disposable effects. The other problem is what this paper will focus on, which is the implication of cheap, short-lived consumer goods has on low income households in Zambia.

Besides negatively affecting the Zambian households, the cheap, short-lived consumer goods imported from china negatively affect the Zambian economy. A bigger proportion of Zambian traders together with their companies are forced out of the market due to failure to favorably compete with the reduced price of most low-quality Chinese imported goods. Hence, apart from traders losing their income, they are forced to abandon their businesses and companies forced to close down thereby laying off their workers.

The over dependence syndrome on short-lived goods has its own consequences on the Zambian people. We can, for instance, evidently see the Chinese dumping their cheap, short-lived consumer goods on the Zambian market where they have increased their market share on expense of some local industries.

The Mulungushi textile factory which was revamped with Chinese cash as a sign of Sino-Zambian solidarity has not been spared by competition from subsidized Chinese imports. The Zambia-China Textiles firm was once the biggest sew mill in Zambia, employing over 1,000 people. A few years ago, the factory ceased production after suffering repeated losses (Fitzgerald, 2008)

With the situation at hand, one can walk to the market and come back with clothing that one can wear once and throw them away. This is what is referred to as a throwaway culture which is a human culture that is mostly influenced by consumerism. The throwaway culture describes the behavior by human of overconsumption and

excessive production of short-lived or disposable items.

The problem of short-lived consumer goods is further worsened by planned obsolescence by manufacturing firms. Obsolescence may be defined as deliberate move by firms to produce products with unreasonable short life spans meanwhile new products are being rolled out for people to buy. Cooper 1998 reports, that people in lower income groups may only be able to afford items that are cheap, short-lived which do not represent value for their money.

1.3 Overall Objective

To evaluate the social impact of cheap, short-lived consumer goods and the "throwaway culture" and to develop strategies to ameliorate any burdens so that long-lasting goods could be placed on people in low income households in a poor nation like Zambia.

1.3.1 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of the study were to:

(i) State the contribution of cheap goods on the local domestic market to the Zambian people.
(ii) Assess whether the increase in the importation of cheap Chinese goods lead to closure of local companies and loss of employment
(iii) Assess whether households were able to afford and benefit from the cheap electron goods on the market and whether these goods were worth for their money.

1.4 Research Questions

(i) What is the contribution of cheap goods on the local domestic market?
(ii) Does the increase in the importation of cheap Chinese goods lead to closure of local companies and loss of employment?

(iii) Were households able to afford and benefit from the cheap electronic goods on the market and were the goods worthy for their money?

1.5 Significance of the study

Despite undertaking intensive research on the environmental impact of short-lived goods, little or no research and documentation has been done on the social impact of short-lived goods on the livelihood of low-income groups. The situation stands that the more low-income groups benefit from the availability of cheap, short-lived consumer goods, the more industries in African countries and Small and Medium Entrepreneurs (SMEs) are slowly being forced out of trade. The income generation of these households is negatively hit because people are forced out of employment.

The results of the research that was conducted by the Southern Africa Labour Development and Research Unit revealed the pressure being exerted on South African local industries from cheap Chinese imports. The analysis was drawn from a database of 44 manufacturing industries over the last decade.

Other revelations were the contribution of cheap Chinese imports contribution towards the relatively slow growth in output, loss of profits and the decline in employment in the South African manufacturing industry

Nhlabtsi 2014 writes that when a foreign firm sells its products at a cheaper price compared to like goods in the local market, the latter views it as a competitor and a threat to business. This is especially true in developing countries with a majority of price sensitive consumers, since price is a crucial factor for determining whether or not to make a purchase.

It has always been said that a local market is a 'dumping ground' for the excess goods of an exporting market when the latter sells their products in the former at extremely low prices. However, the sale of cheaper foreign goods does not necessarily indicate dumping, especially when there is neither price discrimination nor selling below production cost.

Further Nhlabtsi writes that concerns have been raised about the impact of cheap Chinese imports on clothing and footwear industries following job losses in countries including South Africa, Kenya, Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland. Tanzania's only flip-flop factory is struggling to break even in the face of increasing competition from China. In South Africa, the government imposed a quota on Chinese imports to protect local industry after trade unions cried foul.

Despite major outcry from the local trade and local companies for protection from the Government against cheap Chinese imports, this is what by then minister for trade and commerce Felix Mutati had to say "Just like some sectors will win, you are obviously going to have some sectors that are hurt". There was absolutely no way you were going to protect all sectors in this globalized world.

The purpose of the study was to establish the social impact of cheap, short-lived consumer goods and the "throwaway culture" so as to develop strategies to ameliorate any burdens that longer-lasting goods could place on people in low income households in a poor nation like Zambia.

The study was important as it would provide guidance to the government and other stakeholders to provide guidance for the continuity or stoppage of cheap goods on the market by looking at the benefits and demerits. They would be able to make an analysis for an informed decision.

1.6 Limitation of the Study

According to Collis and Hussey (2009:124-125), limitation identify weaknesses in the research. The success of this research was dependent on the positive responses from the targeted respondents of which some may be unwilling to provide information. The other limitation which hindered the success of the research was time, since the researcher was to collect data within a short period of time, in which the researcher had other jobs to attend to.

Financial resources were also a challenge as prices of things on the market have escalated in the recent past which has resulted in transport cost being high. This would pose a challenge in the movement to deliver and collect research instruments from the sampled respondents.

1.7. Conceptual Framework

Many concepts have appeared in this research, but the following have been distinguished in relation to the social impact of Cheap, short-lived consumer goods so as to give a clear understanding of what is being talked about. These are dumping ground, throw away culture, obsolescence, consumption, policy and effectiveness:

Dumping ground: dumping ground in this research referred to a situation when the excess goods of an exporting market sells at extremely low prices. However, the sale of cheaper foreign goods does not necessarily indicate dumping, especially when there is neither price discrimination nor selling below production cost.

Obsolescence: in this research, obsolescence referred to a deliberate move by firms to produce products with unreasonable short life spans meanwhile new products are being rolled out for people to buy. Cooper 1998 reports, that people in lower income groups may only be able to afford items that are cheap, short-lived which do not represent value for their money.

Throwaway culture: in this research, throwaway culture referred to the situation where, one can walk to the market and come back with clothing that one can wear once and throw them away. This is what is referred to as a throwaway culture which is a human culture that is mostly influenced by consumerism. The throwaway culture describes the behavior by human of overconsumption and excessive production of short-lived or disposable items.

Consumption: in this research, consumption referred to the process by which goods and services are, at last, put to final use by people. Consumption is at the end of the line of economic activities that starts with an evaluation of available resources and proceeds through production of goods and services and distribution of goods and services (or the means to acquire them) among people and groups. At last, the goods and services themselves come to be used. The effect of this consumption, including depletion of resources and generation of waste as well as enhancement of human survival and flourishing, determines the resource base for the next round of economic activity. (Adam Smith, 1937)

Policy: in this study policy has been referred to as a purposive course of action taken or adopted by those in power in pursued of certain goals and objectives (Sapru 2014). Gil (1973), defines a policy as a guiding principle or courses of action adopted and pursued by societies and their governments as well as various groups or units within societies like non-governmental organisations. Policies may cover various domains including social, and society as a whole. Restriction policies have been put in place by various governments to control the importation of the second hand goods.

8

Effectiveness: this is the degree to which something is successful in producing a desired or intended results. This entails the ability to achieve the desired or intended goals. In this regard, the governments have either ban the imports of these goods or put up high taxes on the same goods in order to effectively control or discourage people from importing second hand goods.

1.8. Operational Definition of Concepts

Some terms used in this research was defined in order to make it easier for the stakeholders to understand the concepts driven in this study. The terms include;

i. **Purposive sampling** is a technique in which a researcher purposely targets a certain group of people because of its reliability for the study; because it possesses specific target information and not any other. This will help the researcher to pick respondents who have a greater contribution to play in providing information with regard to the research to be conducted

ii. **Simple Random Sampling** was used since it affords every member of the target population equal opportunity to be included in the sample. This will further be important as participants shall be picked without bias.

iii. **Unemployment** is a state of having no work to enable one generates an income for his or her needs.

iv. **Multi-stage sampling** is a way to randomly select participants from a list that is too large for simple random sampling. Multi-stage sampling is a sampling technique where the entire population is divided into groups, or clusters (Dohert, 1994).

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

Global perspective

The total global trade in textiles and clothing is worth more than $200 billion each year. The SHC trade has grown ten-fold since 1990 but, at roughly $1 billion per year, still represents less than 0.5 per cent of this total in value terms. In volume terms the proportion is higher, since SHC sells at around 10–20 per cent of the price of new clothes, but it still comprises less than 5 per cent of the total global trade. However, this proportion varies considerably according to the receiving country.

According to Czaga, Peter (2002), International trade is not only about new products. A wide variety of used or refurbished consumer and capital goods are also sold on international markets, from old cars and turbines to spare parts, mobile phones and airplanes. Most used goods are sold by developed countries to developing ones. But the market would be much bigger, if it were not for some key trade restrictions that have curiously been overlooked in recent global trade rounds. This should be changed.

Consider the case of used cars. For a start, the average car has more than one owner over its lifetime – the used-car market is clearly much bigger than the new-car market. Bulgaria, Cyprus, Jamaica, New Zealand and Russia are just some of the many countries where imported used cars account for the lion's share of national car sales.

The magnitude of international trade can be appreciated from the fact that, excluding trade with Canada, the US exported approximately one third as many used automobiles as new automobiles in 1999. Japan, which is another major exporter of used cars, was estimated to have shipped abroad a record US$1 billion in used vehicles in 2003.

In many countries there are also major sales opportunities for remanufactured and used motor vehicle parts and components. The market has been estimated at about $60-70 billion in sales worldwide, as people on lower incomes in particular keep their vehicles running for as long as they can to avoid the expense of purchasing another one.

Another major global market is second-hand clothing which, like used automobiles, could grow much bigger. World exports in used clothing amounted to $990 million in 2001, a small fraction of the export of new clothing, valued at $146 billion. However, this trade is more than it seems, because the relative weight value of second-hand clothing is very small, at just $0.73 per kilogram.

The trouble with the used goods trade is that, just as with new products, many countries have put up high barriers against them, not because they have anything against second-hand items as such, but often simply to protect local manufacturers and salespeople of new and used goods from outside competition. The products most commonly affected are automotive vehicles and parts, machinery, clothing and medical devices.

A recent review by the OECD of trade policy data for 85 member countries of the World Trade Organisation found that almost one third of them impose some kind of prohibition on the importation of one or more categories of used goods (see table). Other countries use licensing requirements, special tariff rates or other less-interventionist measures to regulate imports. Countries in Latin America, Africa, and Asia, including major players like Brazil, China and India, are the leading users of restrictions in this area.

International trade in used motor vehicles is particularly often subject to trade restrictions.

According to work by Danilo Pelletiere and Kenneth A. Reinert of George Mason University, only 58 out of 132 countries surveyed have no import restrictions in place. Twenty-one countries ban importation outright and the remaining countries apply a combination of less restrictive measures, such as conditional import bans (usually related to age or other technical requirements) or special taxes and charges.

Many, predominantly developing, countries also restrict the import of used or remanufactured or rebuilt vehicle parts and tyres. Prohibition is common particularly among Latin American and African countries, although it exists in some Asian and east European countries as well. Trade restrictions also abound for second hand clothing.

There are import prohibitions in place, mostly in African countries and in some low-income Asian and Latin American countries, as well as in China. Their governments usually cite health and sanitary reasons for these measures. South Africa permits the entry of used clothing only if it is for humanitarian donations. Brazil, Pakistan and other countries, again mainly in Asia and Latin America, impose conditional bans on the importation of used machinery, for safety and environmental reasons. Outright bans are rare; instead, most countries demand that the goods in question meet strict technical standards.

Finally, some countries do not permit importation of certain other categories of products, such as used medical devices; China, Egypt, Kuwait, Syria and Thailand reportedly apply unconditional import bans. Such bans are also common for electronic appliances, refrigerators, air conditioners and compressors.

According to Toffler (1970) the throwaway culture originated from America before it quickly spread to the European countries. Quoting Edward Maze, Toffler 1970 writes that what

10

astounded many Americans that were visiting Sweden in the early 1950s was its cleanliness. "We were almost awed by the fact that there were no beer and soft drink bottles by the roadsides, as, much to our shame, there were in America. But by the 1960's, lo and be-hold, bottles were suddenly blooming along Swedish highways . . . What happened? Sweden had become a buy, use and throw-away society, following the American pattern."

Toffler (1970) further adds that the increasing philosophy of socio-cultural transience and transformation has supported the throwaway culture. This argument reaches to the notion of globalization. He argues that the contemporary society has increased the propensity towards impermanence, modularize, technically innovation and organization.

It is based more towards production of goods than any other period in the annals of the history of humanity "not meant to last" as can evidently be seen in aspects like architecture and engineering. The rise of mentalism and hiring services reinforces the modishness of throwaway and modularize. This explains why the throwaway culture is much more than a simple physical disposal of waste issue.

Toffler typifies the whole phenomenon by citing its dynamics as portrayed by Japan and France. He writes that in Japan, "…throw-away tissues are so widely used that cloth handkerchiefs are regarded as old fashioned, not say unsanitary. And even in France, disposable cigarette lighters are commonplace. From cardboard milk containers to the rockets then power space vehicle, products created for long-term or one-time use are becoming more numerous and crucial to our way of life…But to spread of disposability through the society implies decreased durations in man thing relationships.

Instead of being linked with a single object over a relatively long span of time, we are linked for brief periods with the succession of objects that supplant it" (ibid: 57). Besides having critical psychological roots, throwaway culture has critical psychological effects. One effect is that respect to property is changed. Toffler (1970) explains the way the fabric of social experience comprises five relationships. These are people, organizations and ideas and time. The description of these components which synthesize to a "situation". The "situation" goes with the changing attitudes of "things", which people will assume.

Transformation moves with technology, super-industrialism and standardization (i.e. uniformitarianism associated with the minimum set values). These are key features indicating that social and economic transformation in society is an irrefutable reality.

The most common problem attributed to the throwaway culture is of solid waste and a failure of waste management policy. The problem is said to be on the rise from the fact that contemporary consumer societies have developed a 'disposable' mentality in a 'throwaway' culture, and now discard items that, once, would have been reused, recycled or held in stewardship by our ancestral bricoleurs. Khan (2003) defines solid waste as "…material that is cheaper to throw away than to store or use."

Further on he says, nevertheless, that such unwanted material can be segregated, transformed, recycled and re-used with great environmental and financial gain or benefit. Studies on Bamenda City in Cameroon by Achankeng (2003) indicate that one new and increasing element in waste composition is that of non-biodegradable waste. Electronic waste or E-waste, and waste from white goods are increasing.

Literature seems to suggest that household waste generation is growing at an unsustainable rate. According to UKDEFRA between 1996/7 and 2002/3 total municipal waste (including non-household sources) appeared to increase from 24.59 million tonnes to 29.31 million tones. Total household waste generation appeared to increase from 22.55 million tons to 25.82 million tones. No explanation is offered for this enormous increase and DEFRA does not provide any commentary on how it has been possible for householders to process close to 3.3 million extra tons of waste in just six years. Using Murray's calculation of the total number of households (24.6 million) this increase represents an extra 134kg per household per annum or about 5.7lbs per week. From where have householders gained the capacity to consume enough extra goods to generate approaching 6lbs more waste every week?

However, Charisa 2013 writes that just like any other problem, there are many great opportunities in solid waste problem. He wrote that a number of people get their livelihoods as they are employed or self-employ themselves because of the specter of solid waste. There are processes and outcomes in dealing with this aspect. Box 1 relates the problem of the issue in light of how a number of people have crafted livelihood activities in Cairo. The activities include transportation of waste, its screening and the aspects of recycling and re-use.

Apparent from the Box is the fact that solid waste management by socio-economic drive leads to empowerment and betterment of the urban poor. This is management of waste with a human face. The processes put households in business although it is labor-intensive. Where the machines are required, the innovative skills are put to effective use as a strategy of tapping from the indigenous technical knowledge.

Moreover, networks are created such that there is a strong link between the small-scale enterprises to 'big business.' Such is a form of partnership that is desirable. Although the scale of the little settlement of Cairo is not that large, it is a great lesson that can be of use in other cities and regions.

Solid Waste Management through the poor in Cairo.

Source: adapted from New Scientist 130 No 1775 (29 June 1991)

2.1 Regional perspective

Particular concern about SHC has been voiced in West Africa. The dumping of cotton on international markets already has a negative impact on 10–15 million small farmers in the region. Linked to the issue of cotton dumping were questions about the sustainability of livelihoods in the cotton sector, and the region's dependence on primary commodity exports. Currently, 95 per cent of cotton produced in West Africa is exported as raw fibre. A major ambition of policy makers is to promote greater transformation of cotton fibre into finished and semi-finished products in the region, in order to stimulate employment and industry. An often-repeated remark of Mali's president, Amadou Toumani Touré, is that Mali, whilst being the largest cotton producer in sub-Saharan Africa, 'does not produce a single T-shirt'. Recent trends are not encouraging. Of around 41 textiles and clothing industries that existed in the West African Economic and Monetary Union (WAEMU) region in the mid-1990s, by 2004 only six companies were operating at full capacity, and only three of these had satisfactory levels of performance. In Nigeria, the region's largest producer of textiles, up to 80,000 jobs have been lost in the formal textile and clothing industry in the past ten years. As these sectors

have historically provided a first rung on the industrial ladder for developing countries, this has been a serious blow to prospects for industrialisation in West Africa. The possibility that SHC imports could be undermining local textile and clothing production is therefore of particular concern for the region.

This review was initiated to consider the evidence of the impact of the SHC trade on developing country producers and consumers, with a particular focus on West Africa.

The Mobofree, the social marketplace that offers people in Nigeria, Ghana, Uganda and Zimbabwe an online venue to buy, sell and swap used products, just last week disclosed that the value of goods exchanged on its platform rose by 274 percent in the last year, to US$1.97 billion-30 percent above the 2015 forecast.

"A Second-hand good is a huge category everywhere around the world. In fact, even if online marketplaces and e-commerce shops have grown dramatically in developed countries, second hands goods transactions are growing as marketplaces allow much easier way to find, value and perform transactions," said Cristobal Alonso, Mobofree's CEO and co-founder, via email. "I see the same happening in Nigeria and Africa; we will see huge growth in both new items and second hand goods through online platforms for years to come, and even with higher growth rates."

Mobofree foresees growth in Uganda, though with smaller absolute values than in Nigeria, as the economy is smaller and Internet penetration is one third of that larger country.

A variety of new online marketplaces including Mamymarket.com, Locanto.com, Myjoymarket.com, Jiji.ng, Cheki.com, Kaymu.com and OLX have been launched across the continent in recent years. All the

marketplaces rely on building and winning the trust of their users. Buyers and sellers go through a vetting process before being allowed to do business on the platforms.

A recent entrant is Sweden-based Saltside Technologies, which launched several sites for used items—Bikroy.com in Bangladesh, Tonaton.com in Ghana and ikman.lk in Sri Lanka—before launching Efritin.com in the Nigerian market last week.

While Tonaton.com is considered Ghana's largest online marketplace, with over 130,000 ads listed and an estimated one million monthly visitors, Efritin.com has several marketplaces to compete with in Nigeria including Mobofree, which currently has over 500,000 active classifieds in the country. Alonso maintained that marketplaces "are just at the start of the growth curve" of the opportunities presented by the used items market.

All the market needs are a simplified and expedited process of matching buyers and sellers in a local setting, and "a seller gets more optimal exposure because of the nature of digital platforms," said Steve Kwizera, CEO at EZ-Tech Solutions, a technology consultancy, via LinkedIn. "My experience with jiji.ng was excellent," Kwizera said. "I saw their ad on YouTube shortly after I got to Lagos and used them when I was looking for a router. I was able to find seller who was less than a mile away and got my Swift router at an excellent price."

Kwizera noted that the market would be bigger if the used-item platforms also allowed trading in new items, like several U.S. retail sites do, as there are some used items that have been hard to find in months.

Many people in Africa are used to buying second-hand items for various reasons. They go to markets created specifically for used items, with the idea that they are mostly of high quality

and sold at lesser prices. Also, Africans have a history and reputation as being savvy traders.

The soaring Internet penetration rate on the continent has been a contributing factor as well, said Regional SEO Head at Kaymu, Ejiro Esiri. "The business opportunities are there for people to grab them. There is a big market that keeps growing and as a business that used to be primarily offline, the online marketplace model provides an opportunity to reach people in different areas," Esiri said.

It is a common scene across Africa, with Ghana, Nigeria, Ivory Coast, Tanzania, Benin, Uganda and Kenya among the biggest markets for second hand clothes.

These secondhand clothes, discarded as worthless at charity shops or thrift stores in Europe or the United States and then shipped thousands of miles to another continent, provide clothing to many on a continent of 1 billion where economies may be growing but many Africans struggle to get by.

Kenya alone imports about 100,000 tonnes of secondhand clothes a year, providing the government revenues from customs duties and creating tens of thousands of jobs. It also offers quality clothes to Kenyans, many of whom earn less in a month what a pair of new Ralph Lauren khakis costs in the West.

While the market is fuelled by the affordability of its products, it only really took off when liberalisation policies introduced in the late 80s and early 90s ushered in a new age of competition in local garments industries. Until the 1980s, high tariffs protected home grown garment and other businesses.

Then economic liberalization programmes, backed by the World Bank and International Monetary Fund, started taking hold in Kenya and elsewhere. Tariffs were lowered and local factories had to contend with new competition. Many failed and shut.

Second hand clothes filled the gap, and while alternatives were introduced in the form of new clothes from China, complaints of poor quality played in favor of the used clothes.

The route from donor to new owner, described by officials, exporters, wholesalers, traders and academics, takes the used clothes halfway around the world with the money made at each point racking up to a multi-million-dollar global business.

Charity or thrift shops in the West sift donated items, often keeping just a quarter of the items. The rest are sold to exporters for up to 90 U.S. cents a kg, then wrapped in 45-kg bales and packed in containers – a standard 40-foot container holds about 550 bales, equivalent to about 25 tonnes of clothes.

Customs agents collect duties at different African ports, charging each container, while city revenue officials also charge informal hawkers and shops selling secondhand clothes.

Critics of the industry argue that Africa cannot hope to build its own industry when it is flooded with cheap imports.

Indeed, Rwanda is currently involved in a diplomatic tussle with the United States, after it banned the importation of second hand clothes into the country.

The United States responded by suspending Rwanda from enjoying benefits of the AGOA trade program which gives eligible sub-Saharan countries duty-free access to the United States in

exchange for eliminating barriers to U.S. trade and investment, among others.

The ban was agreed by leaders of the East African Community, but Rwanda implemented the ban alone, after Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania succumbed to pressure and chose the economic benefits that accrue under AGOA.

Rajeev Arora, executive director of the African Cotton & Textile Industries Federation says up to 85 percent of Kenya's textile plants had closed since the early 1990s, while cotton output was a tenth of 1990s levels.

And thus, Africa which has countries like Mali, Burkina Faso, Chad, Togo and Uganda as producers of cotton, the raw material from which clothes are made, remains one of the places where the sale of second hand clothing is thriving!

Other experts however say it was not the used clothing imports that drove factories out of business, but inefficient production.

The informal nature of much of the trade makes it difficult to estimate precise numbers, though researchers and officials suggest it may employ hundreds of thousands.

Many banks have however recognised the opportunity that this business presents, with many setting up branches in the vicinity of such markets to serve the traders.

The population of Cairo in 1991 was 14million and producing 10000tones of rubbish a day. Landfills were found to be situated at least 10kilometres outside the city limits, making their operation barely cost-effective. Confronted by that problem many refuse collectors began selling (secretly) their loads to the Zabbaleen (part of Egypt's largest religious minority, the Coptic

Christians, based in squatter camps on the city of Cairo's outskirts) instead of driving to the landfill. The largest Zabbaleen settlement is Manshiet Nasser, a community of 17 000 people situated in a rocky valley at the south-eastern edge of Cairo. The Zabbaleen here own the land. They enjoy aid handouts from agencies like Catholic Relief Services, the World Bank and the Ford Foundation. They are better off when compared to other settlements. Their recycling industries are as well more advanced.

Segregation of waste: Families sort through rubbish in and around their homes, dividing it into plastics, metals, rags, paper, bones, and organic matter. Piles of driving licenses, passports and government papers, accidentally thrown way, lie waiting here to be claimed.

Transformation: For instance, bones end up in factories to be turned into glue, soap, animal feed or filters for the purification of honey or oil. Plastics are sorted by appearance and ground into pellets in a machine. Most of the pelletised plastic is sold at about half the price of newly manufactured polymers – to factories, which produce cheap plastic goods. Recycled jugs are even being exported.

Some products are brittle and they are transformed for some use commensurate with their quality. Unsalable is either torn into thin strips and woven on handlooms into rag rugs, or shredded into fluff. Recycling, for instance, the recycling of beer bottles or a case where metals are returned to factories where they were originally manufactured. Glass, for instance is "re-blown into bowls, jugs and glasses). Paper waste is sent back to paper mills. Different families specialize in different materials: plastics, paper, rags, glass, bones and tin cans.

Manshiet Nasser has undergone something of an 'industrial revolution'. Inhabitants have built

better houses for themselves. Several own assets like televisions, cassette recorders, refrigerators, and pick-up trucks (new and second hand. Sometimes, the Zabbaleen club comes together to buy trucks and also to set their own companies and spend on capital equipment (e.g. machines for grinding and moulding plastics and for shredding rags) for the furtherance of their operations. "The machines, based on Western designs, are made in small workshops in the city.

Several of their owners have become sufficiently rich to sit in the background, drinking tea and smoking, while others slave away for them in the heat…. Money talks – even from the bottom of a steaming, stinking pile of rubbish"

Very little recycling or no recycling is done in Zambia. If we can copy this innovation of recycling our waste from the developed worlds, Zambian people will greatly benefit by making a living out of recycling.

2.2 Local Perspective

Trade in second hand undergarments in Zambia has continued to escalate despite existing legislation banning its importation and sale. The ban, which is secured under the Zambian Standards (ZS) 559, prohibits the importation and sell of used undergarments, such as pajamas, night dresses, night gowns, ladies and gents briefs, brassieres, camisoles and vests. The reason for the ban is simple; it is unhygienic as health expert's advice that used underwear attracts moisture that may result in fungi such as yeasts and mold, and subsequently result in ailments such as skin rash around the reproductive organs area and urinary tract infections.

However, despite the ban and health advice, undergarments have continued to find their way on the streets and eventually on the bodies of buyers.

In Lusaka, the banned clothing such as men's and children's briefs, ladies brassieres are being sold freely on Lumumba Road right behind the Zambia Bureau of Standards (ZABS), which is the enforcement agency. The men's briefs range between K5 to K20, children's pants fetch K3 while ladies' brassieres go for K20. One of the traders, only identified as Mrs. Banda, says she acquires the underwear from wholesalers owned mostly by foreign nationals. Mrs. Banda said the wholesalers conceal the undergarments and are only sold to trusted clients for fear of 'clashing' with the law. "If you go there as a new client, they will never sell you the 'stuff', unless one of their trusted clients introduces you to them," Mrs. Banda says. Aaron Phiri, a trader of used brassieres and ladies pants brags he sells the clothing freely and has never been visited by ZABS inspectors. Mr. Phiri, who has been in the business for three years, says the trade is lucrative and he does not see himself trading in other type of second hand garments.

"The ladies brassieres and pants are 'hot cakes'. My consignment is from the United Kingdom (UK) and women from all walks of life buy from here," Mr. Phiri says. Mirriam Chanda, who trades in children's pants and other clothing, says in the five years of her trade, her consignment of pants was only confiscated once by ZABS inspectors. "A few days later, I bribed one of the inspectors and I was given my goods back. Since then, it is business as usual. "I'm aware of the health effects of selling underwear but I have children to raise and feed. I'm a single mother and I need to educate my family," Ms. Chanda says. ZABS has severally warned of stern action against importers and traders of the undergarments and so perhaps, the biggest question is who is behind the importation of the underwear and is the enforcement agency doing enough to 'police' the situation? The illegal

trading is happening right behind ZABS premises and so one would wonder where the inspectors are.

According to an impeccable source within ZABS, some inspectors, especially in the border areas allegedly work with importers, mainly foreign nationals to smuggle the undergarments. The source said the containers of the second hand clothing are usually inspected at warehouses instead of the point of entry. "Usually, the consignments of these prohibited undergarments are concealed within bales of other clothing such as dresses, trousers and shirts. When the containers reach the warehouses, ZABS inspectors are required to inspect them but since they are usually bribed, they just travel to collect their 'share'," the source said. The source says corruption and lack of enforcement has made the fight against second hand underwear practically impossible. ZABS head of marketing and public relations Hazel Zulu says the agency is aware of the pockets of traders still engaged in the sale of the illegal clothing.

Mrs. Zulu, however, says the agency is focusing on paralysing the syndicate of importers of the underwear as traders are only a fraction of the 'problem'.

She says ZABS officials have intensified what it terms inland inspections in warehouses adding that in the period 2014-2015, over 200 bales of underwear were confiscated in Lusaka and the perpetrators were penalised. "I agree there are still pockets of traders engaged in the illicit activity but what we are focusing on now is paralysing the trade on the importers perspective because we know when we confiscate products from traders on the streets, we are not solving the entire problem.

"So, we inspect the warehouses and we actually find these products and charge the offenders 15 percent of the total value of the seized goods. They also pay the cost of incineration and or destruction of the goods," she says. Mrs. Zulu says the fight against the second hand clothing is being aided by the Zambia Revenue Authority (ZRA) that has declared zero tolerance to smuggling.

Mrs. Zulu says it is 'tricky' to penalise and or identify inspectors involved in the illegal trade without concrete evidence. She, however, says the agency has an integrity committee and workplace policy on code of ethics which all employees should adhere to. Mrs. Zulu reiterated the call for members of the public to shun used undergarments as it is a risk to their health.

Earlier this year, an overwhelming majority of cars failed the basic roadworthiness test leading to the suspension of the new automated fitness test. Following this, the head of the organisation responsible for road safety, the Road Traffic Safety Authority (RTSA), has urged Zambia to consider restricting imports of second-hand vehicles. These were comments which echoed Government was concern over the current policy position on second-hand vehicles. Second-hand motor vehicles are certainly an issue which affects many Zambians. With no car manufacturer in the country, all motor vehicles registered here are imported. Importation of motor vehicles attracts customs duty at 25 percent excise duty of 20-30 percent depending on engine size and on top of this, value added tax (VAT) at 16 percent thereby inflating the cost of cars in Zambia by 75 to 90 percent. Consequently, most consumers cannot afford to buy new motor vehicles and as a result, the overwhelming majority of imported vehicles approximately 90 percent – are second-hand. The used car market is a classic problem long studied by economists whereby sellers generally have more information than buyers regarding the quality of a product. On the buyers' side, it was hard to know for sure the quality and the safety of

17

the car they were buying. As a result of not having full information about the vehicles being bought, while some second-hand vehicles imported in the country may be fine, there may also be some bad cars commonly referred to by economists as a lemon. The question is whether Zambians have the information to spot a lemon when they are buying a car. The answer is almost certainly not. Importing used cars into Zambia only requires fulfilment of a very minimal roadworthiness inspection test. This entails confirmation that vehicles have such basic things as genuine mileage, no damage to the chassis, working lights, no major rust, safe tyres and good working brakes.

Given this lack of full information, it is in order for Road Traffic and Safety Agency (RTSA) to be concerned about the state of motor vehicles that ply our roads. Economic realities have forced developing countries like Zambia to depend on used motor vehicles. Consumers with less purchasing power attach greater value to used cars, which is largely why the second-hand car trade flourishes. Some of the used cars imported have conferred greater benefits to the users compared to their cost of acquisition.

Therefore, the highly liberal used motor vehicle importation policy has given even some low-income households an opportunity to own cars. This improves their everyday lives, but can also enable better transportation of goods around the country, which helps trade. The level of car ownership in Zambia, though relatively low, has considerably increased over the past decades from about 9 cars per 1,000 people in 2004 to about 32 cars per 1000 people in 2012. From this point of view, it can be argued that the policy has contributed to improving the lives of Zambians. The above advantages notwithstanding, the conditions under which the market for used

motor vehicles has developed are characterised by minimal regulation. In this market, as already noted, information concerning the fitness of the vehicles being sold is usually inadequate. This means that many buyers would unknowingly have bought a lemon. This has real implications for both individual consumers and the general public. For an individual consumer, older cars are generally less dependable and costly to maintain but when they buy a lemon, they are deprived and have nowhere to turn to for remedy. For the general public, compromising on safety and health is of real concern.

These safety issues are clearly apparent when so many newly registered vehicles end up in auto repair shops. Some of the imported second-hand cars are outmoded and replacement parts are scarce and expensive. This has led to the growth of another discomforting market: the used auto parts market. This has further increased the number of vehicles on our roads with doubtful fitness. All in all, the overall benefit of the very liberal used car market remains largely uncertain. As the developed world has set high emission standards to coerce owners of old cars to replace them with newer, safer, fuel-efficient and cleaner models, old cars have found a market here in Zambia. But this has happened without due consideration to our own economy and safety. If any car that passes only a basic roadworthiness test can be imported into Zambia, are we not then turning this country into some dumping ground? The growing concern about the condition of motor vehicles being imported in the country is appropriate, but any policy intervention must be supported by evidence. In order to leverage the benefits of the used motor vehicle trade for the welfare of most Zambians and the economy as a whole, the Zambia Institute for Policy Analysis and Research (ZIPAR) is currently undertaking a

study to evaluate the effects of the policy position on used motor vehicle importation in Zambia focusing on the reliability of the motor vehicles owned by Zambian households, the relationship between motor vehicle age and the incidence of accidents and motor vehicle price drivers. This study would contribute to informing any policy decisions made in response to some of the concerns raised by Government and RTSA. It is in all our interests that Zambians can avoid lemons when they buy their family car. This is according to a researcher at the Zambia Institute of Policy Analysis and Research, a Zambian Think-tank established by Government.

2.3 Costs and benefits

Some of the arguments to keep out used goods can be challenged under international trade rules; though health or environmental reasons are tricky, and some are legitimate. Consumers may well clamour for used goods: they are cheaper and often perfectly reusable. Indeed, access to used machinery may be the determining factor in investment decisions by firms in developing countries with skill constraints.

However, used goods are seldom covered by warranties and they can carry risks and costs. For example, defective or hazardous products can be exported to countries that lack the regulatory framework needed to protect users against them, so rather than sort through the goods; it simply becomes easier to ban them outright. Otherwise, it is questionable whether used goods should be treated differently to new ones for trade purposes. And even where safety is an issue, old goods could be subject to the same rigorous testing standards that new goods are required to meet. Even environmental arguments may not be watertight.

Research suggests that used vehicles from developed countries often meet higher environmental and safety standards than a developing country's local fleet of (still older) vehicles. The recycling and re-use of clothing and auto parts helps save scarce natural resources and, as long as the goods are not dangerous or toxic, stretching the lifespan of old products is on balance good environmental policy.

Used goods are obviously problematic, since they are, after all, used. But outright prohibition of importation may not be necessary if the policy goals behind these bans can be reached by other, less trade restrictive, means. In other words, controls and oversight could be stepped up, and technical inspection carried out at specified intervals, but trade itself would continue. That surely would bring trade benefits in the longer run. Also, some of the more complex control functions could be shared with the exporting countries, which tend to have more developed regulatory infrastructure.

For high-risk used or refurbished goods, exporters could perform quality control as part of their own trading procedures. What's more, the used goods market could lean on internationally recognised standards already in place to build its own appropriate standards.

An important step in this direction occurred in 2004 when the International Organisation for Standardisation (ISO) endorsed a plan for developing international standards intended to ensure that second-hand goods meet agreed health and safety standards, and that consumers have access to the necessary product data to make informed purchasing decisions. The development of such standards, coupled with capacity building enabling all countries to use them effectively, should provide an opportunity for countries to review and liberalise their existing trade policies. But while used goods trade should be liberalised, that does not mean a free-for all. On the contrary,

better oversight would reduce the fraud already affecting the used goods sector.

The bottom line was the crude import bans in place in many countries was unable to achieve their goals. Easing restrictions and lifting bans in a coordinated way will help boost welfare and development. Used goods may be, but with trade, they become very useful indeed.

3.0 Methodology

Research methodology is a systematic way to solve a research problem. It might be understood as a science of studying how research is done scientifically. In it we study the various steps that are generally adopted by a researcher in studying his research problem along with the logic behind them. It involves analysis of the assumptions, principles and procedures in a particular approach to inquiry. It justifies and explains the rationale on the use of the particular methods on a research problem, (Kothari, 2004).

The research methodology contained among others the following components: Research design, Target population, sample size, Sampling procedure, data collection methods, Data collection instruments, Data collection procedure and data analysis, limitations and Ethical considerations. To get an insight into or to confirm or deny the proposition of the study that Cheap, short-lived consumer goods imported are affecting the Zambian households and the Zambian economy negatively, a research was conducted in Nyimba District. Data collection exercise was conducted on households and businessmen in the District.

This research was conducted on households, and organizations which operate and conduct business within the District of Nyimba. The research used primary and secondary data. Primary data was collected using questionnaires and interviews. Secondary data was collected

through review of previous literature on the subject and employ observation as the major technique. Purposive sampling technique was used to select households and business houses for this research.

The study was exploratory in nature and a lot of quantities of data were gathered and analyzed using tabulations especially in MS excel and MS word applications. Other sources from written literature were also used. What is of great importance here was to get accurate information from well qualified officers who understood the effects of short-lived goods from the case study. Therefore, in order to confirm or deny the proposition of the study that Cheap, short-lived consumer goods imported are affecting the Zambian households and the Zambian economy negatively, a research was conducted.

3.1 Research Design

The research design is the conceptual structure within which the research is conducted; it constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. So, the research design can be defined as a master plan for the determined methods, structure, and strategy of a research to find out alternative tools to solve the problems, and to minimise the variances (Kothari 2004).

Kombo & Tromp (2006) define a research design as putting together all the elements of research. To ensure attainability or achievement of the research objectives, both exploratory and descriptive research was used. The former was used to obtain an insight into and additional ideas on the short-lived goods of households and business houses in Nyimba District.

After such ideas and a clear view of what is involved in the research have been obtained, the latter was used to describe the implications of these goods in the District.

A survey was conducted, with the main focus of collecting primary data. Primary data was collected by the questionnaires for randomly selected individual households and businessmen dealing in the selling of clothing, electronic goods and footwear.

Questionnaires were used in this survey which contained both closed and open-ended questions. The main objective of the questionnaire was to obtain data on the implication cheap, short-lived consumer goods has on low income households in Zambia.Secondary data was collected through literature survey on the internet.

3.2 Target population

Kombo and Tromp (2001) states that a population consists of individuals, elements or objects of specific group with common characteristics to which the researcher planned to generalize the results. The study targeted all households and businesses in the District.

3.3 Sample Size and Sampling procedure

3.3.1 Sample size

A sample can be defined as a group of relatively smaller number of people selected from a population for investigation purpose. A sample is a subset of a statistical population whose characteristics studied to obtain information about the entire population (Webster, 1985). The sample size of 50 which was at least 10% of the total population of the households and SMEs in the area where the questionnaires were administered.

The use of a sample about 10% size of parent population is recommended (Hill, 1998); this was also pointed out by Alreck & Settle (1995) who stated that it is seldom necessary to sample more than 10%. Hence if the parent population is 1400, then sample size should be about 140.

3.3.2 Sampling Procedure

The process through which a sample is extracted from a population is known as sampling (Ghosh, 2013). The study employed purposive and multi-stage sampling methods. Purposive sampling was used for key informants and informed respondents while multi-stage was used for households' respondents to generate a sample.

The purposive is a non-probability sampling method which is also known as judgmental sampling and is based on the judgment of the researcher regarding the characteristics of a representative sample. Here a researcher selects a sample based on who he/she thinks would be appropriate for the study. Purposive sampling was used to sample key informants.

Purposive was used to select the study participants. This method would be ideal because of the nature of the study. The study sought to interview people who were knowledgeable about the issue under study. As such purposive sampling became relevant as it enables the researcher to have access to the units that are knowledgeable about the social impact of cheap, short lived consumer goods. A researcher could hand pick the units of analysis to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgment of their typicality or possession of the particular characteristics being sought (Cohen, 2011). This enables the researcher to build up a sample that is satisfactory to the specific needs of the study.

In addition, purposive sampling was used because some respondents are regarded as being key respondents. The entrepreneurs and other business men and women, these are specialist in this area of study. It is believed that they are well place to provide first-hand information on the

strategies put in place, problems encountered and achievements made so far.

Purposive sampling was used to select the participants from the four chiefdoms in the area these are the chiefs, individuals, business men and women, government departments and non-governmental organizations (NGOs).

Multi-stage sampling was used to select household respondents in the District. Multi-stage sampling involves sampling in stages. This means that the researcher takes several steps in gathering the sample. Multi-stage sampling is a way to randomly select participants from a list that is too large for simple random sampling.

Multi-stage sampling is a sampling technique where the entire population is divided into groups, or clusters (Dohert, 1994). Then random samples of these clusters are selected using simple random sampling. Multi-stage has been selected because it works well for studies that cover a wider geographical area where a complete list of members of the population is not available. It is also economical in reducing cost by concentrating on the selected clusters it gives less precision than the simple random sampling.

3.4 Data collection methods and procedures

3.4.1 Data collection instruments

Kasonde- Ngandu (2013) states that research instruments are the necessary tools that a researcher uses to collect data from the respondents. This research used a mixed approach in that it was both quantitative and qualitative in nature.

In sourcing primary data, questionnaires were administered, and oral interviews were carried out to households and entrepreneurs operating in the District that were unable to read and write.

This was for assessing the opinions of the people about the short-lived consumer goods.

Secondary data was obtained from government sources and literature such as books, journals, and newspapers were also used.

3.4.1.1 Primary data

Primary data gives a better understanding of the research problem as it comes from the concerned and reliable respondents, and as such, is considered to be original (Bless and Achola 1988). The source of this type of data in this study would be obtained by questionnaires and interviews.

Questionnaires were administered to a total of number of 50 individuals and businessmen in Nyimba which represent the total sample size for the research. Because some respondents could not return filled in questionnaires, interviews were conducted to supplement questionnaires.

3.4.1.2 Questionnaires

Questionnaires are a formulated series of questions which are used to gather information on a particular subject matter. They are one of the tools which were opted for in this research because of their effectiveness of capturing large amounts of the needed data per respondent. A total of 50 questionnaires were administered to the total sample of 50 individuals and businessmen in the District sampled for this research study.

Therefore, because the study involved many households and whereas some were sparsely located, the questionnaires enabled the coverage of such businesses. The using of questionnaires as one of the data collection tools outweighed their disadvantages because of its ability to be administered to and capture a large sample size, easier to administer, require less time to be

distributed, they are a cheaper way of collecting large amounts of data per respondent and can be answered in detail.

3.4.1.3 Interviews

An interview, particularly in-depth interview, is defined as a situation in which the interviewer or researcher questions respondents face-to-face and records their answers, (Cohen et al, 2000). The rationale behind use of interviews was that it had a high response rate and the researcher was placed in a situation where he managed to probe the respondents for clarifications.

Similarly, respondents asked for clarifications as sometimes questions were complex or were interpreted differently. This type of data collection technique therefore, allowed the researcher, through the interactions to gain an in-depth understanding of the subject. The researcher was also placed to gain full understating of what the respondent really wanted to say. Interviews focus on the world of the interviewee and seek to reveal their beliefs, values, reality, feelings and experience of a phenomenon (Creswell, 2007).

3.4.1.4 Secondary data

Secondary data is data that has been documented and is obtained from sources such as books, research reports, seminar presentations, conference papers, working papers, among others which can be gotten from individuals, libraries and the internet (Twycross and Shields, 2004). This type of data would be collected in order to gain insight into what has been written by others.

Secondary data were obtained from government sources as well as businessmen. Relevant literature such as books, journals, and newspapers were also used. Furthermore, the other secondary data were sourced from the Eastern chamber of commerce and trade, brochures and text books from the Information and communication university AIMS and various relevant business publications.

3.4.2   Data Collection Procedure

The researcher distributed all the fifty (50) questionnaires in person and enough time was given to the respondents in order to respond to questions. Then, at an appointed time questionnaire were collected from them. The researcher used this method to help clear all concerns that were raised by respondents while working with questionnaires for instance, the technicality of some words that might have been used in the questionnaires were easily cleared during the administering and collection of the questionnaires. The researcher also conducted observation visits to the households, DAPP stores, traders of second hand goods and other businessmen under study.

3.5 Data Analysis

The data that were collected were both qualitative and quantitative therefore data analysis was done both manually and electronically using SPSS. Tables, graphs and charts were used to present the findings.

These techniques were used in a complimentary way so that results could easily be presented and compared using figures and tables as well as explanations using words.

3.6 Data Triangulation

According to Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (1996:133-134), the use of multiple, but independent measures is known as "Triangulation". Therefore, the data collected through the two different questionnaires and interviews questions were compared and contrasted for the verification of its reliability and validity.

3.7 Research Ethics

According to Saunders et al, (2000:130), "ethics refer to the appropriateness of your behaviour in relation to the rights of those who become the subject of your work, or are affected by it". Ethical issues were highly considered in this study. Participants were informed about the nature and purpose of the study. Further, informed consent was sought from the participants before commencement of data collection. In addition, the respondents were informed that the information gathered was purely for academic purposes. All the names of the respondents were kept anonymous to ensure that confidentiality was maintained.

3.8 Summary

The data that were collected by the outlined methods were used to achieve the aforementioned research objectives of this study and were analyzed so as to establish the social impact of cheap, short-lived consumer goods in Nyimba District.

4.0 RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DATA ANALYSIS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter would focus on and present the findings of the research as well as an analysis of the findings of the research study. Both findings obtained through primary data as well as secondary data about cheap and short-lived goods, and the throw away culture in Zambia would be analyzed and conclusions would be drawn from them.

4.1 Summary of the methods used

A summary of the methods of primary data collection methods that were employed in the course of this research study are hereunder given.

4.1.1 Response Rate

A total number of **50** questionnaires were administered to individuals and business houses in Nyimba. Of the number of the questionnaires administered, only **41** were answered and **1** returned blank. **8** were not returned. Translating into **82%**, **2**% and **16**% respectively with the breakdown indicated on table **1.**

Table 1: Response Rate

ACTIVITY	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
Returned	41	82%
Blank	1	2%
Not returned	8	16%
TOTAL	**50**	**100%**
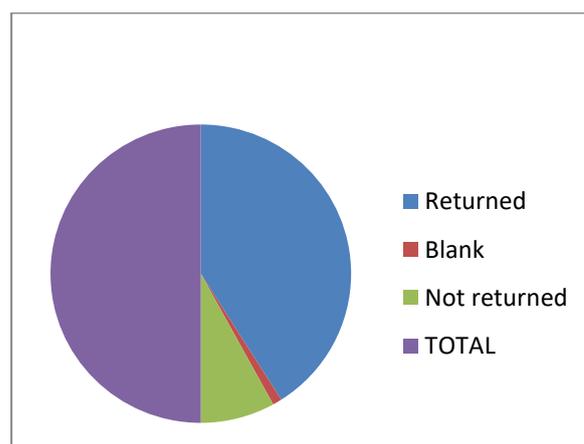
Figure 1: Response rate

The responses rate has a significant number of blank questionnaires which was not good at all. Some respondents were returning them because of the levels of literacy such that they could not answer the questionnaire. Some could be as a

result of lack of knowledge not knowing the importance of research. While others could be both factors which could have led to return blank copies.

4.1.2 Gender

A total of forty **(41)** questionnaires were administered and answered. Of which 30 were male and 11 were female translating into 73% and 27% respectively as indicated in table 2.

Table 2: Gender

SEX	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE (%)
Male	30	73%
Female	11	27%
Total	**41**	**100%**
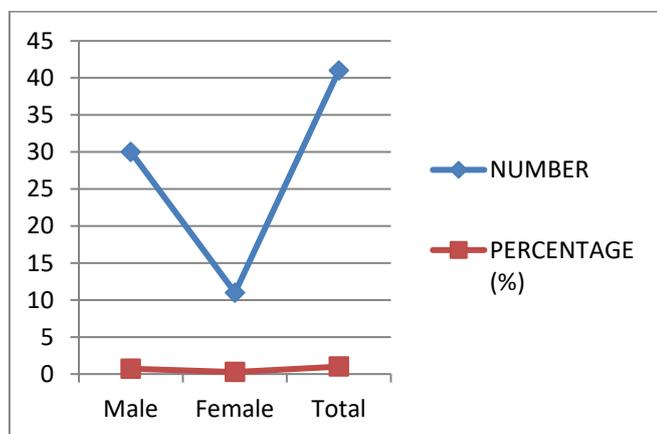
Figure 2: Gender

The study has shown that only 30 males took part in the research, while only female participated. The reasons could be literacy level and lack of interest in research. The women are the ones who more vulnerable than their male counterparts. Women and children are the ones who buy these products on the streets. Therefore, could have been much higher than men.

4.1.3 Age Group

This research study further showed and revealed that the respondents were ranging from 18 to above 45 years old. The age group was as shown in table 3 below.

Table 3: Age Group

Age group	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE (%)
18-35	22	54%
35-45	13	32%
Above 45	6	14%
Total	**41**	**100%**
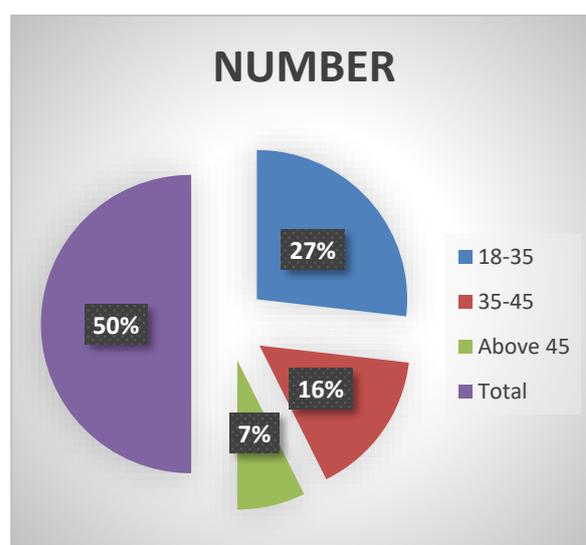
Figure 3: Age group

Most of questionnaires were responded by the youth group mainly in age category of 18-35 years. The adults' response was lower could be because lack interest or the levels of education.

4.1.4 Cost of products

In response to the question about the cost, the study revealed the following as shown in the table **4.**

Table 4: Cost of products

Cost Price	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
Expensive	9	22%
Cheap	6	15%
Fair	26	63%
TOTAL	**41**	**100%**
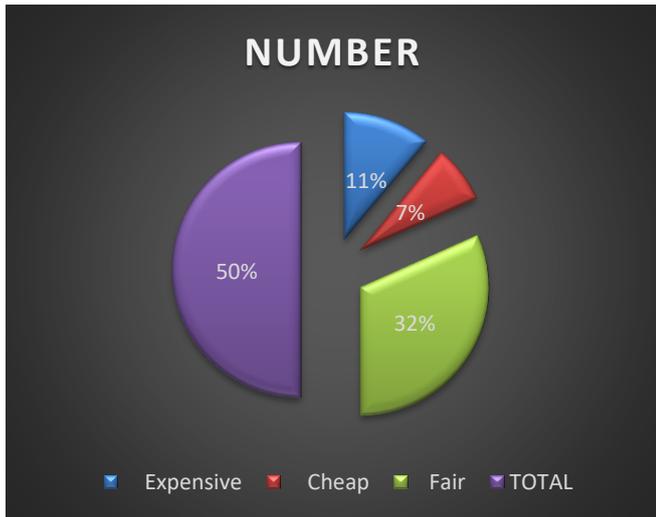
Figure 4: Cost of these products

From the pie above, majority of respondents have said the prices for the second hand goods were fair. The products are not expensive or cheap, but fair.

4.1.5 Quality of goods

Furthermore, this research study also included the quality of second hand goods. The research indicated that **76%** of the respondents said the goods are worth their money, while 24% said they are not. The breakdown is shown on table 5 below.

TABLE 5: Quality of goods

EDUCATION LEVEL	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
Worth their money	31	76%
Not worth their money	10	24%
TOTAL		**100%**

41	
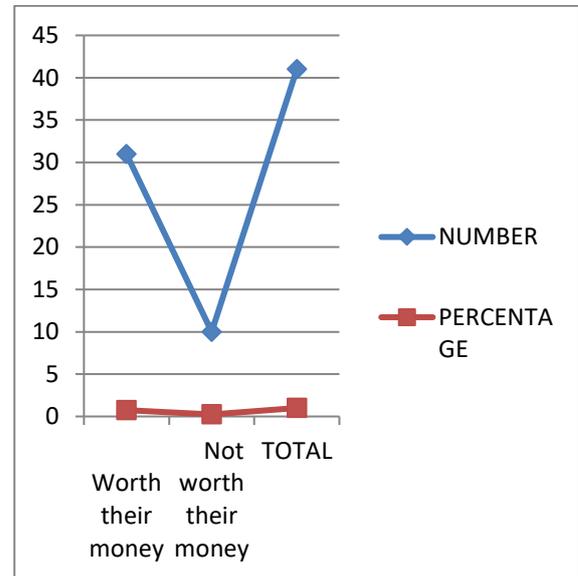
Figure 5: Quality of goods

In terms of quality, most the respondents said the goods were worthy their monies.

4.1.6 Affordability

This research study indicated and revealed the following on affordability of second hand goods for those that answered the questionnaire. Table 6 shows the breakdown of the affordability.

TABLE 6: Affordability

AFFORDABILITY	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
Affordable	32	80%
Not Affordable	8	20%
TOTAL	**40**	**100%**
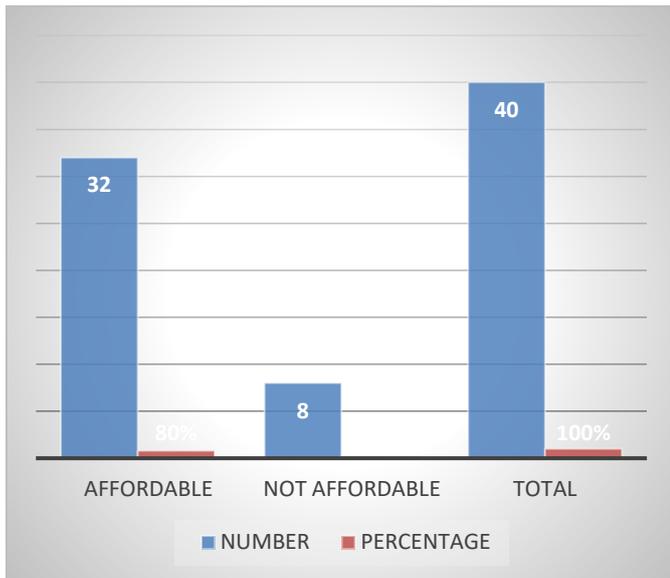
Figure 6: Affordability

From the collected data, most of the respondents said that the goods in question were affordable as compared to those found in shops.

4.1.7 Accessibility

This research study indicated and revealed the following on accessibility of these goods. Table 7 shows the breakdown of the Accessibility.

Table 7: Accessibility

ACCESSIBILITY	Number	Percentage (%)
Accessible	38	93%
Not accessible	3	7%
Total	**41**	**100%**
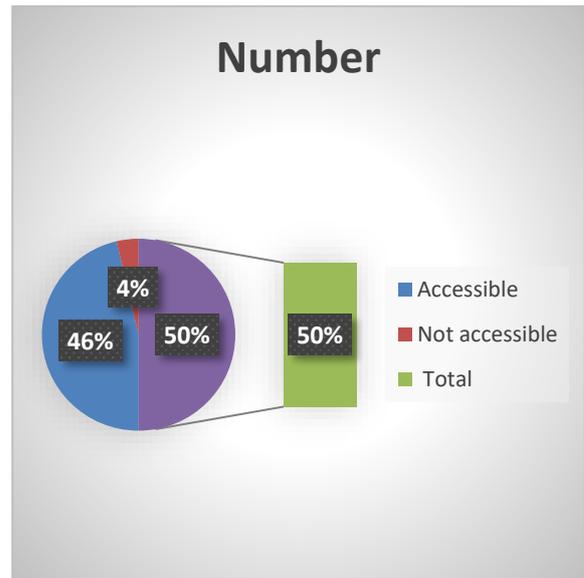
Figure 7: Accessibility

4.1.8 Creation of employment

This research study indicated and revealed the following on employment creation from those that answered the questionnaire. Table 8 shows the breakdown of the creation of employment.

TABLE 8: Employment creation

Employment	Number	Percentage (%)
They create	33	82.5%
They do not create	7	17.5%
Total	**40**	**100%**
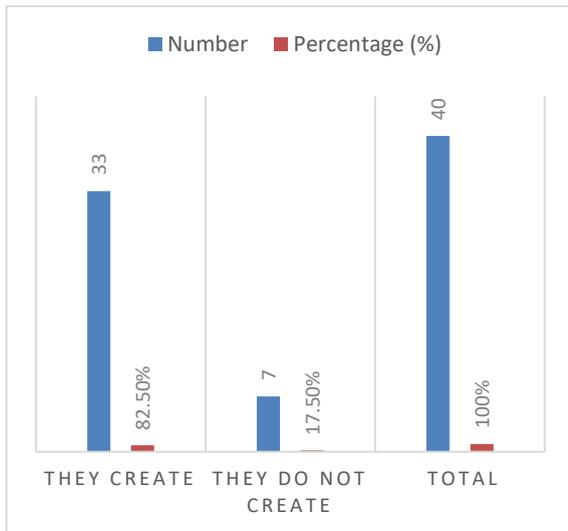
4.1.8 Creation of Employment

Most of the respondents said they create employment.

4.1.9 Contribution to the growth of local industries

This research study indicated and revealed the following on contribution of the growth of local industries from those that answered the questionnaire. Table 9 shows the breakdown of the contribution to the local industries.

Table 9: Contribution to the growth of local industries

Contribution to local industries	Number	Percentage (%)
They do contribute	16	40%
They do not contribute	24	60%
Total	**40**	**100%**
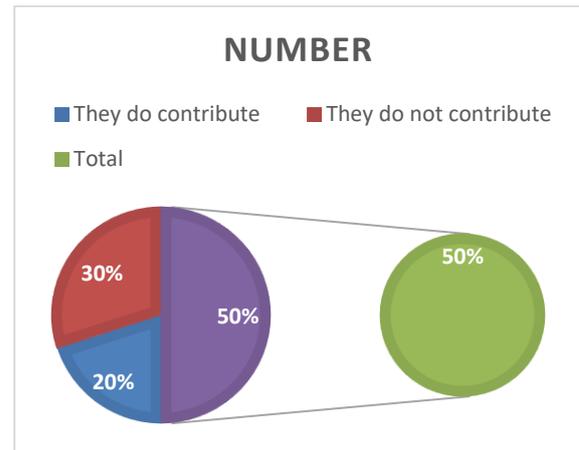
Figure 9: Contribution to the growth of local industries

Most of the respondents do not agree that they contribute to the growth of local industries.

4.1.10 IMPACT TO ENVIRONMENT

This research study revealed that out of the 41 respondents, only **18** were able to say they were impacting negatively on the environment. 23 respondents said they have no effect on the environment. The aforementioned breakdown is given in the table below.

Table 10: Impact on environment

Environmental impact	Number	Percentage (%)
Have negative impact	18	43%
No impact on the environment	23	56%
Total	**41**	**100%**
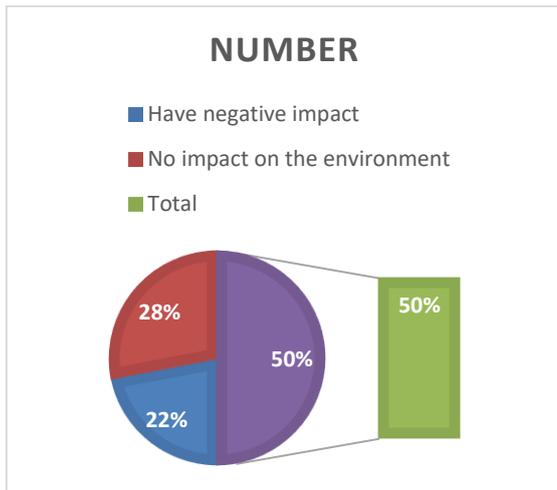
Figure 10: Impact on Environment

Most of the respondents said they not have any impact on the environment.

4.1.11 pollution

This research study revealed that out of the **40** respondents on pollution, only 16 said the goods pollutes the environmental. 24 said no effect on environment. That is 40% and 60% respectively. This represented a total of percentage of **100%** of those that responded.

Table11: Pollution

POLLUTION	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
Pollutes Environment	16	40%
Do not pollutes environment	24	60%
TOTAL	**40**	**100%**
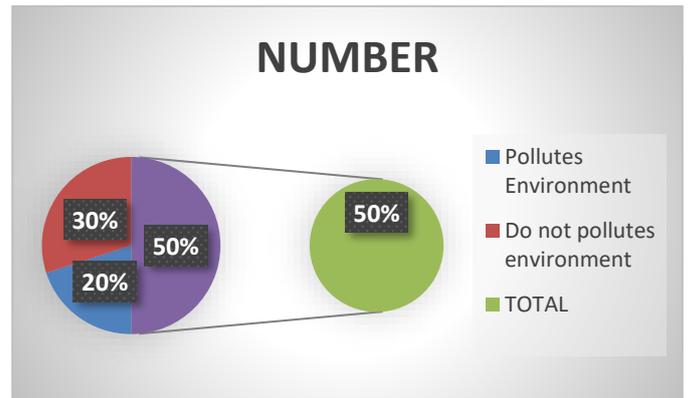
Figure 11: Pollution: Most of the respondents said they do not pollute the environment.

4.2.1. Data analysis:

An analysis is hereunder conducted so as to draw inferences from the collected data. It was noted from the data collected that majority of the population in Zambia are youth. This is evident from the figures as youth respondents were 54% of the total respondents. Those in middle age accounted for 22% and only 14% are 45 and above of age.
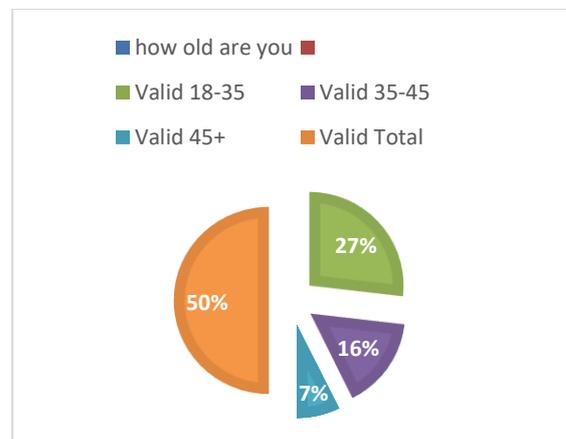
Figure 12: Age group

It was also noted that most of the second hand goods are fairly priced as compared to durable ones. About 63% of the respondents said these goods are fair. 22% per cent said the prices were expensive and only 14% said they were cheap.
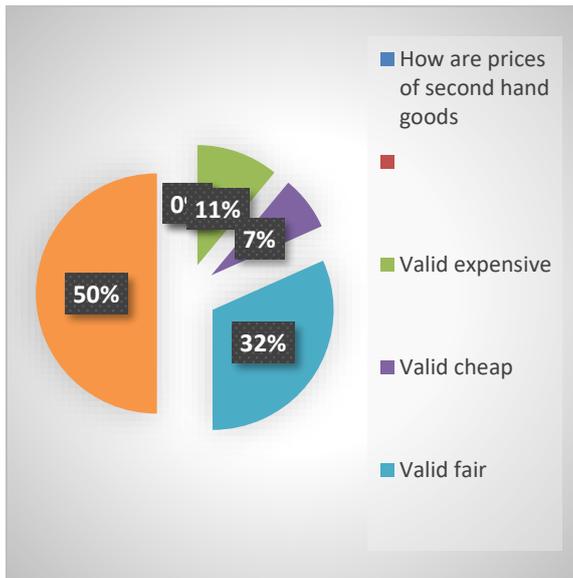
Figure 13: cost of short-lived goods

The research further revealed that 76% of respondents said these are worth their monies. While, only 24% said the goods were not worth their monies. That data revealed that the said goods are of high-quality goods compared to the purported strong ones from reputable stores.

The research further revealed that these goods are affordable. The data shows that 80% of the respondents said the goods are affordable by the poor people in society. And only 20% of the respondents said otherwise.

It was further noted that most of the second hand goods were easily accessible. The collected data showed that 93% of the respondents said the

goods are easily accessible.
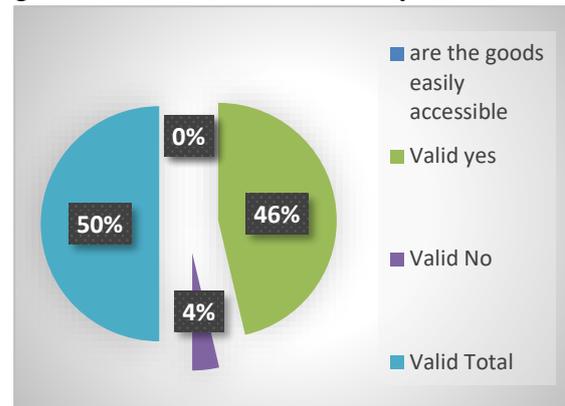
Figure 14: Accessibility of goods

It was further noted that these short-lived goods do contribute to the creation of employment in the country. From data collected, 82.5% said they do contribute to the creation of more jobs in the society. Only 17.5% said they do not contribute to the creation of employment.

Data collected has also revealed that only 40% of the respondents said these goods contribute to the growth of the local industries. However, about 60% per cent said that they do not contribute. The research further revealed that these goods have no negative impact to the environment. 56% of the respondents said no effect to the environment. Only 44% said otherwise.
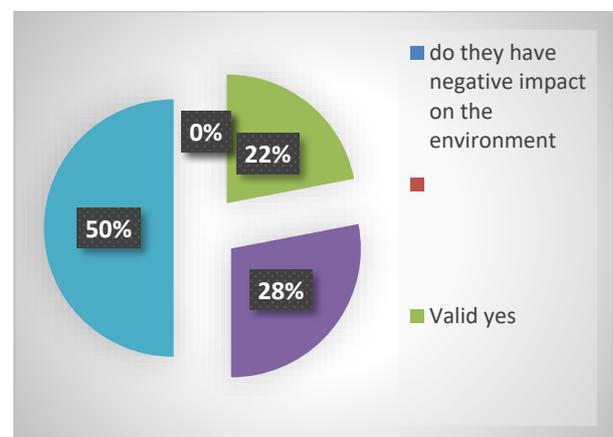

Figure 15: Impact to environment

The research has further revealed that the goods do not pollute the environment. 60% of the respondents said they don't pollute environment. Only 40% said otherwise.

The trade has clear consumer benefits. This is especially true in countries with low purchasing power, and for poorer consumers, though in many sub-Saharan African countries it seems that almost all socio-economic groups are choosing to buy second hand clothes.

Affordability is the key reason why people buy these goods. Fashion and consumer preferences also seem to be shifting away from traditional, 'African'-style to more 'Western'-style clothing.

The trade supports hundreds of thousands of livelihoods in developing countries. These include jobs in trading, distributing, repairing, restyling, and washing clothes.

Second hand clothes imports are likely to have played a role in undermining industrial textile/clothing production and employment in Zambia. However, such imports have not been the only cause. Increasingly cheap imports from Asia are competing with local production, while supply-side constraints undermine the efficiency of the domestic industry. These constraints include unreliable and expensive infrastructure; the cost and availability of materials; outdated capital stock and lack of access to credit; and inadequate training and management skills.

In several African countries it is not clear that, even in the absence of second hand clothes, local textile/garment production and employment would recover, as new imports from East Asia are cheaper than locally produced goods and there are serious supply-side constraints. With the exception of Nigeria, formal employment in the sector has declined to very low levels in most countries. While initial data suggest a limited direct impact of second hand clothes trade on informal sector production, as this is the largest informal employment sector in many African countries, these impacts need to be closely analysed and monitored over the long term.

Finally, the second hand clothes trade in recipient countries is mainly informal and is poorly regulated. In some instances, it has facilitated considerable customs fraud, as new clothing imports have been passed off as used clothing. This has led to reduced government revenue and, arguably, higher levels of imports and greater competition for domestic production, as new imports enter without the full tariff duty being paid.

Illustration 1: Japanese Car

The above photo is an important car from Japan. These are second hand cars that flooded on the Zambian market. There usually cheaper compared to new cars from Toyota Zambia. Majority of the people cannot afford the brand-new cars.
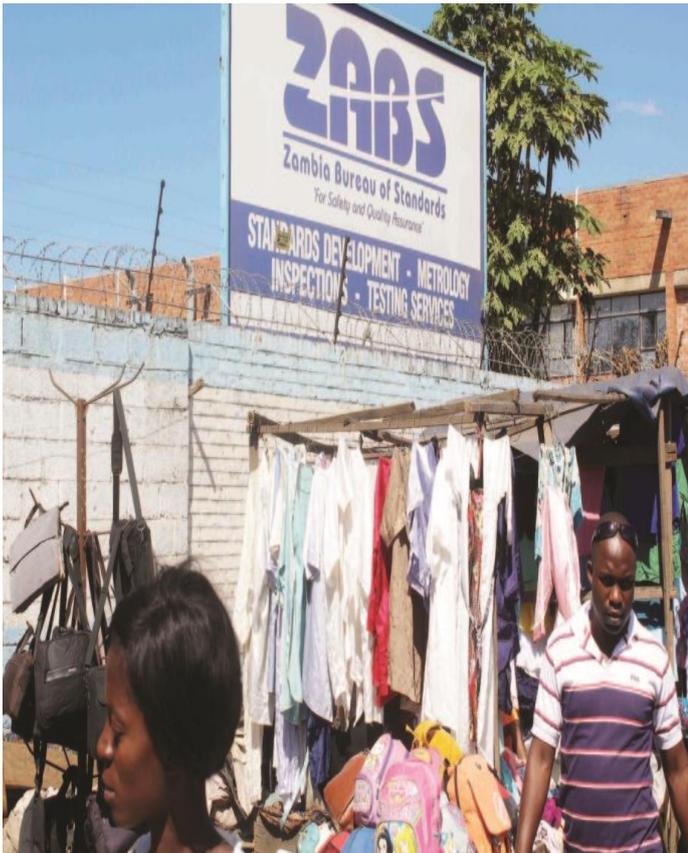
Illustration 2: Zambia bureau of standards (ZABS)

The above photo shows the Zambia bureau of standards and the traders of second hand clothes. The ZABS is responsible for quality of the goods either produced or imported into Zambia.

4.2.2 Summary

The research study has made many revelations with regards to the imported second goods and its impact on people and the environment where they are living particularly in Nyimba District.

5.1 Conclusion

To bring to the fore the impact of short-lived goods to the households and the economy as whole as revealed by the study, that would need serious attention by the concerned stakeholders. Some of these issues are as follows:

In the first place, the study has revealed that these goods are easily accessible and though not cheap. Some people especially the poor still face some challenges to acquire them.

The study has also revealed that these goods are of high quality. They are worthy people's money. Some still feel that they are of low quality.

In addition to that, it is evident from the collected data that most of the respondents said the goods have no negative impact to the environment.

Not only that, the study showed that these goods do not pollute the environment. Most of them do not agree that these goods could pollute the environment. However, other still feel the environment is at stake because of these goods since these have turned Africa as their dumping ground.

Furthermore, the research revealed that most of people are appreciating these goods as they have reduced long queues people to experience when buying the much-needed commodities

However, the research has also revealed that these goods do no contribute to the growth of the local industries. Most local industries could not stand the competition that comes with high production costs in the local industries.

5.2 Recommendations

In view of the data analysis and research findings in light of the impact of short-lived goods on households and the economy as whole, Nyimba District in particular. The following recommendations should be taken into account to enhance the attainment of the SNDP goals strategies in various sectors of the economy. Recommendations are hereunder given;

5.2.1 Existence of customs regulations

Working with importers, processors and traders in developing countries, to extend benefits further down the supply chain.

Furthermore, players should come on board to make these goods available on the market. When the supply is high, prices are reduced as the demand for the commodities is reduced as well.

5.2.2 Taking the products to rural communities

Making these products available to consumers in rural areas where they currently do not benefit from the trade since these are people with low income.

5.2.3 Strengthening import controls

Observing, scrupulously the customs requirements of recipient countries, to set a lead in the fight against customs fraud. Improved customs enforcement, including tightening controls on import regulation to reduce fraud.

5.2.4 Regional integration

There should greater regional integration, through stronger incentives for cross-border integration of the cotton-textiles industry.

5.2.5 Reduction of tariffs

Government should consider reducing tariffs on certain goods to make them affordable to its citizens who are exporting and importing second hand goods.

5.2.6 Networking

Support for increased organization and networking among informal sector clothing and textiles producers, to improve their competitiveness in domestic and export markets.

5.3.0 Future Research

This research study may have only revealed some of the impact of imported goods to the households and the economy as whole, more research needs to be conducted so as to bring to the fore the impact of these goods.

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Appendix

APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE GUIDE

Dear Respondent,

This questionnaire is aimed at gathering primary data concerned on the social impact of cheap, short-lived consumer goods and the dumping culture, which affects the Zambian households and the economy as a whole. You are kindly requested to fill in the answers depending on the instructions given. The information provided will be strictly confidential and exclusively for this research only and not for any other purposes.
I therefore, would like to appreciate for your time and cooperation in anticipation.
Where there are boxes ⬜ , please indicate by ticking, in some questions fill in the blank spaces using block letters.

PARTA: ACCESSIBILITY OF THE GOODS

1. How are the prices of second hand goods?
1. Expensive   ………………………..
2. Cheap   ………………………..
3. Fair   …………………………

2. Are the goods worth people's money   Yes   No
3. Do you think the seconds makes poor people afford the much-needed commodities?
1. Yes: Explain………………………..
2. No: Explain…………………………

4. Are the goods easily accessible?
                         1. Yes
                          2. No

5. Has the introduction of seconds reduce queues for the commodities?
    a) Yes
    b) No

PART B: IN RELATION TO THE ECONOMY

6. Do you think the seconds have contributed to the creation of employment?
    a) Yes
    b) No

7. Do you believe that seconds have contributed to growth of local industries?

Yes ☐   No ☐

8. Do seconds leads to loss of employment?
   1. Yes ☐
   2. No ☐

9. Is it true seconds kills local industries?   Yes ☐   ☐

PART C: IMPACT TO THE ENVIRONMENT

10. Do you think the seconds have impacted negatively on our environment?
1. Yes
2. No
☐

4. Do these products / goods pollute our environment?
   1. Yes
   2. No
☐

APPENDIX 2: INTERVIEW GUIDE

ORAL QUESTIONS FOR HOUSEHOLDS

1. How do you rate the prices of second hand goods?
2. Are the goods worthy people's money?
3. Are the goods affordable by ordinary citizens?
4. Are the goods easily accessible?
5. Do the goods contribute to employment creation?
6. Do the same goods contribute to the growth of local industries?
7. What are the effects on the environment?
8. Do these goods contribute to economic growth through payment of taxes?
9. Do these goods generally improve people's welfare?