A GENDER ANALYSIS OF RESTAURANT EMPLOYEE PROFILES AND PERCEPTIONS IN SOUTH AFRICA

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As the candidate's supervisor, I have approved this dissertation for submission.

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COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE, ENGINEERING AND SCIENCE

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I, Sandile Padayachee Mzolo, Registration Number 213521450, hereby declare that the content of this dissertation has not been submitted in any form to any tertiary institution and, except where the work of others is acknowledged in the text, the results are the author's original work.

_____   13 July 2022

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Prof Urmilla Bob (supervisor)   Date

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This is for my parents who adopted me and gave me all the courage and support to fulfil such an achievement.

"The best way to predict the future, is to create it."

       Abraham Lincoln

ABSTRACT

The restaurant industry is highly variable and responsive to customer demands and changes. It is a major industry that contributes to economic development and job creation. There is increasing focus on restaurant employees with limited focus on gender aspects which include wage gaps, occupational segregation, advancement opportunities and working conditions that apply to the tourism and hospitality sector more generally. It is in this context that the study undertakes an analysis of restaurant employee profiles and perceptions in South Africa to better understand employee trends and practices from a gender perspective. Employee surveys were conducted at 402 restaurants in selected South African cities (Cape Town, Durban and Johannesburg representing cities in South Africa with the largest number of restaurants and Pietermaritzburg and Polokwane representing cities with lower numbers of restaurants) as part of a National Department of Tourism funded study was subjected to a gendered analysis. In total, 1 869 surveys were completed at the 402 purposively selected restaurants. Some of the key findings are that restaurants in South Africa, as is the trend globally, employ a generally youthful and female population with close to a third being foreigners. A trend that is dissimilar to global patterns is that in South Africa most employees (irrespective of gender) in the restaurant industry work on a permanent rather than a casual or temporary basis although the wages received were relatively low with males on average earning more than females. Furthermore, almost all employees earn a salary with half of the respondents indicating tips as well. The results indicate the importance of the restaurant industry as an employer in South Africa. The relatively high turnover suggests areas of employee dissatisfaction which include low salaries as well as limited promotion opportunities, rewards and benefits. The main skills required in the restaurant industry identified by employees were emotional/ behavioral attributes, functional skills, and knowledge-based and physical skills, with the customer-centric orientation of the skills needed being evident. Very few gender differences were noted in relation to skills/ attributes needed for positions in the restaurant industry, which is contradictory to assertions in the literature. This suggests that gendered recruiting and occupational segregation are problematic since both males and females identify similar skills as being important. Key recommendations forwarded are to further examine employee vulnerabilities in the restaurant sector, especially in relation to specific gender issues such as harassment experienced which was not included in the survey used in this study. Future research should also look at perceptions of whether tips should be retained as a form of remuneration, gender influences when recruiting and promoting staff and job security issues. Training of staff in relation to dealing with customers as well as addressing concerns that lead to high staff turnover are also areas identified that need attention. More generally, there is a need to rethink training for the restaurant sector given that generally qualifications are not required. Finally, it is recommended that COVID-19 impacts be better understood and addressed.

Table of Contents

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

LIST OF ACRONYMS

COVID-19   Coronavirus Disease 2019

DoL   Department of Labor

GDP   Gross Domestic Product

ILO   International Labor Organization

NQF   National Qualifications Framework

RASA   Restaurant Association South of Africa

SADC   Southern African Development Community

SIC   Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities

SME   Small and Medium Enterprise

SMME   Small, Medium and Micro Enterprise

UNWTO   United Nations World Tourism Organization

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Preamble

The restaurant sector globally is highly variable, competitive and responsive to customer demands (Basyuk et al 2020; Dube et al 2021; Genc and Kozak, 2020). Dube et al (2021) indicate that the restaurant and hospitality industries are crucial socio-economic sectors that contribute substantially to the global economy, and are vulnerable and sensitive to consumption and economic changes. Chen and Elston (2013) observe that small and family businesses tend to dominate the tourism and hospitality sectors globally. Some major contributions of these businesses include destination development, job creation, product innovation and economic revitalization, and in the context of developing countries, local participation, community empowerment and poverty alleviation as well. Nguyen et al (2018) highlight that the global fast food restaurant industry has experienced a good amount of growth in recent years which is due to changes in consumer tastes and challenging global economic conditions. However, according to IBISWorld (2015) and Nguyen et al (2018), the global financial crises and the general decrease in individual earnings worldwide has resulted in a decrease in discretionary and luxury spending including eating out and consumer preferences for more convenient and lower priced options.

Nain (2018) states that the hospitality sector, which restaurants are a part of, is about guests with the intention of providing them with a feel-good effect. They identify a range of challenges that the hotel industry faces which is also relevant to the restaurant industry (especially since many hotels provide restaurant services as well). These are, according to Nain (2018), vacillations and uncertainties in the economy, labor shortages and retaining skilled and high level quality personnel, increasing technological demand, aspects related to hygiene and cleanliness, attaining and maintaining customer service expectations and standards, effective marketing, managing energy and resources in the context of sustainability considerations, safety and security issues (including cybersecurity and data privacy), and proving memorable experiences in competitive environments. Additionally, Huang (2021) asserts that there are increased fears of job loss in this sector associated with automation linked to advanced

technology development. These conditions have worsened as a result of the global Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic.

COVID-19 has had and is having devastating impacts on all sectors and the restaurant industry in particular experienced severe disruptions and losses (Dube et al 2021; Peistikou 2021; Song et al 2021). Peistikou (2021) particularly indicate that the main changes relate to: increased operational costs (especially to dealing with social distancing requirements and to ensure food safety), the transformation of fine dining/ dining in eating establishments to food delivery services (limited or contactless services were increasing pre the pandemic with a substantial jump in current rates and more establishments providing this service that they did not offer before the pandemic), constant adaptation and adjustments as the norm, supply chain changes, and severe declines in the number of employees and job security (in an industry that was already characterized by low levels of job security and high levels of contract/ part-time/ temporary/ seasonal work). Thus, business models in the restaurant industry are changing dramatically which will also impact on employee demands and traits required. It is important to note, as indicated by Peistikou (2021), that the pandemic poses both challenges and opportunities for the restaurant industry. A key opportunity is for the restaurant industry to rethink business models and to better understand employees so that restaurants can be sustainable and efficient as well as create better working conditions for employees. This study, the first to provide a gendered analysis of employee trends and perceptions in South Africa's restaurant industry, contributes to providing baseline information to assess impacts and changes during and post the pandemic since it provides a pre-pandemic analysis.

There are many restaurants worldwide, ranging from fast food chains to high-level cuisine in the hospitality sector. Baltag et al (2021), Bendick et al (2010), Cajander and Reiman (2019), Huang (2021) and Mohamad et al (2020) state that restaurants typically provide low wages, have few fringe benefits, little job security, sometimes employee abuse ranging from violations of wages or hours and laws to racial or sexual harassment, and is categorized as being associated mainly with entry level jobs. Decades ago, Herbekian (1981) advocated for rights for waitresses, identifying a range of problems women experienced in the restaurant industry which included wage discrimination (in both tips and earnings), sexual harassment and pregnancy discrimination. Mooney (2018) states that well-documented gender issues in the

hospitality sector include occupational-related sex stereotyping, the 'glass ceiling' that limits career advancement and workplace-based sexual harassment. Cajander and Reiman (2019) specifically note that staffing (including recruitment and retention), personnel development and training, performance management and appraisal, workforce compensation and benefit practices, access to information, recognition, and career advancement opportunities are critically important features in the restaurant industry. These aspects have gender implications that are explored in this study.

Booth and Leigh (2010) and Petrongolo (2019) suggest that there is an overall gender gap in wages that differs from occupation to occupation across the world. Petrongolo (2019) specifically asserts that despite consensus on the need for gender equality in the workplace, there is no evidence of fully closing the gender gap in employment and wages. It is important to note that despite increasing research on gender issues in the workplace, gender differences are not examined in studies that specifically focus on restaurants. Studies on gender aspects focus on the hospitality sector generally with limited or no research in South Africa specifically. For example, Omar et al (2016) examine gender influences on service quality aspects and customer satisfaction in Arabic restaurants, while Fleming (2015) undertakes an analysis of issues pertaining to the gender wage gap evident in the hospitality sector in the United States of America. An audit study was done on gender discrimination in hiring practices in restaurants and the results show that there is discrimination between waiters and waitresses (Neumark et al 1996).

When examining job involvement and satisfaction, Ruiz (2017) states that it has led to increased research on the levels of job satisfaction among hospitality employees. Millennials attempt to have an active relationship with supervisors and managers, as well as focus more extrinsic rewards, free time and an engaging/ interactive environment as a key component for learning; making traditional human resource management and retention approached and practices outdated (Ruiz 2017). Furthermore, Arun et al (2019) state that levels of satisfaction in relation to a specific job influence many internal and external factors, which are related to intangible behaviors among employees. In addition, Arun et al (2019) note that job satisfaction is an aggregate feeling of both positive as well as negative attitudes toward their job, workplace

and management considerations. Restaurant employee perceptions of these aspects are an important focus of this study.

In the South African context, a Google Scholar search reveals that there is little or no research done that is documented on the restaurant industry specifically that focuses on employee profiles and perceptions. Among the studies that do exist, the focus is more on consumer satisfaction as well as managers in the restaurant sector and the hospitality sector which broadens the topic mentioned above (Kalitanyi and Visser 2010). Generally, the focus is also on the employment of foreign nationals which is linked to the crisis of Xenophobia which suggests that immigrants take certain job types (such as Liu 2019; Mlambo and Ndebele 2020; Solomon 1996).

1.2 Motivation

There is little academic research on the topic of restaurant employee profiles and perceptions, however, more exists about the hospitality industry generally which may help understand the restaurant sector. Several studies focus on female employees in the hospitality sector. For example, Calinaud et al (2021) and Shrivastava and Sharma (2020) focus on career progression and advancement among female employees in the British hospitality sector and Jaipur, India, respectively. Vettori and Nicolaides (2019) focus on discrimination in relation to gender pay in the hospitality sector in South Africa, which is the focus on international studies as well, for example, Calinaud et al (2021) in the British context and Sánchez-Ollero et al (2020) in the Spanish context. Baun (2013) indicates that worldwide, a high percentage of employees in the hospitality sub-sector are women, while Janta et al (2011) state that this sub-sector to minimize cost and for flexibility is dependent on young or student workers, migrant workers and women. These trends are noticeable in the South African context with Vettori and Nicolaides (2019) asserting that the majority of employees in the hospitality sector are women. Similar sentiments are expressed by the Department of Labor (DoL 2017) that indicate that in South Africa, the majority of the employees in the hospitality sub-sector are reportedly women and young adults. The DoL provides a breakdown of employees in the hospitality sector in relation to ethnic and population groups but not for restaurants in particular, which is the focus of this study.

4

Tsai et al (2010) view the hospitality industry as a typical as well as critical service industry globally. In addition, the hospitality industry mainly offers services, relying on a workforce in areas such as production, delivery and restaurant provision (Tsai et al 2010). Previous research on job performance, levels of employee satisfaction and organizational commitment reveal that job satisfaction is strongly associated with positive influences on employees' performance and commitment to employers/ organizations they work for (Bangwal and Tiwari 2018; Blomme et al 2010; Fang et al 2021). Fang et al (2021) indicate that employee satisfaction in high-contact services affects shareholder value and profit margins. Zwane et al (2014) identify the specific skills expected of restaurant employees in four categories: general employment skills, other specialized skills, people skills and self-reliance. The specific categories associated with the skill factors identified are indicated in Table 2.1 below. In their study, they subject these attributes to statistical tests to establish whether the skills expected were present among their survey respondents.

Table 1.1: Skill factors and associated categories expected of employees in the tourism sector identified by Zwane et al (2014: 6)

Skill factor	Category
General employment skills	The ability to solve problems
	Flexibility
	Business acumen – entrepreneurial
	Numeracy
	Commitment
	Professionalism
Other specialized skills	Technical and computer skills
	Tourism knowledge
People skills	The ability to work in a team
	Effective written communication skills
	Effective verbal and communication skills
	Leadership and management
	Customer orientation - friendly and caring
	Ability to speak a foreign language
Self-reliance	Self-aware, realistic, focused and purposeful
	Proactive
	Willing to learn
	Able to network, resourceful and an initiator
	Good at planning, organizing and prioritizing

The skills identified by Zwane et al (2014) in relation to the tourism sector more generally, apply to the restaurant industry as well. The importance of skills among employees in the hospitality sector more generally is highlighted by Genc and Kozak (2020) and Waqanimaravu and Arasanmi (2020) as well.

Employee turnover is relatively high and reaching crisis proportions for organizations that struggle to maintain proper staffing levels in labor markets where challenges are experienced (Kusluvan et al 2010). Dwesini (2019) and Iverson and Deery (1997) state that a high employee turnover culture is of particular concern in the hospitality sector. Iverson and Deery (1997) specifically indicate that a high employee turnover culture was the most important indicator of intent to leave, due to low job security, promotional opportunities, career development and low skills and wages. In addition, Blomme et al (2010) view that women, in particular, left work in the hospitality industry due to a lack of opportunities to be promoted and challenges experienced in relation to attaining work-family balance, while for men, the main reason for leaving a job in the hospitality industry is the lack of clarity in relation to a job description. Similarly, Mooney (2018) that although the hospitality sector (including the restaurant industry) is female dominant, women are inclined to leave the sector at a higher rate than men.

Neumark et al (1996) state that there is research on gender differences in various labor markets, which suggests a male bias in that they are favored in higher priced formal restaurants and that wages and tips are generally higher when compared to females. This is supported by Bakas et al (2018) and Obadić (2016) who indicate that this is the trend in the tourism labor market generally. Zainol et al (2021) also indicate gender differences and commonalities in relation to job mobility in the restaurant industry. Asadullah et al (2021) identify gender differences in relation to employee performance and career development. Certain types of jobs are disproportionately occupied by women, which is usually referred to as "occupational crowding" which is the consequence of differences across specific occupational categories among employers or consumers' preferences that result in discrimination (Fleming 2015; Neumark 1996). This is in part linked to broader occupational/ gender segregation, which underscores inequalities between males and females in the workforce (Cortes and Pan 2018; Kamerāde and Richardson 2018; Mooney 2020; Nguyen et al 2021). Of concern also is that

Wong (2021) indicates that women are more negatively impacted by disasters (such as the COVID-19 pandemic) than men. Neumark (1996) claims that studies show that males are found to work in higher end restaurants and females in lower priced restaurants, however, Booth and Leigh (2010) state that as per the Australian Bureau of Statistics (2007), it shows that 80% of waitstaff (which included positions at restaurants, bars, cafés, bistros and hotels) are female.

The restaurant sector is an important facet of the growth of the economy especially for job creation, however, there is limited academic research in South Africa that focuses on employment in the restaurant sector and none to the knowledge of the researcher (based on a Google Scholar search) that focuses on gender differences specifically. The importance of job creation is highlighted by the DoL (2017) and Statistics South Africa (2016) which also features prominently in the National Development Plan. Statistics South Africa (2016) further notes that the hospitality sector has been identified as having a substantial potential to increase jobs and thus improve employment. However, as indicated earlier, there is limited information on employment trends and practices, with Statistics South Africa (2015) stating that there is a lack of direct measures of tourism employment, in particular to the segments of the hospitality sub-sector. This is supported by the United Nations World Tourism Organization and the International Labor Organization (UNWTO and ILO 2014), who assert that there is little information with respect to the employment profile in the tourism sector and restaurants specifically. Thus, this research contributes to this much-needed body of knowledge.

As indicated earlier, there is limited research undertaken on the employment trends and practices in the restaurant sector generally and in South Africa specifically. Current studies focus primarily on employee health and well-being (such as Gordon and Parikh 2021 and Pienaar and Willemse 2008) and the perceived dominance of foreign employees in this sector (such as Kalitanyi and Visser 2010, Liu 2019, Mlambo and Ndebele 2020 and Solomon 1996) as discussed earlier. It is also important to note that research generally covers the hospitality sector in its entirety rather than focusing primarily on restaurants. Thus, this study contributes to a major gap in the knowledge of better understanding employee trends and practices in South African restaurants. Additionally, there is a lacuna in relation to unpacking and examining gender differences, which this study addresses.

1.3 Aim and objectives

This study undertakes a gender analysis of restaurant employee profiles and perceptions in South Africa to better understand employee trends and practices from a gender perspective.

The objectives that frame the research are:

- To examine the profiles of employees in the restaurant sector in relation to gender differences.
- To assess gender differences among restaurant employees in relation to the type and length of work in the restaurant sector.
- To provide a gender comparative analysis of employee perceptions of skills required in the restaurant sector.
- To examine gender comparisons of employee perceptions of their current position and reasons for working in the restaurant industry.

1.4 Overview of methodological approach

The methodological approach adopted in this study was a combination of secondary sources to inform the literature review and a quantitative, structured survey with restaurant employees and managers in purposively selected cities. The primary data collection was part of a larger study supported by the National Department of Tourism (NDT) with Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT) being the lead university and Prof Urmilla Bob from the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) (supervisor) being a co-investigator that focused on determining the employment profile within the hospitality sub-sector, specifically on restaurants. The research was conducted from October 2018 to January 2019. In total, surveys were conducted in 402 restaurants in Cape Town, Durban and Johannesburg (representing cities in South Africa with the largest number of restaurants) and Pietermaritzburg, Polokwane and Kimberley (representing cities with lower numbers of restaurants). In total, at the 402 restaurants, 1 869 employees were interviewed. This study uses the employee survey data and undertakes a thematic gender analysis, comparing male and female employee responses.

1.5 Conclusion

This chapter introduced the study, indicating the context and the motivation for the study, which specifically highlights the importance of the hospitality sector and restaurant industry specifically to economic development and job creation. It highlights the current research trends and specifically the gaps in research in relation to gender considerations, which this study focuses on. Thus, the contribution to knowledge is indicated. Furthermore, the aim and objectives as well as an overview of the methodological approach adopted for this study were outlined. Chapter Two examines key debates and issues relevant to the topic in relation to the literature review undertaken. Chapter Three presents the methodological approach adopted, starting with providing the background to the restaurant industry in South Africa, which is the case study. At the outset, as stated earlier, limited research focuses on the restaurant industry in South Africa and statistics are generally not available. This Chapter also outlines the approach adopted in relation to the employee survey data collection approach, highlighting the sampling framework used to select the restaurants where the research was undertaken in the six purposively selected cities. Chapter Four undertakes the gender disaggregated data analysis of the surveys, in relation to key themes that address the aim and objectives of the study. Finally, Chapter Five summarizes the main findings, forwards recommendations, and presents concluding remarks.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Secondary sources (specifically academic publications and reports) are used for the literature review. Firstly, the theoretical framework that guides the research is presented. This is followed by contextualizing the restaurant industry and examining key trends. Thereafter, key themes are discussed, including customer satisfaction, labor market segmentation and inequalities, employee requirements in the restaurant industry, remuneration/ compensation and human resource issues (including harassment and discrimination and the employment of foreigners); with gender aspects being highlighted since this is the focus of this study. Rather than having a section on women or gender issues in the restaurant industry, this chapter integrates gender considerations in relation to the various themes discussed, recognizing that gender is a cross-cutting issue.

2.2. Contextualizing the theoretical foundation of the study

One needs to view or conceptualize theories tried to understand where stereotypes emanate from, where we can find out why people discriminate based on race, gender, looks, sexual orientation and other demographic profiles (Weyer 2007). Fitzsimons (2017) asserts that gender is conceptualized in two ways in labor market research and occupational segregation in the workforce. The first is a sociological category similar to that of age, class and race. The second views gender as a process that does not fit into stable and fixed categories, which focuses on the exercise of male power and women's insubordination in the context of patriarchy. Disch and Hawkesworth (2018) indicate the importance of feminist theory as a vehicle to examine the links between how scientific disciplines and the concept of gender are socially constructed and how they impact on each other. This theory seeks to explain the status of women and men in society. In addition, Disch and Hawkesworth (2018) state that those who subscribe to this theory question the differences between women and men, including how race, ethnicity, nationality and other demographic variables intersect with gender. Feminist theorists, according to Disch and Hawkesworth (2018), try to understand issues pertaining to diversity

and equity considerations in the workplace, examining whether it is an outcome of sexism and/ or capitalism. Mooney (2020) asserts that feminist and critical race theories can enrich hospitality research.

Although there is widespread interest technological and economical changes as well as the politics of labor, Duffy (2016) states that the social positioning of gender in recent scholarship has been overlooked. More so, it is important that gender-based inequalities are viewed as more than being seen as simply 'numbers issues' as explained by Federici (2013) who shows that female workers regularly confront the normalization of the sexual division of labor, masculine work environments and sexual harassment. From sociologies of the sexual division of labor to critical assessments of the gendered forms of unpaid and unrecognized emotional and domestic labor, there are valuable contributions in the academic literature that focus on various aspects of gender and work (Duffy 2016). In addition, Federici (2013) views that due to the capitalist order women's work was somewhat invisible hence the unpaid labor. Women as a group, irrespective of differences in nationality and class status, are linked together by a key characteristic that is common, that is, the 'oppression' generally experienced in many aspects of their lives and associated vulnerabilities (Elias et al 2017). Furthermore, Federici (2013) asserts that descriptions of the various types of oppression experienced include high levels of dependence on men, discriminatory practices in jobs and education, sex-role stereotyping and mental breakdowns.

Feminist research, according to Grimshaw et al (2017), has made substantial advances on researching how household dynamics and social reproduction practices can impact on or define what types of jobs are viewed to be for women and men. In addition, Seguino and Braunstein (2019) state that although women's portion of employment has increased in many countries during the last two decades, it is evident that gender job discrimination and segregation have generally worsened, with women often being excluded from attaining and keeping 'good' jobs. Nagaraj et al (2017) further state that female graduates are generally more likely to be unemployed or in lower paying positions when compared to male graduates. They also assert that young persons without tertiary level education (generally females) often have to deal with prospects of unemployment and/ or degree holders crowding out persons without higher educational qualifications out of the job market. Piasna and Drahokoupil (2017) view that even

through globalization and digitalization, traditional gender inequalities continue to reassert themselves on many dimensions despite the profound changes in the labor market.

Notions of the glass ceiling, as indicated by Mooney (2018), is also an important consideration when adopting a feminist approach. Ali (2015) states that the concept of the glass ceiling is used to refer to the 'invisible barrier' which often prevents women's and other disadvantaged groups' upward mobility in organizations, resulting in fewer women in senior and leadership positions. This is also linked to the wage gap experienced by women who generally earn less than men. Vettori and Nicolaides (2019: 1) state that "gender stereotyping and other unfair notions are precluding women from breaking 'glass ceilings' in the (hospitality) industry". Ali (2015) further argues that gender stereotypes that influence beliefs, perceptions and practices about how each gender should be treated and behave have created the unavoidable glass ceiling within organizations. Gender stereotypes highlight areas where one sex (generally females) may be lacking or is regarded as being inferior in comparison to another sex (generally males) (Weyer 2007).

According to the labor market segmentation theory, Urban (2013) states that the labor market is often divided into a dual (periphery and core) labor market, where the periphery segment has fewer career opportunities, higher threats of job losses, higher rates of unemployment, lower wages and lower skill levels/ requirements. Urban (2013) further indicates that the periphery generally does not provide training which restricts upward mobility and may suggest the lack of skills and qualifications needed for this segment. Thus, jobs on the periphery risk being jobs with limited opportunities to progress and/ or attain job security. Much of the restaurant sector is deemed to be on the periphery, portrayed as a low-profit, low-skill sector with high labor turnover and poor human resource practices with gendered labor and occupational segmentation (Urban 2013).

Marxist labor segmentation theorists assert that conflicts and contestations between labor and capital is one of the key causes of workforce inequalities within organizations (Ali 2015). Marxist theorists do not only see class conflict as the cause of gender discrimination and segregation, arguing that various employer strategies such as using cheap and lower skilled

labor are adopted to discourage resistance among workers, which tends to support and maintain gender segregation (Ali 2015). Federici (2013) states that when Marx discusses the reproduction of labor or labor power, he tends to focus on male, self-producing workers, their wages and their means of subsistence. No mention was made about women, procreation, domestic labor and sexuality. Federici (2013) argues that the focus was on capitalists' aim to reduce workers' consumption to the very minimum. Women's reproductive labor was only recognized in the 19th century, where it had emerged as the engine of the industrial workforce (Federici 2013). Gimenez (2018) indicates that cheaper labor in some core countries tends to attract capital and resources to peripheral countries, where higher profits can be realized while structural conditions can be maintained. In addition, Gimenez (2018) further asserts that an abundant unwaged labor force in peripheral/ developing countries who participate legally and/ or illegally in the production of food and related services are associated with extremely low wages that result in higher profits for those who are in a position to take advantage of conditions in the periphery.

Fitzsimons (2017) indicates that a Marxist feminist analysis permits an examination of gender segregation at work, noting that Marxist theory is well developed compared to feminist theory. However, they draw from and complement each other. Fitzsimons (2017) also asserts that irrespective of the various theoretical frameworks used in examining gender in the workplace, there is sufficient evidence of commonalities including knowledge of the types of work that women do, the attitudes and motivational factors among women, and how gender influences the labor market. Fitzsimons (2017) notes the importance of further research to understand continued differentiation and occupational segregation between men and women despite the proliferation of equal opportunities policies, and the reasons thereof.

2.3 The restaurant industry: Context and key trends

PRNews (2019) states that in 2018 the global food service market size was estimated at US$ 3.4 trillion and by 2024 was projected to reach a value of US$ 4.2 trillion (this projection is likely to be adjusted given the COVID-19 pandemic impacts). They note that the sale of food and beverages, prepared for immediate consumption within establishments or for takeaways and home deliveries (which has seen a significant increase as a result of the COVID-19

pandemic) associated with commercial establishments (including restaurants, catering services and nightclubs) and non-commercial outlets (including food operations in organizations such as schools and hospitals), are collectively referred to as food services. PRNews (2019) identify the increasing demand for innovation and customization in food menu options (considering customer taste, dietary and budget preferences), the increase in on-the-go food services and food delivery and packaging, and the introduction of and demand for new food options (for example, low fat, gluten-free and sugar-free products) are among the main factors influencing the food service market.

Akan (2020) states that the global food service business is deemed to be one of the fastest growing industries worldwide with an annual growth rate of 5.6% in 2019 and total sales revenues estimated at $3.3 trillion. The restaurant industry, according to Akan (2020), is thus meant to create many job opportunities for people throughout the world as the industry keeps growing and is in great demand. In the industry, restaurants and cafes in particular represent 50% of the total sales (Akan 2020). Alberca and Parte (2018) state that the restaurant industry in 2018 directly employed an estimated average of approximately 427 000 people annually, contributing €19.9 billion in revenues. In addition, Akan (2020) asserts that the food service industry is a key source of employment generation, citing that 64.7 million jobs were created globally in 2011. Furthermore, Akan (2020) states that in the United States of America, the food service sales are the highest in the world totaling US$799 billion in 2016. Additionally, the restaurant industry employed about 15 million people (an estimated 10% of the working population) in 2016 and it is expected that this figure will rise to 16% by 2025 (Alberca and Parte 2018).

The food service industry is generally divided into two major sub-sectors: commercial and non-commercial food services. Statistics South Africa (2020: 1) refers to the January 1993 edition of the Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities (SIC) categorization of the food and beverages industry into:

- Restaurants, coffee shops or tearooms, with a liquor license
- Restaurants, coffee shops or tearooms, without a liquor license
- Takeaway counters and fast food outlets

- Caterers
- Other catering services

In their analysis of registered enterprises in the food and beverages industry in South Africa (pertinent results are presented in the next Chapter when providing an overview of the restaurant sector in South Africa), Statistics South Africa (2020) categorizes the food and beverages industry into:

- Restaurants and coffee shops
- Takeaway and fast food outlets
- Caterers and other catering services

According to Amran et al (2018), the food service industry is largely a customer or people-oriented business. The competitions among companies and establishments in this industry are generally high and employees are expected to be an important component of the quality of the service provided (Amran et al 2018). Furthermore, as indicated earlier, the tourism and hospitality sector is characterized worldwide by a dominance of small and family businesses. However, small businesses in the tourism and hospitality sector remain under-researched despite their economic importance (Chen and Elston 2013).

The restaurant industry is a sub-sector of the hospitality sector that is a component of the food service industry which Enz (2010) indicates is divided into the following types: family restaurants, casual services, upscale or fine dining restaurants and fast food or quick service restaurants. The restaurant sector attracts different types of employees, as identified by Viljoen (2012), including food and beverage manager, restaurant manager, maître d', head-waiter, station head-waiter, station waiter, assistant station waiter, waiter, trainee or *commis*, carver, floor service employee, lounge employee, wine butler or *sommelier*, cocktail bar employee, buffet assistant, cashier, counter assistant, table clearer and catering staff. Most staff are employed as waiters and cooks/ chefs.

Chala (2017) indicates that restaurants are not confined to offering good food and good services but the focus due to technology is now aimed at customer satisfaction. This includes healthier food options, efficient ways of getting food to the customers and controlling processes (Chala

2017). Some customers are increasingly willing to pay more for organic and healthier options which are now the latest trends in the restaurant industry.

Alberca and Parte (2018) state that the efficiency of operations in the restaurant industry is influenced by company size with research indicating that larger restaurants generally perform better than small and medium-sized restaurants. Moreover, Alberca and Parte (2018) assert that the evidence suggests associations between the efficiency index and various financial/ economic variables such as cash flow, credit ratings and the probability of bankruptcy or default, as well as relationships with non-financial variables, for example, the type of auditor. In the service industry, it is important to centralize operational efficiency improvement in relation to the labor force to add value and improve productivity. Tanizaki et al (2017) state that in the restaurant business, it is necessary to improve customer satisfaction, employee satisfaction and management satisfaction concurrently to improve operational efficiency and increase repeat customer and profitability. Alberca and Parte (2018) indicate that operational efficiency and the way restaurants perform are important factors for restaurants to survive in changing and unpredictable financial markets. This, in a COVID-19 pandemic world, is now relevant in all economies, given the severe disruptions experienced by the service and hospitality sector globally.

Tan and Netessine (2019) indicate that many industries have incorporated the aid of technology to increase performance or operations, thus increasing sales. They state that restaurants have introduced tabletop technology that permits low-ability or low-skilled waiters to perform better and be more productive. Tan and Netessine's (2019) results reveal significant potential for introducing and enhancing tabletop technology in the restaurant industry (which is part of a large service industry) that tends to lack digitalization. However, Tan and Netessine (2019) caution that there is still a debate about whether technology integration in the restaurant industry is viable or not as well as how it will impact employees and their jobs. The restaurant sector has had delays in offering technological advancements, therefore, Tan and Netessine (2019) assert that in this sector, because of its customer-orientation and people-intensive nature (social interactions), restaurant managers are required to focus on human aspects associated with providing services. They also note that as a result of a low average industry profit margin (between 1% and 7%), investing time, human and financial resources in technology innovation

can be difficult to justify. While some innovations including automated reservation systems, food delivery services (for example, Uber Eats) and satisfaction/ rating services (for example, Yelp) are becoming increasingly popular, practices and processes within restaurants with table service have not changed in years (Tan and Netessine 2019). The COVID-19 pandemic, as noted earlier, has resulted in an increased focus on delivery services and increasing the use of technology in the restaurant industry.

Zhang and Enemark (2016) state that one of the considerations characteristics associated with restaurant and hotel management is that these types of businesses/ establishments often have limited control over demand. This is because a range of external factors such as customer preferences, economic conditions and climate, industrial environments and competitive pricing are the main push or pull factors that influence demand. In addition, Zhang and Enemark (2016) further indicate that aspects such as business performance (calculated as turnover per employee within an establishment) can be affected by internal firm factors, external demand and economic aspects and the geographic location of the establishment.

Boo (2017) states that in many Asian countries, the restaurant industry is one of the main contributors to the hospitality service sector. As indicated earlier, the restaurant industry is also associated with high levels of competition linked in part, as stated by Boo (2017), to the high number of new participants offering different types of food products and services. Additionally, Bo (2017) asserts that customers are more demanding with diverse preferences and expectations. There are also researchers who found that customer satisfaction mediates the effect of service quality on behavioral intentions. Sheel (2017) indicates that there is a trend that shows that there is a substantially stronger preference among consumers for fine dining experiences during 2016–2017 compared to 2015–2016. Mhlanga and Tichaawa (2016) identified ten variables that influenced how restaurants are selected: food quality, food type, perceived value for money, location, image and atmosphere, speed of service, opening hours, new experiences and whether recommended by others. Boo (2017) links satisfaction and loyalty with servicescape (the atmosphere and experience created), human service (the manner in which customers are treated), food quality and price.

Figure 2.1: Servicescape, human service, food quality and price links with satisfaction and loyalty (Boo, 2017)
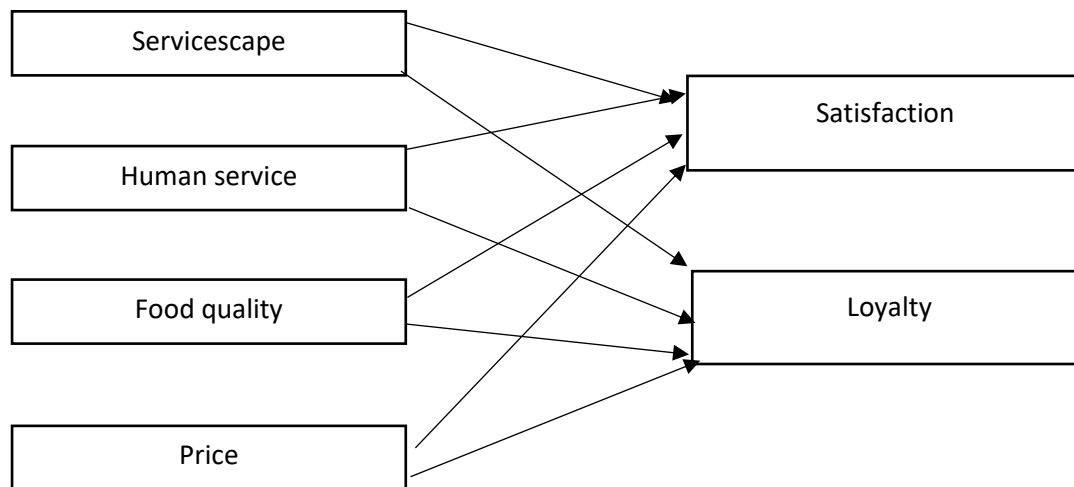
Pavković (2018) states that there are different types of restaurants such as fine dining, fast food and family; all of which have different trends, services and focuses. Pavković (2018) specifically indicates that the concept of the smart casual restaurant is a business approach that combines a casual atmosphere with high level or top quality products that is a growing trend associated with authenticity, uniqueness and service co-creation. Pavković (2018) reveals that the age of the internet (which permits consumers to easily access information about different types of goods and services, share experiences, and have different views and preferences) has substantially changed the world we live in. These changes are highly influenced by increased globalization, information explosion, and increased connections between people linked to the growth of international economic relations as well as the increased exchange of ideas and diversity of views (Pavković 2018). Pavković (2018) further notes that in this environment, consumers' expectations and levels of satisfaction are higher because they have higher demands for their preferences to be met. Moreover, as Pavković (2018) asserts, it creates different avenues and mechanisms for communication for businesses, new approaches to generate income/ revenue streams and novel ways to develop and improve products and services; compelling managers and entrepreneurs to think outside the box and develop new approaches to conduct business. This is evident in the restaurant industry as well, especially in the context of a COVID-19 world.

Jogaratnam (2017) states that the restaurant business, like other services on offer in the hospitality sector, is dependent on people and is customer-orientated, and characterized by a focus on intangible experiences, perishability, diversity of service performance, and production and consumption taking place concurrently. These characteristics together with the centrality generally for direct person-to-person interactions indicate that responding to customer needs and demands in the restaurant industry requires higher levels of customization and responsiveness when compared to manufacturing firms (Jogaratnam 2017). The importance of customer satisfaction is discussed in greater detail in the next section in this Chapter.

Arun et al (2019) state that quick service restaurants are a part of the hospitality industry and that quick service restaurants' business goal is to provide the best and quick service of any food or beverages for their guests. Employees aid in promoting the business and hence play a vital role in the industry with Arun et al (2019) stating that employees act as the end salesperson or service person of products on offer. Thus, Arun et al (2019) indicate that the industry must be more committed to supporting employee satisfaction as they contribute immensely in the growth or attraction of the restaurant.

Employee turnover is a continuous challenge in the restaurant industry (Charles-Pauvers 2020; Lee and Layman 2019). Amran et al (2018) state that many studies have shown that due to job stress, the restaurant industry has a high turnover and labor shortage. Amran et al (2018) further indicate that when employees leave the establishment or business, it has a negative impact that needs to be managed. Brown et al (2015) comment that both voluntary and involuntary turnover are influenced by a range of variables including employee motivation, job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion, correct job information, and the relationship between quality and job demands which have negative or positive impacts on employees.

According to Tantawy et al (2016), the hospitality industry contains several employee stressors including working under time pressures, low wages, enduring rude and inappropriate conversations and behaviors among customers, tasks where employees have little control, doing tasks without proper or adequate support and direction, lack of communication/ coordination among employees, long hours of duty, inability to balance work and personal life,

repetitive and boring nature of the job, and unclear job descriptions and expectations. In addition, Amran et al (2018) identify psychological conditions, specifically job stress, that affect employee creativity and performance. Furthermore, Tantawy et al (2016) state that evidence and effects of job stressors on the organization include high levels of absenteeism, high employee turnover, poor time management or timekeeping, poor productivity and performance, increased employee conflicts and problems, and increased ill-health and accidents among employees. Tantawy et al (2016) state that the levels of absence associated with being ill or sick often increase when employees feel they are unable to communicate with managers about issues that are of concern to them.

In addition, Amran et al (2018) state there are reports on stress in the workplace and these are increasing worldwide. The issue of job stress, Amran et al (2018) assert, is not a new topic and it has become global important to consider. Job stress, according to Amran et al (2018), is linked to employees in the restaurant industry having long working hours, undertaking shift work, having to do repetitive tasks, dealing with constant pressure and often conflict, and the lack of efficient and supportive management. In the restaurant industry specifically, the frontline employees have to be fast, accommodating, efficient, responsive and professional when servicing customers (Amran et al 2018). In addition, Amran et al (2018) assert that frontline employees in restaurants have frequent and recurrent interactions with customers, which is dissimilar to other industries, which makes them more predisposed to stress.

Jules et al (2017) state that job-hopping is a common practice among employees, which is a concern that has been affecting many companies and has led them to review and revise their human resource strategies to reduce costs associated with high turnover and focus on retaining their employees. In addition, Jules et al (2017) assert that the main concerns for major companies regarding job-hopping are increased labor costs and reduced productivity as well as wasted resources in terms of time and skills training conducted for new workers. Job-hopping (moving from one job to another) is prevalent in the restaurant industry and the service sector more generally (Ghazali and Roslan 2020; Siew et al 2021). Siew et al (2021) specifically examine reasons for job-hopping among Generation Y employees in Malaysia's service sectors and found that person-organization fit and self-directedness career attitude correlated significantly with job-hopping while learning opportunities did not. Ghazali and Roslan (2020)

focused on reasons forwarded by restaurant managers for job-hopping among restaurant employees. The reasons they identified were financial and benefits, career growth, higher levels of job security, working environments, social influences and low passion/ interest for jobs.

Restaurants have been known to fail due to economic and social factors, legal restrictions, competition and government interventions that play a role in the attributions to failure in the industry (Parsa et al 2005). Parsa et al (2005) further state that previous studies in the hospitality industry concentrate more on the financial performance of the restaurant sector rather than social factors. There are different types of failures in the industry such as economic/ financial, marketing/ sales and managerial issues. Parsa et al (2005) expand on these aspects related to restaurants as follows:

- Economic: includes restaurants that have not succeeded for economic reasons due to fewer profits because of decreased or inadequate revenues, appropriation by creditors, assets being frozen for non-repayment of receipts and bankruptcies.
- Marketing: includes restaurants that cannot continue to operate within a specific location because of marketing challenges such as consolidation to increase market share in designated regions, accommodating the potential and unrealized customer demand for new products and services, measured strategic choice to reposition the business, responding to changing demographics, and readjusting product portfolios that may require the closure of selected offerings/ units.
- Managerial: includes restaurant failures that arise from managerial limitations and ineffectiveness within restaurants. Examples include issues and concerns related to human resource capacities and capabilities; changes in the stages and development of the manager or an owner's personal life cycle; the loss of motivation and incentive to perform by owners; management or owner exhaustion because of stress related to operational and managerial problems; and legal, technological and/ or environmental fluctuations that require operational changes.

Jules et al (2017) state that research shows that millennial (also referred to as Generation Y) employees who are currently slowly taking over the workforce change jobs often because of job dissatisfaction. Aspects identified by Jules et al (2017) that make employees dissatisfied

are pay and the lack of benefits, seeking better work-life balance and alternative job opportunities being available. Low job satisfaction, Jules et al (2017) argue, will result in employees seeking alternate job opportunities that will enhance their satisfaction levels and meet their aspirations.

Morikawa (2017) explains how artificial intelligence and robotics are now being implemented in the labor force. More fast food restaurants are introducing automated machinery for ordering food and for making the food, which in the long run, can hinder the jobs of individuals. Food delivery platforms and apps have substantially increased, especially as a response to adapting to the COVID-19 pandemic to reduce face-to-face contact. Li et al (2020) specifically state that during the global COVID-19 pandemic, the advantages of online food delivery services became evident to facilitate consumer access as an option to prepared meals and to enable food providers (including restaurants) to continue operating. Additionally, Seyitoğlu et al (2021) note that restaurant patrons are increasingly valuing the appropriateness of robots to serve and prepare food as well as to clean establishments. Morikawa (2017) states that food delivery and other robotics integration in the restaurant industry often eliminates the work of waiters and other operational work that happens in a restaurant. In time, there may only be a need for the back-of-the-house staff only as front-of-the-house activities will be automated to limit social interactions and to increase sales for health and economic reasons.

Li et al (2020) argue for the need to understand better the impacts of the increase in food delivery. They use the three pillars of sustainability as an approach to consider positive and negative economic impacts, noting that while the current literature reveals that in relation to economic considerations, online food delivery services provide different job and sale opportunities, concerns have been raised in terms of increased costs related to the high commission this type of service charges restaurants and the uncertain and problematic working conditions faced by many delivery people in the restaurant industry. From a social perspective, Li et al (2020) note that online food delivery services affect the relationships between consumer demand and their food consumption patterns and preferences as well as have implications for traffic systems and public health outcomes. They also indicate that environmental impacts can be increased that include the increased generation of waste and its associated higher carbon

footprint. Additionally, Sarwar et al (2021) also highlight that food delivery enterprises have high levels of job insecurity that affect the psychological well-being of employees.

Assessing the economic impacts of 'social distancing' protocols or measures taken to contain and decrease the spread of the COVID-19 virus raises critical questions about the changing modern economy in relation specifically to how many jobs can and will likely be performed at home (Dingel and Neiman 2020). Hatayama et al (2020) state that it is evident that workers in occupations (such as accountants, information technology specialists, engineers, lawyers, financial analysts, etc.) that can be performed at home generally earn more. When categorizing those occupations that cannot be worked from home, Hatayama et al (2020) explain that these individuals are more likely to be from lower-income groups, lack a tertiary level qualification, are renters rather than home owners, are non-white, and do not have health insurance provided by the employer. Hence, the restaurant industry fits into this category where during the lockdown that occurred in most countries, this industry suffered terrible losses as they depend on social interaction which is or was not allowed. Dingel and Neiman (2020) state that many individuals lost their jobs and faced economic challenges. Hence, if there is another global pandemic, many restaurant employees and employers will face challenges economically unless they embrace artificial intelligence which still needs many more years to be developed and even so, many restaurant employees risk losing their jobs or income.

Lee et al (2016) state that in Australia the restaurant sector employs the largest proportion of the tourism industry workforce, contributing about $22.1 billion in revenues to the national economy. However, Lee et al (2016) further explain that the restaurant industry faces numerous challenges, with many businesses struggling to be successful because of high levels of competition, low entry barriers, price-conscious customers, increasing food prices, adhering to government regulations, and high labor costs. Lee et al (2016) highlight that this sector is also predominately made up of small and medium enterprises (SMEs), indicating specifically that over 99% of restaurant establishments are classified as SMEs.

2.4. Customer satisfaction

Namin (2017) asserts that customer satisfaction generally is one of the key aspects that determine whether an organization will succeed and contributes to increased efficiency. The success and survival of each restaurant are dependent on the restaurant's performance and levels of customer satisfaction (Namin 2017). Namin (2017) states that levels of customer satisfaction can be enhanced through improved food quality, service quality, price-value ratio that can, in turn, influence behavioral intentions and preferences in the restaurant industry. Namin (2017) further indicates that when more loyal customers (linked to behavioral intentions) choose to make a purchase and, more importantly, decide to repeat their purchase; the business becomes more successful, assisting businesses to survive in highly competitive markets. Therefore, Namin (2017) underscores that the relationships between behavioral intentions, customer satisfaction and service quality are crucial.

Basyuk et al (2020) assert that increasing competition among restaurant establishments requires the orientation of enterprises towards considering and maximizing responsiveness to current trends in eating preferences. Food quality is generally accepted as the main aspect of satisfying customers in the restaurant industry, as indicated by Namkung and Jang (2007) who further state that this aspect is often overlooked in restaurant service quality and customer satisfaction studies. Furthermore, Namkung and Jang (2007) show, using a structural equation modeling technique, that overall food quality significantly affects behavioral intentions and customer satisfaction. Thus, Namkung and Jang (2007) reveal that there is a relationship between customer behavioral intentions and perceptions of food quality that is mediated by levels of satisfaction. Therefore, it is advocated that managers pay closer attention to the main food quality aspects that influence satisfaction levels among customers in a manner that they will enjoy their experiences, be satisfied and, in turn, return to visit the restaurant (Namkung and Jang 2007). Mhlanga and Tichaawa (2017) indicate that 54% of restaurant customers' consumption behavior is influenced by what other customers say about the restaurant, and 60% of restaurant customers would reconsider and change their restaurant choice if they receive negative feedback about the restaurant from their social networks. Thus, social media today play a more important role compared to traditional marketing as a factor that influences the consumption behaviors among restaurant customers (Mhlanga and Tichaawa 2017).

Wu and Liang (2009) state that some scholars and practitioners have paid attention to how the restaurant industry creates good quality customer service experiences, with some scholars advocating for developing and ensuring high-quality service encounters to improve customer satisfaction. Petzer and Mackay (2014) further explain that customers will be more likely to communicate in a positive manner about the restaurant, participate in repeat visitation, and consequently contribute to the restaurant being profitability if they are satisfied with the quality of food and service they receive. Wu and Liang (2009), using empirical data that was collected by a questionnaire distributed to luxury-hotel restaurant customers, show that restaurant environmental conditions and interactions with employees as well as other consumers positively influence consumer experiences and perceptions of a restaurant. As shown by Walter et al (2010), research has shown that there are dimensions of drivers of customers that are associated with favorable and unfavorable experiences and the recurrent drivers identified are social interactions, the core service provided and the physical environment. Waqanimaravu and Arasanmi (2020) indicate that the success of the hospitality industry is related to customer perception of satisfaction and the value of the services. This requires knowledgeable employees with the necessary skills. This, as Genc and Kozak (2020) indicate, includes both technical and experiential skills.

Petzer and Mackay (2014) examined customer satisfaction in relation to restaurants that influenced food satisfaction, service quality and atmosphere within South African restaurants. They assert that South African sit-in restaurants generally operate in highly competitive environments and customer satisfaction is central to their survival as well as businesses in the service industries more generally. Petzer and Mackay (2014) state that satisfied customers often share positive word-of-mouth experiences, return to the restaurant, and contributes to the profitability of the establishment. They further indicate that existing literature indicates product and service quality as well as the atmospheric aspects in the servicescape impact on customer satisfaction.

Another aspect to investigate is the customers' perceptions of the physical environment and emotions. Ryu and Jang (2009) state that there are six aspects that make up these physical and emotional aspects that affect customer perceptions of restaurants: employees, facility aesthetics, ambience, lighting, layout and dining equipment. In addition, Petzer and Mackay

(2014) state that there are main aspects such as the dining atmosphere created as well as food and service quality that substantially contribute to the success and prolonged survival of restaurants. Ryu and Jang (2009) state that facility aesthetics refers to the décor and architectural design of the restaurant that should be pleasing to the eye and accommodating to the customers. Ryu and Jang (2009) also reveal that lighting can be the most noticeable physical characteristic in many upscale restaurants, and can basically either invite customers (when it is warm and subtle to the eye) or be intimidating if the lighting is dull and dreary to the eye. Therefore, one can conclude that the overall dining atmosphere created in restaurants plays an important role in the overall experience, which can influence customer satisfaction and repeat visitation (Petzer and Mackay 2014).

Customer satisfaction is strongly associated with customer loyalty, with Omar et al (2016) stating that research shows that customer satisfaction is greatly influenced by physical surroundings and attributes as well as perceptions of price and quality. Customer assessments of service quality are important information for service providers to consider when the intention is to strengthen core competencies, improve business performance, and position the business more strategically within the market (Omar et al 2016). Cajander and Reiman (2019) assert that personal interactions between restaurant employees and customers greatly influence customer satisfaction since positive interactions contribute to customer satisfaction, trust and loyalty. Nel et al (2018) add that timely, professional and friendly service considerably significantly affect the demand for different services and products.

According to Jin et al (2013), gender is an especially important variable in models that focus on consumer behavior. They state that gender influences on customer loyalty in full-service restaurants are relatively under-researched although gender differences have been studied within a range of other behavioral contexts, Thus, Jin et al (2013) assert that the degree to which gender influences the relationships between quality aspects and levels of customer loyalty remains unclear. Several studies also examine gender issues in relation to patronage and customer preferences in the restaurant industry. Moon (2021), for example, specifically examines gender aspects to predict customers' plans to support green restaurants.

2.5 Labor market segmentation and inequalities: A gender focus

Mohamad et al (2020) state that restaurants require a dynamic workforce. They examine the entry-level competencies identified by restaurant managers. They indicate that the key competencies are: attitude and behavior, cognitive skills, communication skills, levels of knowledge in relation to specific areas, experience, professionalism and culture of work ethics, practical/ technical skills, teamwork and leadership. Cajander and Reiman (2019: 39) indicate that:

> …a restaurant is a diverse workplace where many different kinds of professionals work, including cooks, waiters, and bartenders. Typically, there are certain hierarchical structures, as in any other working environment. At the top is the proprietor, also known as the restaurateur, although many modern restaurants are also run by hired managers. Other managerial positions below the top manager vary – for example, shift managers and chefs – depending on the type of restaurant.

Madera et al (2017a) state that the main products sold in restaurants are food and drinks in addition to service-related experiences that are generally intangible and reliant on interactions between customers and employees.

In the basic model of the labor market, Joll et al (2018) state that labor at each skill level is perceived to be equal. They indicate that the implication is that similar wage and employment prospects are available to, and likely to be equally taken up by, labor with similar skill levels. However, labor market discrimination can be in the form of either having workers who have similar skills and levels of productivity assigned to do different jobs (employment discrimination) or paying workers different wages although they are doing similar jobs with the same skill levels required (wage discrimination) (Joll et al 2018). Jenkins (2017) views labor segmentation as groups of workers who are discriminated against based on socio-demographic attributes such as race, gender, age or religious background. Grimshaw et al (2017) advocate for the need to develop new multi-dimensional approaches to examine inequalities in relation to work and employment trends. Grimshaw et al (2017) further state that due to increasing pressures associated with globalization, regular economic crises and the liberalization of markets; many economies worldwide have had to embrace compromises that are essentially mismatched with the goals of ensuring that employment opportunities and the

quality of work available are more equally distributed. Joll et al (2018) indicate that certain countries, for example, the United Kingdom government, are trying to promote or encourage choices for women by providing them with opportunities to do both domestic and valued career work within the new economy.

Zhang et al (2018) assert that many differences between males and females have been recognized and acknowledged, and that these gender differences are an essential component of market segmentation that has been widely examined in numerous consumer behavior-related research, for example, males and females tend to feel or often react differently, thereby having differing perceptions and judgements when processing experiences and information. Similar sentiments are expressed by Mattila (2000) who asserts that there is a large amount of empirical evidence that suggests that men and women have different information processing approaches and styles, that is, men think or perceive differently from women and process information differently as well. Specifically, Mattila (2000) states that women generally engage in more comprehensive processing of information, while men often tend to have a broader approach to processing information. Furthermore, Mattila (2000) argues that women (being more detailed and scrutinizing information processors) tend to focus more on negative information, while men tend to pay more attention to positive information. Zhang et al (2018) add that gender differences are also observed in relation to social and biological aspects, and are often the basis for market segmentation for diverse services and products. However, within the context of hospitality (and specifically restaurant) management, limited research has been undertaken that focus on gender differences.

Jenkins (2017) states that when one seeks to trace the development of research which have explored women's position either within or outside of the labor market, two sets of literature can be identified. Firstly, labor market segmentation theory, which has explored women's labor market activity from its understanding of the ways in which labor markets operate. Secondly, the development of literature on gender within geography that acknowledges that women operate primarily from the home, and consequently, it was in fact the home that determined labor market activity, not vice versa (Jenkins 2017). Initial literature from both labor market theorists and geographers who embrace feminism treated men and women as two mutually exclusive categories (Jenkins 2017). O'Reilly et al (2017) further add that patriarchy can be

discernible in many forms such as the sets of rules that permit movement and upward mobility within the labor market. Many socialist feminists, according to Joll et al (2018), regard the notion and dominance of the patriarchal nuclear family construct as an important cause of women's oppression, where women's unpaid labor in the home is exploited and their assigned gender-based domestic responsibilities prescribe the terms of women's positions in the home and labor market. Other researchers argue that female employees commonly face several challenges in their places of work such as forgoing or delaying marriage and motherhood, experiencing discrimination within organizations, and difficulties in reaching managerial/ leadership ranks in the organizations (Nayab et al 2015).

Kamerāde and Richardson (2018) focus on gender segregation in relation to underemployment, viewed as working part-time because of the inability to find a full-time job. Specifically, Part-time work characterizes employment in the hospitality sector and restaurant industry. Kamerāde and Richardson (2018) indicate that part-time work and underemployment affect the subjective well-being of men and women. Furthermore, their study shows that the likelihood of underemployment grows at a higher rate among women, with underemployment being more commonly associated with jobs that are more likely to be performed by women, that is, female-dominated occupations. Cortes and Pan (2018) indicate that gender differences in the labor market contribute to occupational segregation and gender wage differences.

Zainol et al (2020) investigate employees' ingratiatory and helping behaviors as well as the supervisors' ratings of employees' task performance in the Pakistani restaurant industry from a gender perspective. They assert that these types of behaviors are important to examine in relation to restaurants since they are key extra-role behaviors that employees tend to perform when in teamwork settings, especially in the service industry. Zainol et al (2020) indicate that there are higher expectations that women should display these behaviors since these types of behaviors relate to and reinforce female gendered societal roles of nurturing and caring.

Tong (2011) shows that in China small-scale restaurants tend to be patriarchal in structure which symbolizes and reflects the familial hegemonic establishment. Labor tends to be divided by gender, class and age, with women mainly concentrated in the lower positions

(Tong 2011). Most restaurant workers in China, according to Tong (2011), are young women migrants who move to cities to work prior to marrying and having children. Tong (2011) further believes that women workers in the restaurant industry do not advance beyond the positions of servers, while men are better positioned to make use of social contacts and thereby advance in relation to status and wages. Additionally, Tong (2011) states that because of village and kinship ties as well as age and gender divisions, class solidarity and unity cannot be attained. Mooney's (2018) examination of women's employment patterns and trends, career paths followed and career progression in the hospitality industry highlights the contribution of strong social connections to increase career longevity.

Economic and political and actions are constantly shaping the course and country specific dynamics of work and persistent employment inequalities in various changing international contexts related to trends in industrial relations, production and socio-demographic changes such as the age profile of populations, gender relations and/ or migration flows (Grimshaw et al 2017). At the macro-economic level, as highlighted earlier, gender gaps and inequalities in education and employment have significant impacts on economic growth and development. At the individual level, Nagaraj et al (2017) further assert that such gaps perpetuate and reinforce income inequality and contribute to poverty. This explains the lack of upward mobility among specific groups of individuals in certain sectors of labor, for example, the restaurant and hospitality sector. However, the focus on inequalities in education and employment opportunities tends often ignore associations between gender inequalities in educational opportunities and levels and the extent and nature of female labor force participation that also have major impacts on development (Nagaraj et al 2017). Grimshaw et al (2017) state that there is evidence that some employers deliberately use gendered wage practices and gender profiling linked to perceptions that women are less capable and committed to work when compared to their male counterparts.

Seguino and Braunstein (2019) have researched that inequalities between genders were thriving despite gender equality being declared as one of the main ideological aspirations of socialism, that emphasized this aspect as a key achievement of overcoming capitalist economies which was viewed to favor women's oppression. Also, many country-level studies underscore the adverse consequences of inappropriately developed and gender-biased family support and

welfare policies that reinforce women's wage penalties over their life course (Seguino and Braunstein 2019). Furthermore, Grimshaw et al (2017) assert that employers' exploitative practices towards female employees who are locked into biased local labor markets that hinder higher wage prospects and exercising autonomy at work are evident. Furthermore, O'Reilly et al (2017) state that employers also play a role in creating and reinforcing inequalities, whether by pushing for deregulatory changes, promoting and developing production structures aimed at fragmenting work, or avoiding rules and regulations designed to ensure fair and equal treatment of employees and to support job quality.

Perugini and Selezneva (2015) show that in Central and Eastern Europe, research in relation to gender wage inequalities can be traced to the end of the communist regime, when gender equality (between men and women) was declared at the national government level. Women received access to education, healthcare and political life, but in return, bore a triple burden of paid employment, unpaid housework, and social/ political activities. Furthermore, Perugini and Selezneva (2015) suggest that men dominate in top occupations and positions, and that the gender earnings gap was evident in all communist countries. Perugini and Selezneva (2015) further state that regardless of improvements in the female-male ratio of earnings, it was observed that the feminization of poverty persists due to continued occupations segregation of women into female-dominated, lower paid jobs and discrimination in relation to local hiring practices. Additionally, Perugini and Selezneva (2015) note that the harmonization of anti-discriminatory legislation across Central and Eastern Europe countries that were admitted into the European Union resulted in little change, however, signs of improvement have started to appear in relation to women's education, for example (Perugini and Selezneva 2015).

In the literature focusing on measuring the impact of human capital on gendered labor market inequalities between men and women, Kuépié (2016) found that women's likelihood of attaining top jobs/ positions in Cameroon, Mali and Senegal is generally worse than men's (even when the same educational level are achieved by men and women), thus access to the highest-paid jobs are gendered. Kuépié (2016) further states that women are treated unfairly compared to men even if they have the same educational level and experience, meaning gender inequality is still an issue in some African or less developed countries. Raising a large family (referred to as the 'fertility burden') was found by Kuépié (2016) to have a direct negative

impact on women in Mali and Senegal, and an indirect negative impact in Cameroon linked to interaction with educational levels, specifically in relation to lower marginal returns to education when women have more children.

2.6 Employee requirements for the restaurant sector

There is little done regarding employee requirements in the restaurant sector specifically, however, research in the hospitality and tourism sector as a whole is relevant. For example, Zwane et al (2014) state that as a result of the tourism industry being significantly service-orientated, it is imperative that employees have certain skills that include aspects such as people skills, certain specialist skills for some positions, self-reliance and general employability (with some level of multi-skilling) when working in this sector which includes the restaurant industry. Zwane et al (2014) assert that often employees in the tourism sector are not adequately prepared and trained with these skills to fulfill the requirements expected among employers. They advocate for human resource practitioners in the tourism sector to provide more in-service training.

As a service sector, Chung and D'Annunzio-Green (2018) state that it is widely acknowledged that the hospitality industry is highly variable and labor-intensive. Furthermore, Chung and D'Annunzio-Green (2018) add that the human aspect is directly linked to competitive advantage, overall organizational performance, customer satisfaction and loyalty, and service quality. However, Chung and D'Annunzio-Green (2018) note that the hospitality industry is often related to negative perceptions that are linked to contributing factors including low paying unskilled jobs, challenging social working hours, seasonality in relation to employment, and restricted opportunities for career advancement. This poor reputation, together with high levels of employee turnover discussed earlier, suggest that hospitality organizations are likely to face more challenges when compared to other sectors in their attempts to attract and recruit as well as retain high caliber employees (Chung and D'Annunzio-Green 2018).

Hwang et al (2015) explore the social relationships between employees in the restaurant and customers who go to the restaurants, focusing on understanding how to socially engage

customers in the full-service restaurant industry. They state that the literature explores that restaurant managers should develop systematic and relevant training programs that can help restaurant servers have adequate knowledge and skills required for their job. Grujić et al (2012) state that the knowledge about employees in the food industry is important, underscoring the importance of the education of employees to improve their level of skills and expertise, and the knowledge among employees related to product safety and health-related aspects. Grujić et al (2012) surveyed the management employed in catering and other restaurants and concluded that additional training is necessary for most managers. In addition, Grujić et al (2012) identified the training of restaurant employees as a critical part of a strategy to improve food safety standards and ensure the centrality of human health.

Hanaysha (2016) asserts that building customer satisfaction is regarded as a key priority to improving brand success and organizational performance, as discussed earlier. In the food and beverage industry specifically, service and product quality are regarded as the main factors that determine customer satisfaction. Furthermore, Hwang et al (2015) state that restaurant servers are expected to know the importance of being frank when providing services while keeping customers satisfied. They further indicate that restaurant managers are obligated to generally hire employees (especially those occupying frontline jobs) with likeable and outgoing and personalities because they are more likely to ensure higher levels of customer satisfaction. To achieve this, Hwang et al (2015) encourage restaurant managers to undertake personality tests or in-depth interviews during the recruiting process, which helps explain and predict an applicant's personality characteristics. Furthermore, Genc and Kozak (2020) note that restaurants have seen changes in employee labor trends and practices, from focusing mainly on physical and mental attributes to increasingly paying attention to emotional and aesthetic aspects. They assert that managers' emotional and social competence impact restaurant employees having the necessary traits during service encounters with customers in a rapidly transforming restaurant environment. Dealing with employee emotional exhaustion and job insecurity stress have worsened considerably during the COVID-19 pandemic, as shown by Chen and Eyoun (2021) and Sarwar et al (2021).

Bufquin et al's (2017) research reveal that co-workers perceive competence and warmth as significantly affecting levels of employee job satisfaction, which influences their

organizational commitment. Commitment, according to Yamaguchi (2013), refers to the inclination or intention to maintain a relationship in the future. Yamaguchi (2013) asserts that committed employees believe in and accept organizational values and goals. Yamaguchi (2013) states that this means that committed individuals are willing to remain with the organizations that they are employed in and devote considerable effort to achieving the organization's goals. Tanizaki et al (2017) state that if employees are satisfied with their jobs, the way they are treated and their pay, they tend to be more focused and are willing to stay. Furthermore, levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment mediate the relationships between how co-workers perceive competence and warmth in the workplace and employees' intentions to leave (Bufquin et al 2017). They assert that training employees is critically important, contributing to increased job satisfaction and employee self-efficacy.

Sobaih et al (2011) state that in the United Kingdom the hospitality industry relies increasingly on part-time employees to provide more cost-effective and flexible operations with potential trade-offs that impact on service quality when employing persons on a permanent basis. Part-time employees are generally divided into two categories: permanent and temporary. Each of these distinct groups, according to Sobaih et al (2011), is linked to different employment motivations. In the food service sector, Joung et al (2018) show that full-time and part-time employees display differences in job-related attitudes. Joung et al (2018) specifically examined differences in relation to perceptions about job satisfaction, turnover intentions, internal marketing practices and organizational commitment among full-time and part-time employees in the United States of America. They found that the perceptions of full-time employees of the internal marketing practices were greater than those expressed by part-time employees. Additionally, they indicate that full-time employees were generally less inclined to leave and displayed higher levels of commitment to the organization than those who were employed on a part-time basis.

Sobaih et al (2011) explain that many managers feel that training part-time employees is costly with limited returns on investment (as they are short-term staff) and some managers perceive these costs as money wasted because of the limited number of hours that part-time employees tend to work. Thus, managers generally do not invest in or help train part-time employees. Sobaih et al (2011) assert, however, that part-time employees generally do similar work tasks

and have comparable responsibilities as their full-time counterparts and, therefore, they have similar training and skills development needs. Sobaih et al (2011) further note that part-time employees generally also have limited and restricted access to career development and advancement opportunities, which are linked to employers' incorrect assumptions that higher level supervisory and managerial positions that include responsibilities to oversee other staff cannot be filled by part-time staff. Moreover, they state that part-time employees often feel higher levels of insecurities with their employment and they tend to express more pessimism about their future when compared to full-time employees, which are linked to supervisors and managers also often paying insufficient and less attention to part-time employees in relation to their performance and development. In addition, research shows that addressing employee needs enhances organizational productivity and business profitability since satisfied employees tend to stay longer and contribute to increased productivity and improved service quality.

Sobaih et al (2008) examined gender profiles in relation to restaurant employment in the United Kingdom, with results showing that 45% of the study respondents were male while 55% were females, reflecting the tendency of women to dominate restaurant employment in terms of the number of employees. They further found that only 36% of the respondents worked on a full-time basis, with the majority (64%) employed on a part-time basis either permanently (27%) or temporarily (37%). Similar trends were noted by Cassidy and Parsons (2017) who assert that approximately 60% of employment in the food services and accommodation sector is part-time. Sobaih et al (2008) also found that respondents were from diverse backgrounds, including a high proportion (59%) of persons from ethnic minority groups in the United Kingdom who were mainly Asian, Black and Arab. They also indicate that in relation to the number of years of experience, 68% of the respondents had less than 1-year total experience of restaurant employment in the sector and 80% of the respondents had less than 1-year experience in the restaurant where they were employed when the research was undertaken. The main reason for this trend indicated by Sobaih et al (2008) is that most of the employees were younger people and/ or students. Sobaih et al's (2008) research also shows that only a few of the respondents (9%) had in excess of 5 years experience in total and also that just 5% worked in their current restaurant for more than 5 years. The results reveal that there was little difference identified across all the restaurants that comprised the study population in relation to the number of years of employees' experience in the restaurant industry (Sobaih et al 2008). A disaggregation of employees' positions and working status in Sobaih et al's (2008) study by gender indicates that

70% of female respondents worked on a part-time basis. This is reflected in research that reveal that part-time employees generally tend to be females (Brülle et al 2019; Cassidy and Parsons 2017; van Osch and Schaveling 2020). van Osch and Schaveling (2020) further state that part-time jobs, which are gendered, tend to hamper women's career advancement. The dominance of part-time jobs and high mobility is indicative of low-level skills required for many positions in the restaurant industry.

Zainol et al (2016) examine influential factors that affect gender mobility in restaurant industries. They assert that other researchers found that both female and male employees tend to dislike their jobs because of poor/ low remuneration (often being paid only minimum wage), not getting paid overtime, working long hours with limited personal time, stressful work environments, having to deal with difficult situations and customers, the lack of employee incentives/ motivation and poor or limited relationships between employees and managers. Bennett (2019) states that recruiting, retaining and encouraging frontline employees play a critical role in affecting who can be successful in the hospitality industry. Jang and Kandampully (2018) state that supportive and effective leaders are more likely to decrease staff turnover intentions if they can increase the levels of employees' job satisfaction and intrinsic motivation.

For some occupational categories, there tends to be a discrepancy or gap between the educational level attained among the staff and the educational requirements of the positions they hold to complete the tasks assigned in relation to specific jobs. García-Pozo et al (2014) express similar sentiments explaining that while in most sectors, workers have educational levels that are in alignment with the requirements of the positions held, in other sectors (including the restaurant industry), the educational level among employees tends to be higher (overeducated for the position) or lower (undereducated for the position) than the skills or expertise required to do the work. Dang and Moreo (2018) assert that research shows that there is no actual qualification needed for individuals to work at a restaurant, indicating, however, that it is important for chefs to be qualified in certain culinary areas. Other than the chef, the other employees that make up the restaurant in front or back of the restaurant do not need a specific qualification (Dang and Moreo 2018).

De Larrea et al (2019) state that it is evident in the research that there are no or little culinary or hospitality qualifications required for the restaurant industry specifically, although there are increasing qualifications and training programs on offer for the hospitality sector. De Larrea et al (2019) further note that as the number and size of culinary arts programs have increased, so has dissatisfaction with the state of culinary education. They assert that culinary education requires deeper examination, especially in relation to its connection to the restaurant industry. De Larrea et al (2019) assert that there has always been a debate on whether or not culinary education is needed for those who are interested in the restaurant sector.

It is important to note that although specific qualifications are not required or associated with specific positions in the restaurant industry, educational levels do influence various aspects. For example, Ivkov et al (2018) assert that innovations in the restaurant sector are closely related to the educational level and experience of restaurant managers, specifically innovations were encouraged and embraced to a greater degree among managers with higher educational levels. Hur and Adler (2011) found that educational level and training had an important positive effect on employees' attitudes toward the brand image.

In relation to employee education in the restaurant sector, it is important to highlight that informal training and opportunities for on-the-job training are regarded as the main way in which skills are imparted. Ibrahim et al (2020) note that on-the-job training is a method that focuses on hands-on approaches to teach skills and transfer knowledge. Lee et al (2018) indicate that in the quick service component of the restaurant industry, work-based or on-the-job training is central to job satisfaction and self-efficacy. Yucedag et al (2018) indicate, for example, the value of educational meetings and seminars in relation to environmental awareness for hotel and restaurant employees. Chen and Eyoun (2021) also note the significance of employee education programs.

Training and skills development in restaurants is viewed to be of more importance than for hotels with training in restaurants, according to Pavlović and Vrcelj (2018), which is often done on a continuous basis. Pavlović and Vrcelj (2018) further state that because restaurants are labor-intensive, requiring mostly lower educated employees, the morale of staff can be raised

by embracing training opportunities than can expose employees to additional knowledge, which can contribute to reduced staff turnover and greater commitment. Additionally, Pavlović and Vrcelj (2018) indicate that the training tends to focus on the current requirements or needs in the restaurants, with the intention of improving existing performance and service quality. The prevalence of on-the-job training is also evident. The main reasons identified by employees for leaving the company are contract expiration, accepting another job offer and job dissatisfaction (Pavlović and Vrcelj 2018). They state that training can address these issues.

Mtshokotshe (2018) and Ngaka and Mtshokotshe (2020) state that the hospitality and tourism sector (which includes the restaurant industry) in South Africa is generally deemed to be a critical growth sector and is regarded as the fourth largest economic contributor to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) for a number of years. Mtshokotshe (2018) argues that this has led to numerous initiatives in the restaurant industry to promote and establish partnerships with tertiary institutions to design and develop management courses from National Qualifications Framework (NQF) level 2 to NQF level 6 targeting waitrons.

Ruiz (2017) states that millennial employees in the hospitality sector generally leave their careers because of three main reasons: poor compensation/ remuneration, long hours and negative work-life balance. Ruiz (2017) further indicates that 62% of hospitality employees and 35% of the United States of America labor force millennials. In addition, as indicated by Ruiz (2017), a general business concern that is experienced in restaurants is that there is a higher turnover among specifically culinary-educated millennial employees which undermines the profitability of especially full-service and high-end restaurants. Ruiz (2017) further states that this problem is likely to be linked to some full-service restaurant managers and supervisors lacking the ability to use effective strategies to attract and retain this group of culinary-educated millennials.

2.7 Remuneration/ compensation in the restaurant industry

Compensation/ remuneration in the restaurant sector is important because it affects productivity and profitability, employee morale and satisfaction, employee behavior and motivation, and

the overall organizational culture/ environment (Kim and Jang 2019; Lynn 2017). Lester (2020) states that the restaurant employs the largest share of low-wage workers. Luna (2020) highlights the debates relating to compensation in the restaurant sector, arguing that the COVID-19 pandemic has provided the opportunity for employees to rethink their labor practices. Tips or a standard wage, in particular, have been focused on. Luna (2020) asserts that abandoning tips for wage-based compensation will contribute to leveling the playing field between front- and back-of-house staff and that earning a consistent wage improved job security and moving towards an acceptable living wage in the restaurant industry, especially during low periods or in no-contact service environments (as experienced during the COVID-19 pandemic). Additionally, Luna (2020) indicates that tipped wages perpetuate racial and gender inequalities.

García-Pozo et al (2014) state that little or no skills are required in some sectors of the restaurant sector and therefore they are able to pay workers below minimum wage. For example, statistics in the United States of America in 2011 as shown by Even and Macpherson (2014) reveal that nearly 9 million persons were employed in the restaurant industry which accounted for approximately half of all hourly-based workers in the United States of America who were paid the minimum or below the minimum federal wage. They further indicate that workers have to rely on being tipped in order to make extra money beyond the minimum wage. Even and Macpherson (2014) criticize that most of the existing research at the time on the consequences of the minimum wage on employment patterns and trends in the restaurant industry tended to focus mainly on limited-service restaurants due to the complexities associated with tipping practices in full-service restaurants. They state that although full-service restaurants are expected to comply with the same minimum wage requirements as is the case for other industries, federal law in the United States of America permits restaurant employers to meet a proportion of the minimum wage requirements by accommodating credit for tips that are earned by employees.

Tips as a form of remuneration among workers in the hospitality sector are regarded as an important source of extra income that attracts them to work and continue to be employed in this sector. Shatnawi (2019) states that income derived from tips in the food industry in the United States of America exceeds approximately $44 billion a year, asserting that tipping as a

form of remuneration is practised in many countries and may vary in culture from country to country hence it is important to investigate it separately. In addition, Shatnawi (2019) indicates that the origins of the practice of tipping go back to when customers used to pay extra money in bars and cafés in the early European Union to ensure that services were provided speedily, where copper pots were placed to put money on with the writing "To Insure Promptitude". There are many different cultural impacts that affect tips in different countries. Specifically, Shatnawi (2019) mentions that there are demographic, social and behavioral factors that influence the decision made by a customer to tip.

There has been recent increased interest in if the tipping system in the restaurant sector should be stopped or continued. Lynn (2017) states that there are recent interests in substituting the tipping system with service charges or having higher integrated service-inclusive menu pricing that includes what is expected from tips which necessitates an appraisal of empirical evidence that examines the advantages and disadvantages of different compensation systems in restaurants. Lynn (2017) further indicates that the decision of restaurant employers to retain voluntary tipping or to abandon it should depend on the relative benefits and strengths associated with tipping. Lynn (2017) argues that if a restaurant's servers are paid substantially more than the back-of-the-house employees as well as if customers are less wealthy and more price-sensitive, then the owner of the restaurant should contemplate abandoning tipping. Tipping is deemed to be unfair because the back-of-the-house generally cannot get access to tipping as they have no/ limited interactions with the customers (Lynn 2017). Lynn (2017) further states that usually, waiters or waitresses are underpaid and thus depend on the culture of tipping whereas, for example, chefs are more qualified and trained so are entitled to better pay.

In the United States of America the debate over the benefits and drawbacks to restaurants of using voluntary tipping to remunerate waitrons are more noticeable when government regulations are introduced, such as decreased tip credits, that threaten to increase the restaurant employers' tip-related costs (Lynn 2017). Lynn (2017) asserts that many people support the position that tipping in addition or complementary to a sub-minimum wage results in servers being underpaid in that the total incomes of these employees are often too small for them to comfortably live off. On the other hand, Lynn (2017) states that some restaurateurs fear

abandoning tipping because they believe it helps them attract and retain better workers, while others argue that tipping may reduce the quality of workers attracted to, and staying in, the restaurant industry. Lynn (2017) indicates that tip-related income is fundamentally variable, and this unpredictability may be financially unattractive to employees who seek to support themselves and their families. Thus, according to Lynn (2017), tipping may result in single and younger workers being attracted to work in restaurants on a part-time or temporary basis, thus undermining endeavors to build a more professional waitron staff complement.

Kim and Jang's (2019) research examines the potential impacts of increasing the federal minimum wage in the United States of America (which can be applied to instituting minimum wages in other countries which South Africa is considering implementing as well) on levels of productivity in the restaurant industry. Kim and Jang's (2019) assert that increasing the minimum wage will result in improved restaurant productivity for up to two years. They further state that the results reveal that full-service and comparably lower wage restaurants are likely to benefit more from the productivity benefits, while limited-service and higher wage restaurants are unlikely to experience significant positive impacts. Kim and Jang (2019) conclude that restaurants should embrace minimum wage policies and implement initiatives that capitalize on greater work productivity and continuously focus on raising wage levels or raising wages at least every two years to incentivize employees to be motivated and productive. In support of having a minimum wage, Lester (2020) asserts that recent research indicates that significant job losses are not associated with increasing the minimum wage.

Gendered wage differences, underscoring the gender wage gap that discriminates against women, are widely researched (Kunze 2018; Matteazzi et al 2018; Redmond and McGuinness 2019). However, there is limited research that focuses on the restaurant sector specifically. The current research looks primarily at gender and compensation practices at the managerial levels mainly, with no research that focuses on South Africa. For example, Mascho and Mao (2017) indicate that the gender gap in restaurant managers' earnings in the restaurant industry is wider than the national United States of America statistics which show that men, on average, are paid 30% more than women. As indicated earlier as well, the research is also on the hospital sector more generally rather than in the restaurant sector specifically. The contribution of this study is that the focus is on non-managerial employees in South Africa.

2.8 Human resource issues in the restaurant industry

Mooney (2020) advocates for research in the hospitality industry to address gender inequalities, noting particularly the importance of focusing on management issues from a gender perspective. Mtshokotshe (2018) indicates that the restaurant industry has many challenges such as the lack of talent/ expertise, unavailability of skilled and experienced personpower, inadequate formal education, the threat of staff being poached by other restaurants, stressful working environments, high labor turnover, complex human resources environments and gender inequalities. Mtshokotshe (2018) assesses the challenges restaurant managers experience when implementing human resource strategies to give the business a competitive advantage.

Most organizations (both in the public and private sectors) have the challenge of implementing human resources management strategy. This is also evident in the hospitality and tourism sector as noted by Madera et al (2017b). They underscore the importance of strategic human resources management practices that substantially impact firm performance and employee well-being. Zwane et al (2014) state that the high turnover among employees in the hospitality and tourism sector adds pressure to effectively manage human resources. Nanyan and Ben Charrada (2018) highlight that restaurant work and related working conditions and environments are associated with a range of ergonomic risks and hazards including prolonged standing, heavy lifting and repetitive movements that, if not properly managed, can substantially influence the well-being of employees. Ngaka and Mtshokotshe (2020) state that the human resources division has to be a strategic partner if the intent is to successfully implement the human resources management strategy given that the hospitality sector has been identified as a key growth component of South Africa's economy. They assert that research shows that managers indicated that they have inadequate knowledge about human resources issues but are responsible for human resources in their restaurants. They cite McKnight (2005) to outline the causes of strategy implementation failure in organizations/ businesses that are relevant to the restaurant industry as well as shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Causes of strategy implementation failure (McKnight 2005 cited in Ngaka and Mtshokotshe 2020: 4)

Causes of strategy implementation failure	Explanation
Lack of management coordination	Inappropriate goals, opinions, and policies among upper-level executives can obstruct the cross-system corporation required by the strategy.
Low interest from workers to understand company strategy	Workers do not want to educate themselves about the company's strategy and therefore are not willing to implement it.
Poor management team building within the unit	Line managers fail to put the management strategy in place.
No collaboration within the department	Lack of teamwork to make life easy for the operation of the business and the specific function areas
Unavailable progress measurement	Model to measure the organizational progress is absent to check the goals of the business.

Pavlović and Vrcelj (2018) state that restaurant managers tend to believe that human resources management is not in a position to contribute substantially to the attainment of a restaurant's goal. Pavlović and Vrcelj (2018) further add that in restaurants generally human resources management is regarded as an aspect that needs administrative attention. They also state that restaurants mainly recruit employees based on recommendations, but they are also likely to use more formal recruiting methods such as newspaper and internet advertising.

Nonaka et al's (2016) research reveals that employee satisfaction is important in workplace environments and contexts, affecting efficiency and levels of service quality, relationships with employers and colleagues, adherence to rules, work attitudes and motivation, and interest in being multi-skilled and further educational development. Bennett (2019) states that satisfaction structures and levels are linked to differences associated with a range of attributes including

employee position, age group and employment experience. Nonaka et al (2016) note that many full-time kitchen staff in restaurants have customary cooking traditions and behaviors as professional chefs. They further state that if there is a positive reaction among employees in the workplace then there will be a positive impact on the work and business. Jang and Kandampully (2018) indicate that keeping and inspiring frontline employees play a critical role in ensuring that businesses in the hospitality sector are successful.

Chipunza and Mupani (2019) state that the literature shows that employee recruiting and resourcing strategies play a crucial role in assisting SMEs to achieve a sustained and successful competitive advantage. Chipunza and Mupani (2019) further note that SMEs generally do not adopt formal employee resourcing strategies and those firms that implement them generally do so on an *ad hoc* basis, with SMEs relying on personal family-based relationships and affinity-based networks that are unlikely to question managerial or ownership authority and tend not to be recruited for their skills or expertise but rather because of their loyalty to hire employees. Chipunza and Mupani (2019) indicate that most SME managers and/ or owners are familiar with and embrace traditional, patriarchal and authoritarian approaches; lacking the expertise to support their employee recruiting and resourcing strategies. They assert that there remains gender segregation in the restaurant industry, either between the employee and employer or amongst themselves, as to who works where (back or front of the restaurant) and who does what because of their gender (Chipunza and Mupani 2019).

2.8.1. Harassment and discrimination

A key human resource issue with gender aspects is harassment and discrimination, components discussed previously in relation to employment inequalities and the compensation/ remuneration in the workplace. Cajander and Reiman (2019) state that stereotypically, bullying as well as other forms of harassment are viewed as normal and acceptable parts of working in a restaurant work environment. They further indicate that negatively linked to the well-being of restaurant employees as well as the enterprise as a whole are practices of harassment and bullying. These negative actions, according to Ariza-Montes et al (2017), can result in lower levels of satisfaction and work commitment, higher absenteeism and employee burnout; that may lead them to quit.

Minnotte and Legerski (2019) state that sexual harassment occurs in contemporary workplaces, contributing to structural vulnerabilities for women in particular, given the pervasiveness of patriarchy in society. Slonaker et al (2007) specifically focus on discriminatory employment practices in the restaurant industry and indicate that sex-discrimination lawsuits and claims against chain and quick service restaurants were the second most frequent, where women filed against sexual harassment and pregnancy discrimination. In addition, Baltag et al (2021) and Slonaker et al (2007) state that sexual harassment faced by women is regarded as a serious problem that is prevalent in the hospitality industry. Baltag et al (2021) found in their study in the Netherlands that females in the restaurant industry label and categorize more workplace incidents as a form of sexual harassment when compared to male employees; that females often experience more incidents of sexual harassment from customers than their male counterparts; and that sexual harassment tends to negatively affect both female and males' well-being and motivation. They suggest that restaurants have proper policies and training programs to prevent and punish sexual harassment. This is particularly important given the increasing focus on eradicating discriminatory practices and harassment. As Ram (2018) asserts, the consequences of negative perceptions and associations may also result in adverse effects on the reputation and image of the entire restaurant industry as well as, more generally, the tourism and hospitality sector.

Matulewicz (2015) states that there is ongoing sexual harassment between male customers and female employees who are bartenders, waitresses and other staff within the restaurant sector. Matulewicz (2015) further asserts that workers in restaurants often rely on customers for tipping and that the wage-tip relation is gendered as well as legitimized and reinforced via generally lower minimum wage provisions and regulations for servers. This situation "then fuels a relationship of unequal power that leaves workers vulnerable to sexual harassment and sexualized interactions with customers as the price to be paid for a tip - a form of institutionalized quid pro quo" (Matulewicz 2015: 401).

Literature shows that the restaurant sector sexualizes the work environment and unfortunately certain inappropriate behaviors have been embedded in the culture between workers and customers (Matulewicz 2015; 2016). Matulewicz (2016) states that in highly gendered and sexualized work environments such as restaurants, practices including sexual insinuations and

jokes are commonplace and usually targeted toward females who have to endure these types of behaviors. Sadly, Matulewicz (2015) indicates that this is seen to be 'part of the job' for many employees, especially for hostesses, waitresses and bartenders. Furthermore, Matulewicz (2015) explains that the restaurant tasks are structured and organized in a manner that makes it difficult and discourages worker resistance to or rejection of unwelcome and unsolicited sexual advances and harassment, creating a culture and an environment where sexual conduct and advances towards women workers are viewed as being 'normal' and an accepted feature of the job.

Even though within the restaurant sector there are no or little labor relations involved or legislation in place for the employees, as indicated by Matulewicz (2015), that gives customers the authority to terminate employment, the 'power' that customers can wield emerges and becomes evident in the remuneration of waitrons/ servers with tips. Customers greatly influence working conditions and environments in restaurants because of the prevalence of tipping as a key component of remuneration, as discussed earlier. Tips for employees are very important as employees are usually given a low minimum wage. This results in women, in particular, having to face such sexual harassment in the restaurant industry and often being silent to report the matter because they are reliant on the tips and many make more money on tips than they would on wages. Matulewicz (2015) states that the hierarchical relationship that characterizes engagements between restaurant workers and the general public is encapsulated in being part of the 'servants' (rather than service) industry, where there is an expectation that employees should serve as well as be docile/ submissive to customers.

2.8.2. Employment of foreigners

Another critical issue in relation to human resource issues in the restaurant sector that is particularly relevant in the South African context is the employment of foreigners. Janta et al (2011) state that because of the nature of the hospitality sector, especially its accessibility as well as the diversity/ different levels of skills required, opportunities arise for foreigners to be employed. They further indicate that the main reasons for the hospitality sector in many countries employing foreigners are their willingness to work for lower wages than locals, they

are willing to fill jobs that locals prefer not to take, they do tasks that are physically taxing and unpleasant, and that they have skills and knowledge that locals lack.

Urban (2013) mentions that immigrants are generally over-represented as employees in the restaurant sector and that since it is doubtful that they will have information about and access to networks that enable job mobility, they tend to stay in the sector. Similarly, Kalitanyi and Visser (2010) state that it is also possible that discriminatory practices in the labor market are likely to hinder movement among immigrants to other jobs or opportunities available in the labor market. Urban (2013) identifies a pattern evident among restaurant workers in Bristol, indicating that those who remain in the sector do so because of the absence of other opportunities. Other factors that limit mobility identified by Urban (2013) include the quality of relationships in the workplace, interactions with customers and attachments to family and other networks. This, according to Urban (2013), suggests that the restaurant sector can be seen as a market that operates largely on the periphery for immigrants.

Jinnah and Cazarin (2015) state that although the fourth largest contributor to the South African GDP is the tourism and hospitality sub-sector, there is limited (if any) information about the contribution of the foreign employees with non-existent reliable statistics. As noted earlier, Liu (2019), Mlambo and Ndebele (2020) and Solomon (1996) reveal that foreign nationals tend to be employed in specific sectors, with the restaurant industry being one of such in South Africa. Mlambo and Ndebele (2020) extend the discussion to the contribution of unskilled immigrants to economic development in South Africa. They assert that there is substantial evidence of economic contribution by immigrants but generally, negative stereotypes persist specifically in relation to crime and drug smuggling. They further conclude that immigrants have contributed to the growth and development of South Africa's economy (especially in the informal sector, including food and beverages) and that contrary to the perception that immigrants steal jobs, they have created employment and contributed to the transfer of skills to South Africans.

Xenophobia, especially against African immigrants that is referred to as Afrophobia, is a major issue of concern highlighted in the literature (Crush and Ramachandran 2017; Crush and Tawodzera 2017; Makhado and Tshisikhawe 2021; Tirivangasi and Nyahunda 2020). While

many questions have arisen in relation to African immigrants either creating jobs or taking jobs, Crush and Ramachandran (2017), Makhado and Tshisikhawe (2021) and Tirivangasi and Nyahunda (2020) agree that xenophobia is associated with the perceptions that African immigrants take the jobs of the local people. Kalitanyi and Visser (2010) state that some African immigrants are involved in restaurants either as entrepreneurs or for employment purposes. Kalitanyi and Visser (2010) reveal that immigrants from neighboring African countries find jobs in the retail sector and restaurant sector as it is easier to find placement. Also, they argue that there are little or no skills needed, identification or other documents are not stressed upon much, no educational background is required and no thorough experience is needed when working in such sectors as they usually provide in-house training when needed. Furthermore, Santos and Varejão (2007) assert that in the classic or archetypal "Horatio Alger" model, explaining American social mobility, individuals outside employment in mainstream jobs often take on low-paid jobs that they can access given their limited qualifications. Over time, Santos and Varejão (2007) state that these individuals acquire skills, improve credentials and develop more contacts which enables them to get better and more stable positions that provide a middle-class lifestyle. Therefore, Bendick et al (2010) state that immigrants find their initial or entry-level employment is often in the restaurant industry. In addition, Kalitanyi and Visser (2010) explain that in South Africa, African immigrants specifically have been subjected to severe displays of hostility to them being in the country. The information supplied by the Department of Home Affairs and immigrant-support organizations based in Cape Town shows that most African immigrants come from Angola, Burundi, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi, Rwanda, Somalia, Zambia and Zimbabwe (Kalitanyi and Visser 2010).

Strozza et al (2016) state that nationality, legal status, gender and the area of residence are important discriminatory aspects that define migrants' ability to access the labor market and the types of jobs they can find. In the literature found regarding market or labor segmentation in Italy, Strozza et al (2016) focused on gender-based discriminatory practices experienced by migrant workers in Italian regional labor markets. Factors that influence the employment of migrants are related to gender and the unique characteristics associated with the region of residence that substantially impact on the likelihood of securing employment and the type of job attained, as well as other socio-demographic factors such as educational level, age, country emigrated from and length of stay in Italy (Strozza et al 2016).

2.9 Conclusion

The tourism and hospitality sector generally and the restaurant industry specifically is an important economic contributor, both in relation to contribution to the GDP as well as job creation. Most research, as highlighted in this Chapter, reveals that there is limited empirically-based research that examines trends in the restaurant industry nationally. Furthermore, gender disaggregation is almost non-existent. The literature reveals that key thematic issues associated with studies pertaining to the restaurant industry are trends in relation to employment profiles and preferences, job creation and job security, types of restaurants, changes in the demand for products and services, operational efficiency and technological drivers; customer satisfaction and customer-centric orientation; employee/ job satisfaction; remuneration/ compensation; labor market segmentation and inequalities; human resource issues (including harassment and discrimination, and employment of foreigners); and employee requirements in the restaurant industry. The main aspects when adopting a gender lens are the wage gap, gender stereotyping, occupational segregation as well as workplace harassment. The next Chapter presents the methodological approach adopted for this study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This Chapter outlines the methodological approach adopted for the study, starting with an overview of the restaurant industry in South Africa. Thereafter, the research design detailing the sampling and data collection procedures is discussed. The specific research questions linked to the aim and objectives presented in Chapter One are:

- What are the gender disaggregated (that is, differences between men and women employees) socio-economic profiles of employees in the restaurant sector in relation to age, population group, province, home language and educational level?

- What are the types and status (in relation specifically to whether employees have contracts) of jobs men and women undertake in the restaurant sector and the length of work?

- Are there differences in relation to whether restaurants prefer hiring males and females, and the reasons, if applicable?

- What experiences or qualifications do most restaurant employees have? Are gender differences noticeable?

- What types of skills are perceived to be required in the restaurant sector by men and women, and are there differences in the rating of specific skills required?

- Are there gender differences among restaurant employees in relation to perceptions of their current position and reasons for working in the restaurant sector?

The methodological approach was conducting surveys with restaurant employees at 402 restaurant/ food and beverages establishments at purposively selected cities in South Africa. Thus, a quantitative approach was applied for this study.

3.2. South African restaurants

As stated in the introductory Chapter, the tourism and hospitality sector (including the restaurant industry) in South Africa is generally regarded as a growth sector and is the fourth largest contributor to the GDP for several years (Jinnah and Cazarin 2015; Mtshokotshe 2018; Ngaka and Mtshokotshe 2020). The introductory Chapter also highlighted that there is limited credible research that provides statistics on the number and profiles of restaurants in South Africa specifically. Mupani (2016) states that the hospitality sector had witnessed significant growth in South Africa, contributing immensely to employment creation due to the diverse nature of the industry, while most industries are closing. This assessment was undertaken prior to the COVID-19 pandemic which, as noted earlier, has had devastating impacts on restaurants globally. Swanepoel (2016) states that due to the nature of the restaurant industry in South Africa, operating hours are long, and employees are often doing tasks repetitively which need little or no intellectual skills, hence the high turnover rates associated with businesses.

Mhlanga (2018) states that South African restaurants have a high failure rate. According to their research findings on research undertaken in 42 restaurants, Mhlanga (2018) found that restaurants were operating on average at 77% (ranging from the most efficient restaurants operating at 97% and the least efficient restaurants operating at 43% efficiency level). From the study, Mhlanga (2018) identified two structural drivers (operation type and location) and two executional drivers (revenue per available seat hour and restaurant type) that substantially impact on levels of restaurant efficiency in the South African context (Mhlanga 2018).

As indicated in the introductory Chapter, the hospitality sector in South Africa (and globally) has experienced substantial growth which has led to it contributing hugely to employment creation since it offers a range of employment opportunities linked to the diverse nature of products and services. However, as noted in the literature review Chapter, current trends in the hospitality sector, especially in relation to small restaurants in South Africa, reveal that the exploitation of labor is evident and that part-time, casual and seasonal employment dominates this sector. As noted earlier, restaurants in South Africa that are sit-down establishments operate in highly competitive environments (with increasing levels of disruptions and unpredictability in the COVID-19 pandemic context), with customer satisfaction being a core

aspect that influences long-term in this and other hospitality-related service industries (Mupani 2016). Examining the growth of the food service sector in South Africa, Petzer and Mackay (2014) state that several sit-down restaurant establishments are unable to survive or have sustained growth which results in them being forced to close as a result of customer losses, inadequate financial resources, decreases in revenue generation and bankruptcy. In 2010, Igumbor et al (2012) state that 8 661 fast food outlets existed in South Africa and among these, most (4 991) were owned by fast food chains. They further state that the remaining fast food outlets were independent establishments. Additionally, the number of transactions linked to fast food chains in South Africa had increased considerably, despite there being substantially more street kiosks/ stalls when compared to fast food outlets (Igumbor et al 2012). As a result of the challenges experienced in the restaurant industry, Igumbor et al (2012) suggest that sit-down restaurant marketing should focus on developing new ways of entrenching and sustaining a competitive advantage over competitors. Similar to international trends noted in the previous Chapter, Petzer and Mackay (2014) note that the restaurant industry in South Africa is, as expected, extremely dependent on customer preferences and demand.

As noted earlier, academic research that focuses on the restaurant industry in South Africa nationally in terms of profiles and employment trends is non-existent. There are some reports that provide non-peer-reviewed information but are useful to provide a broader context. For example, Veitch (2017) asserts that the restaurant, fast food and catering sector in South Africa generated revenue in excess of R57.25 billion in 2016. Veitch (2017) in the 2017 restaurant, fast food and catering industry report, further states that as per figures published by Statistics South Africa for the period 1 May 2017 to 31 July 2017, more than 51% of the sector's total income was generated by the restaurant/ coffee shop segment, while the catering and fast food segments contributed 13.36% and 35.5%, respectively. Additionally, Veitch (2017) indicates that in South Africa, while premium establishments that cater to international tourists and niche wealthier, upper-income customers were generally well supported (before the COVID-19 pandemic), the independent restaurants remain under pressure in the context of cash-strapped consumers cutting back on luxury spending. Veitch (2017) also notes that in addition to decreasing customer numbers that restaurants face, South African food and beverages service providers report narrowing profit margins and higher overheads.

Statistics South Africa's (2020) survey of a sample of 800 registered enterprises/ businesses in the food and beverages industry in the country (undertaken between 1 July 2017 and 30 June 2018) found that this sub-sector contributed R72.3 billion in 2018, showing consistent growth in relation to previous years, with the largest contributors being restaurant establishments and coffee shops, being followed by takeaway and fast food outlets and thereafter caterers as well as other catering services. The dominance and growth of top enterprises were also noted, with the top 100 enterprises in 2018 contributing 41.9% of the total income generated compared to 37.2% in 2009. Statistics South Africa (2020) reported that in 2018, the total number of persons employed in the food and beverages industry was 205 411, also showing consistent growth. Most employees were females (60.6%) compared to males (39.4%), with most being employed on a full-time (90.1%) rather than a part-time basis (9.9%). This differs from findings noted in the literature review and could be attributed to the Statistics South Africa (2020) study focusing on registered businesses only. Most jobs were in restaurant establishments and coffee shops (50.3%), being followed by takeaway and fast food outlets (27.8%) and the least proportion of jobs being in catering and other catering services (21.9%). Statistics South Africa (2020) also found that large enterprises (with an annual turnover that is equal to or greater than R78 million) had contributed 39.4% of the total income generated and 35.2% of employment in the food and beverages industry in 2018. Statistics South Africa (2020) further found that most of the employment (64.8%) was generated by Small, Medium and Micro Enterprises (SMMEs), with an income contribution of 60.6%.

Businesswire (2019) states that the restaurant, fast food and catering sector in South Africa in 2018 generated a revenue of R68.27 billion, which represented a real revenue growth of 2.8% before the COVID-19 pandemic. In the context of a COVID-19 pandemic recovery, it is important to note that in 2018, Businesswire (2019) indicated that due to economic challenges in South Africa and a decline in discretionary expenditure, eating out in South Africa for many is a luxury that people are increasingly abstaining from. This trend has been worsened by the COVID-19 pandemic, threatening the sustainability of many restaurants. Specifically, Bryden (2021) specifically asserts in the 2021 restaurant, fast food and catering industry report that in South Africa, lockdowns (especially the associated forced closures and restrictions during different lockdown levels, limits on the number of patrons, reduced trading hours and alcohol bans), supply chain constraints, load-shedding and unrest have had devastating impacts and created numerous challenges. Bryden (2021) indicates that while independent restaurants,

coffee shops and fine dining establishments have been severely affected, fast food franchises have been relatively resilient. Additionally, of concern is that the catering industry has come to a standstill (Bryden 2021). Bryden (2021) also highlights, as noted earlier, that technology and innovation are having a major influence on driving online ordering and delivery options. Furthermore, Bryden (2021) states that consumer food consumption patterns and lifestyle habits as well as shopping behaviors have changed; forcing restaurants to reduce costs, streamline menus and adopt innovative marketing strategies.

3.3 Research design

Leedy and Ormrod (2010) state that outlining how the research, especially in relation to primary data collection, will be undertaken determines the level of the accuracy of the results and conclusions derived. According to Coy (2019), the research design that is aligned to the formulated aim and objectives as well as the research questions is deemed to be critical since the choices made indicate the most suitable methodological approach to adopt and specific method/s to use linked to the phenomenon being researched. This study is based on findings from a restaurant employee survey and is embedded in a positivist orientation.

In quantitative research (which is the approach that this study adopts), case studies can permit generalizations and an examination of trends, as noted by Harrison et al (2017), Larrinaga (2017) and Sovacool et al (2018). Quantitative methodologies include acquiring reliable and accurate measurements to enable statistical analyses that relate to the scientific process of "performing systematic and intensive inquisitions, which aims to discover and interpret the facts that are inserted in a certain reality" (Queirós et al 2017: 370). Coy (2019: 72) asserts that "quantitative enquiry attempts to generate raw data scores and employs statistical analysis to identify a numerically average experience". Similarly, Queirós et al (2017) state that objectivity is important in quantitative research and thus the focus is on numerical measurements and representation. They further argue that systematically obtaining quantifiable measures of variables and adopting structured procedures and instruments, which this study uses, are intended to permit inferences to be made from samples/ sub-sets of a population. The positivist paradigm, within which this study is located, provides a basis to undertake a national trend analysis of employment patterns in the restaurant sector. Additionally, a gender comparison

can be undertaken as a result of collecting numerically-based responses using a structured survey. The design of the survey instrument and sampling framework for this study are discussed later.

Research ethical aspects were considered in the study as well. Ethical approval for the study was obtained from the Cape Peninsula University of Technology, the lead university for the national study. Specifically, the names of the participating restaurants as well as any personal information pertaining to the employees are confidential. In terms of the employees, no personal details were collected and respondents were guaranteed confidentiality and anonymity. The respondents were also informed of the purpose of the study and how the data will be used. Furthermore, respondents' participation in the study was voluntary and they were informed that they could withdraw at any time and not respond to any specific questions.

3.3.1 Data collection instrument

A structured survey is used in this study. Queirós et al. (2017: 381) state that structured surveys as a research technique:

> … allows the collection of data directly from a person involved in the researcher through a set of questions organized in a certain order. It is one of the most used quantitative techniques, since it allows obtaining information about a given phenomenon, through the formulation of questions that reflect the opinions, perceptions and behaviors of a group of individuals.

Structured surveys enable the systematic and consistent collection of data pertaining to specific variables that reduce and restrict subjectivity and misinterpretation.

The survey was developed in consultation with the NDT as well as examining aspects considered in other restaurant employee studies. The questions used in the survey (Appendix 1) generally focused on numeric and quantifiable variables in relation to the following thematic areas:

- Demographic profile of the respondents (such as gender, age, ethnic/ population group, nationality and language)

- Education and training (including the highest level of education attained, if currently studying and if training was received for the current position in the restaurant)

- Employment status in the restaurant (such as current position, how became aware of the position, period working in the restaurant industry and specifically in the restaurant where the interview was held, terms of employment and previous experience)

- Rating of skills required (perceptions in relation to specific statements including personality attributes, work-related skills, and knowledge of the restaurant sector and tourism)

- Income status (for example, monthly net income, how often paid and how paid and benefits received)

- Perceptions of current positions (ratings of various aspects in relation to specific statements including the adequacy of salaries, promotions and rewards, working environment and customers)

- Reasons for working in a restaurant

Most questions took the form of categorical responses, with the addition of an 'other, specify' option for some of the questions to ensure that if the available options were not applicable, additional responses could be captured. In relation to the few open-ended questions that were used in this study, these were subjected to a thematic analysis and quantified.

Reliability and validity of the data collected are critical to ensure generalizability in quantitative research. Coy (2019) states that generalizability focuses on results being relevant to and reflective of the larger population. Reliability and validity, according to Coy (2019), refers to the generation of results that are comparable to other similar populations or contexts when the methodology is used. In this study, reliability and validity were attained by developing a survey instrument with questions that focused on variables relevant to the research that were formulated to be clear that do not have multiple interpretations or meanings. Furthermore, the face-to-face interview approach was used to complete the surveys so that the questions were well understood and to ensure that a higher response rate was achieved. Additionally, the surveys were also piloted. Simon and Goes (2013) indicate that a pilot study is a trial run for

the data collection process. For this research, a pilot study was conducted in Cape Town in 2018 to test the first draft of the survey. This was the first step towards ensuring the validity and reliability of the research results. As part of the pilot study, various restaurants were approached to interview employees. Restaurant selection for the pilot study was through convenience sampling. The pilot study yielded the following results:

- Accessibility to restaurants - walk-in was ideal compared to prearranged appointments.

- Employee numbers ranged from 15 to 30 in a restaurant, and an average sampling size of 7 was used to accommodate the range of employees employed, as explained later.

The results of the pilot study were used to inform the methodology selected for the study and to adjust the research instrument to achieve the research objectives.

3.3.2 Selection of study areas and sampling

In quantitative research, sampling is the selection of a sub-set of the population that permits the statistical analyses to permit generalizations as well as identify relationships and trends linked to the purpose of the research (Coy 2019). Information and statistics on the restaurant sector are generally limited and non-existent, as noted in the previous Chapter, with Huang (2021) stating that worldwide, the hotel and restaurant industry is significantly under-represented in labor databases. As indicated in the introductory Chapter, the data is part of a larger South African national study that was undertaken. In the context of the lack of reliable and national statistics, the sampling approach adopted for this study was a multi-staged phased approach. Phase 1 included purposively selecting the cities where the research was undertaken. Phase 2 related to the selection of participating restaurants within the chosen cities. Phase 3 involved the selection of employees to participate in the study in the chosen restaurants.

Phase 1: Selection of cities

The six cities targeted for the study were chosen by means of maximum variation sampling whereby the top ten most visited cities in South Africa identified by Statistics South Africa (2018) were used (Table 3.1). The top three most visited cities in South Africa, according to South African Tourism (2018), were Cape Town, Johannesburg and Durban while the bottom

three cities on the top ten list were Kimberley, Polokwane and Pietermaritzburg. These six cities were chosen to ensure spatial representation and that research was conducted in different contexts.

Table 3.1: Top 10 most visited cities (from lowest to highest) in South Africa (South African Tourism 2018)

City	Province
Pietermaritzburg	KwaZulu-Natal
Polokwane	Limpopo
Kimberley	Northern Cape
Nelspruit	Mpumalanga
Bloemfontein	Free State
Port Elizabeth	Eastern Cape
Pretoria	Gauteng
Durban	KwaZulu-Natal
Johannesburg	Gauteng
Cape Town	Western Cape

During the study, research in Kimberley was abandoned because of logistical challenges experienced. This is discussed further in relation to the (de)limitations of the study.

Phase 2: Selection of restaurants

The next step was the selection of the restaurants. In order to select participating restaurants from each city, proportionate stratified sampling was used. Firstly, lists of restaurants in each of the cities were generated from information derived from the websites (including restaurants.co.za, TripAdvisor and Eat Out) as well as information sourced from various organizations such as the Restaurant Association South of Africa (RASA) and city departments. In total, 6 365 restaurants (Table 3.2) were identified that included upscale or fine dining restaurants, family restaurants and fast food/ quick service restaurants. Additionally, it was also assumed that 10 000 restaurants in total exist in South Africa (Cape Peninsula University of Technology 2019). A targeted sample size of 367 was thus chosen, which is

statistically significant at a 95% confidence level when the population is 10 000. The breakdown of the number of restaurants listed per city as well as the sample size determined using the proportionate sampling approach, that is, the percentage of the total for each city is shown in Table 3.2 below. Additionally, Table 3.2 shows the actual sample sizes attained per city with a total of 402 restaurants, which exceeded the targeted sample size of 367. As indicated early, the Table also shows that research was not undertaken in Kimberley and adjustments were made accordingly. In each city, fieldworkers were trained to purposively select different types of restaurants at specified locations in the city to ensure greater representation. At the chosen restaurants, managers were approached to grant permission to participate in the study and for fieldworkers to approach employees.

Table 3.2: Estimates of the number of restaurants per city and sample size targeted and attained (Cape Peninsula University of Technology 2019)

Selected city	Number of restaurants per city and proportion	Targeted sample size of restaurants	Actual sample size attained
Cape Town	2 643 (41.5%)	152	166 (41.3%)
Johannesburg	2 299 (36.1%)	133	141 (35.1%)
Durban	1 043 (16.4%)	60	71 (17.7%)
Pietermaritzburg	171 (2.7%)	10	13 (3.2%)
Polokwane	112 (1.8%)	6	11 (2.7%)
Kimberley	97 (1.5%)	6	-
Total	6365	367	402

The types of restaurants the interviews were conducted in are presented in Table 3.3. In relation to the restaurants, the highest proportion of interviews was conducted at fast food/ quick service establishments (29.4%) followed by casual (28.6%) and family (27.6%) restaurant establishments. The least number of interviews was conducted at upscale/ fine dining restaurants (14.4%). Almost similar trends were noted in terms of the types of restaurants where

the employee interviews were undertaken. Specifically, the highest proportion of employee interviews was conducted at casual establishments (30.9%) followed by fast food/ quick service (29.6%) and family (24.7%) restaurant establishments. The least number of interviews was also conducted at upscale/ fine dining restaurants (14.8%).

Table 3.3: Type of restaurant establishment interviews were conducted in

	Restaurant distribution (n=402)		Employee surveys (n=1 869)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Casual	115	28.6	577	30.9
Fast food/ quick service	118	29.4	553	29.6
Family	111	27.6	462	24.7
Upscale/ fine dining	58	14.4	277	14.8

Phase 3: Selection of employees

At the chosen restaurant, employees were listed and randomly selected from the list based on the number of employees in the restaurant. Specifically, where there were less than 15 employees, at least 5 employees were surveyed. If there were 16-35 employees, then 7 employees were surveyed and if there were more than 35 employees, then 10 were surveyed. Each employee approached was asked to provide informed consent to participate in the study. Fieldworkers were trained to also make adjustments to ensure that both front (the dining area) and back (in the kitchen area) of the house employees were targeted. In total, 1 869 employees were interviewed at the 402 restaurants. The research was undertaken from October 2018 to January 2019.

In summary, the case study was the South African restaurant sector. A multi-staged sampling approach was adopted. In the first instance, restaurants in five purposively selected cities were identified. In each of the restaurants, employees were randomly chosen from employee lists.

Given that limited (if any) research adopting the quantitative approach used in this study exists, this is an explanatory case study to examine trends in restaurant employee profiles and perceptions. This particular dissertation disaggregates the employee survey results on the basis of gender (specifically males and females).

3.3.3 Data analysis

As Queirós et al (2017) state, statistical procedures are used to analyze numerical data. This study subjects the employee survey data to a thematic gender analysis, specifically comparing male and female responses. Furthermore, aspects raised in the literature reviews are included in the discussion. Thus, the results are presented and analyzed, drawing on pertinent literature and integrated into the discussions as well. Specifically, the approach indicated by Queirós et al (2017) to undertake quantitative survey-based research is adopted in this study, which includes collecting the data, evaluating the data, identifying patterns and interpreting the results.

Data from the survey was inputted into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Cross-tabulations were used to generate disaggregated data, comparing male and female responses. Thus, descriptive statistics (specifically percentages) were generated and discussed thematically using the constant comparative approach, that is, comparing male and female responses. Because of the high number of employees (1 869) interviewed, percentage responses were rounded off to one decimal point, which results in some of the total percentages not adding up to 100%. Some of the Tables also indicate multiple responses and in these instances, percentages add up to more than 100%.

3.4 (De)limitations of the study

It is important to indicate the (de)limitations of the study. Price and Murnan (2004) assert that a limitation refers to the possibility of a systematic bias embedded in the research design adopted or data collection instrument used that did not or could not be controlled by the

researcher that could have an affect on the results derived from the study. They further assert that, on the other hand, a delimitation refers to the intentional systematic bias in the research design or data collection instrument used, which the researcher has control over.

The purposive selection of the six cities from the top 10 list was a delimitation since this was done intentionally. This decision, however, implies that restaurants in smaller cities and towns were excluded. As indicated earlier, as a result of logistical challenges in undertaking fieldwork in Kimberley, research in this city did not take place. This may have influenced the results slightly. The sampling sizes in Polokwane and Pietermaritzburg, two of the bottom three cities chosen, were increased since these cities were deemed to have a similar profile to Kimberley.

The use of a structured employee survey relies on the recollection and responses of the respondents. The information provided (such as educational level and income received) was not independently verified. To ensure the generalizability of the results based on the data collection approach adopted, the sample size in relation to the number of restaurants was 402, with 1 869 employees interviewed in these restaurants. Additionally, interviews took place at specific times at specific restaurants. Since restaurants often operate on a shift basis/ part-time work, some employees may have been excluded from being chosen to be interviewed. As indicated earlier, however, the approach to select the employees was to engage with the manager to list the number of employees on duty on the day the interviews were conducted and randomly choose from the list. Thus, convenience sampling was used. This was done to limit bias.

3.5 Conclusion

The methodological approach used in the study was presented in this Chapter. The research questions were indicated followed by providing an overview of the restaurant industry in South Africa. Thereafter, the research design was outlined including a discussion of the quantitative survey and multi-staged sampling framework used as well as how the results were analyzed. Additionally, the (de)limitations of the study were indicated. The next Chapter undertakes the data analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapters highlighted the value of examining employee profiles and perceptions in the restaurant industry in South Africa, specifically underscoring the limited research that adopts a gendered analysis. In this context, this study undertakes a gender disaggregated analysis of employee profiles and perceptions in the restaurant industry, based on employee surveys conducted in selected restaurants as outlined in the previous Chapter. The survey results are presented and discussed in relation to the following thematic aspects: demographic profile of the employees interviewed, education and training considerations, employment status in the restaurant, rating of skills required, income status, perceptions of current positions and reasons for working in a restaurant.

4.2 Demographic profile of the respondents

The key variable under examination in this study is gender, specifically undertaking male and female comparisons. Table 4.1 indicates that the majority of the respondents were females (55.1%) compared to males (44.9%). This is in keeping with the literature that reveals that food and beverage establishments tend to employ more females than males (Herbekian 1981; Kamerāde and Richardson 2018; Mooney 2018; Neumark et al 1996; Zhang et al 2018). Also, Booth and Leigh (2010) state that 80% of waitron staff (jobs included positions at restaurants, bistros, bars, cafés and hotels) are female. This trend of higher numbers of female employment characterizes the hospitality and tourism sector more generally as well as shown by the DoL (2017). The dominance of female employees may link to the restaurant sector needing front-of-house staff for waitressing and hosting, as shown by Neumark et al (1996). Hence, Neumark et al (1996) state that there is research on gender differences in labor markets, which suggests that males are generally favored in formal, high-price restaurants and wages and tips are higher than for females. However, Neumark et al (1996) note that some jobs/ positions are often disproportionately occupied by women (usually referred to as 'occupational crowding').

Table 4.1: Gender of respondents (n=1869)

	Frequency	Percentage
Male	839	44.9
Female	1030	55.1
Total	1869	100

When examining the population group of the employees in the restaurant sector, the results in Table 4.2 below shows that the majority of the workers are African/ Black South African (50.5%) and foreign Africans (33.4%). Among the rest of the respondents, they were Colored South Africans (7.5%), White South Africans (5.5%), Indian South Africans (2.4%) and non-African foreigners (0.7%). In total, 65.9% of the employees interviewed compared to 34.1% who were foreigners. This is aligned with international trends where it is shown that the hospitality and tourism sector disproportionately employs foreigners (Janta et al 2011; Jinnah and Cazarin 2015; Kalitanyi and Visser 2010; Liu 2019; Mlambo and Ndebele 2020; Solomon 1996). Thus, the perceptions in South Africa that foreigners take local jobs, as shown in the literature (Crush and Ramachandran 2017; Makhado and Tshisikhawe 2021; Tirivangasi and Nyahunda 2020) are unfounded since the South African employment patterns in the restaurant industry reflect global trends. Thus, South Africa is not an exception to the world as other countries also have foreigners in the restaurant industry. Bayari and Iwu (2018) state that for many years, people in developing countries have had to leave their home countries for a variety of reasons, therefore, both skilled and unskilled persons relocate to developed economies for socio-economic and political reasons.

In terms of gender differences, there are more South African females that are employed in the population categories of African/ Black South African (53.3% compared to 47.3%) and Colored South African (8% compared to 6.9%), while for foreign Africans (35.8% compared to 33.4%), White South Africans (6.2% compared to 4.9%), Indian South Africans (2.7% compared to 2%) and non-African foreigners (1.1% compared to 0.4%), there are more males employed than females. It is important to note that there are slightly more male foreign nationals than there are females which is indicative of the migration pattern where more males are mobile than females. Thus, the higher proportion of foreign African male employees could

be attributed to males being more mobile with higher levels of migration trends globally (Von Fintel and Moses 2017). Hiralal (2017) reveals that historically traditional analyses of migratory patterns have often been male-orientated with women generally being treated as being attached to and subordinate to men because they tend to be part of family migration (reference to 'migrants and their families' where the migrant is male and their families refer to women and children who accompany men). In addition, Hiralal (2017) states that numerous studies that focus on migration have generally regarded women as the residual group who are left behind.

Table 4.2: Population group of respondents (in %)

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
African/ Black South African	47.3	53.3	50.5
White South African	6.2	4.9	5.5
Colored South African	6.9	8.0	7.5
Indian South African	2.7	2.0	2.4
African foreigner	35.8	31.5	33.4
Non-African foreigner	1.1	0.4	0.7

As indicated, close to two-thirds of the respondents are from South Africa and close to a third are foreigners. As stated earlier Kalitanyi, and Visser (2010) state that African immigrants tend to be involved in restaurants whether there are more employment opportunities. This is, due to their lack of resources when they come to South Africa, they do not mind working in any conditions as long as they can make a living out of it and since restaurants do not hire based on qualifications or nationality (which businesses being in the private sector), they get jobs more easily in this industry. Bendick et al (2010) indicate that immigrants find employment in the restaurant industry as easier to attain. Similar sentiments are expressed by Santos and Varejão (2007) and Strozza et al (2016) who state that individuals outside mainstream employment opportunities cease whatever jobs (often low-paid and un-or semi-skilled) that they can obtain

with the limited qualifications they have. These authors caution, however, that it exposes foreign staff to discrimination. In South Africa specifically, as noted earlier, xenophobia (and specifically Afrophobia) is evident (Crush and Ramachandran 2017; Makhado and Tshisikhawe 2021; Tirivangasi and Nyahunda 2020).

As shown in the Table below (countries listed alphabetically), most of the immigrants in the restaurant sector in South Africa are from Zimbabwe (20.1%) and 18 other African countries, those mostly from the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region, which indicates that most non-South African employees in the South African restaurant industry are from neighboring countries, supporting the assertions of Crush and Tawodzera (2017), Mlambo and Ndebele (2020) and Solomon (1996). The dominance of Zimbabwe is likely to reflect the impoverished conditions in that country and the large number of Zimbabweans in South Africa seeking livelihoods (Crush and Tawodzera 2017). As indicated earlier, Kalitanyi and Visser (2010) state that immigrants from neighboring African countries find jobs in the retail sector and restaurant sector where it is easier to find placement.

Table 4.3: Nationality of non-South African respondents (in %)

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
Not applicable (South African)	63.2	68.2	65.9
Angola	1.7	1.4	1.5
Bangladesh	0.4	0.0	0.2
Botswana	0.1	0.3	0.2
Burundi	0.1	0.0	0.1
Democratic Republic of the Congo	3.8	1.8	2.7
Gabon	0.0	0.1	0.1
Germany	0.0	0.1	0.1
Ghana	0.8	0.6	0.7
India	0.7	0.1	0.4
Italy	0.0	0.1	0.1
Kenya	0.7	0.9	0.8
Lesotho	0.1	0.6	0.4
Malawi	3.3	2.5	2.9
Mozambique	1.4	0.4	0.9
Namibia	0.4	0.9	0.6
Nigeria	0.5	1.7	1.2
Pakistan	0.1	0.0	0.1
Rwanda	0.1	0.1	0.1
Senegal	0.1	0.0	0.1

Swaziland	0.2	0.1	0.2
Tanzania	0.7	0.5	0.6
Uganda	0.2	0.2	0.2
Zambia	0.1	0.3	0.2
Zimbabwe	21.1	19.2	20.1

In terms of the methodological approach adopted, the cities where the interviews were conducted were located in the Western Cape (Cape Town - 41.3% of the restaurants interviewed), Gauteng (Johannesburg – 35.1% of the restaurants interviewed), KwaZulu-Natal (Durban and Pietermaritzburg – 20.9% of the restaurants interviewed) and Limpopo (Polokwane – 2.7% of the restaurants interviewed). Table 4.4 indicates the provinces where the respondents who are South African were from. It is interesting to note that among the close to two-thirds of South African employees interviewed, the responses do not correlate with the proportions of the provincial distribution of the respondents where the interviews were held, with most being from KwaZulu-Natal (23%), the Western Cape (18.7%), the Eastern Cape (10.1%) and Gauteng (8.6%). Employees were also from other provinces, albeit much fewer, namely Limpopo (3.2%), North West (0.9%), Mpumalanga (0.6%), the Free State (0.5%) and the Northern Cape (0.3%). This suggests that restaurants do not only employ persons from outside South Africa but within South Africa, reflecting domestic migratory patterns as well. In terms of the gender differences, unlike the non-South African patterns (more males than females were employed), for almost all the provinces where interviews were not held (Eastern Cape, Mpumalanga, the Free State and the Northern Cape), implying that employees were from other provinces, more female than male employees were noted. The only exception was North West.

Table 4.4: Province respondent is from if South African (in %)

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
Non applicable (non-South Africans)	36.9	31.8	34.1
KwaZulu-Natal	23.6	22.4	23.0
Western Cape	18.0	19.2	18.7
Eastern Cape	8.0	11.8	10.1
Gauteng	8.8	8.4	8.6
Limpopo	2.6	3.6	3.2
North West	1.1	0.8	0.9
Mpumalanga	0.5	0.8	0.6
Free State	0.4	0.6	0.5
Northern Cape	0.1	0.5	0.3

As indicated in the Table below, it is evident that most of the restaurant employees are in the age categories of 18 - 25 years (25.4%: 27.5% females compared to 22.9% males), 28 - 33 years (46.3%: 44.5% females compared to 48.2% males) and 34 - 40 years (23.1%: 21.9% females compared to 24.4% males). These age categories make up 94.7% of the respondents. The rest of the respondents (5.3%) were more than 50 years old and only 0.4% were more than 50 years old. Thus, it is very unlikely to have an employee in the restaurant sector who is above the age of 50 years old regardless of their gender. The results show that it is more younger individuals who are employed in the restaurant industry. Additionally, females appear to be generally younger than males. As the literature indicates, students, unemployed youth and groups who are starting out their careers often tend to work in the hospitality sector (Janta et al 2011; Sobaih et al 2008).

Table 4.5: Age of respondents (in %)

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
18 - 25 years	22.9	27.5	25.4
26 - 33 years	48.2	44.8	46.3
34 - 40 years	24.4	21.9	23.1
41 - 50 years	3.9	5.5	4.8
51 - 65 years	0.6	0.1	0.3
More than 65 years	0.0	0.2	0.1

As shown in the Table below, the highest proportion of respondents (22.7%) of the respondents identified isiZulu as their home language, followed by isiKhosa (17.7%), Afrikaans (9%) and English (8.1%). Other home languages identified by some of the respondents were Setswana, Sesotho, Northern Sotho, Xitsonga, SiSwati, Tshivenda, Ndebele and Pedi; ranging from 2.6% to 0.1% of responses. The responses indicate a range of different languages spoken. Respondents were also asked to identify their home language if a non-South African as well as additional languages respondents spoke and wrote. The responses are not tabulated in this study because of the number of the responses and that gender differences were not evident. In total, among the non-South African respondents, 45 home languages were identified, generally reflecting the ethnic languages of the areas where the respondents were originally from. In relation to other languages spoken, 94.5% of the respondents spoke an additional language with the most prominent being English (87.5%), isiZulu (15.5%) and isiKhosa (11.7%). Additionally, it is important to note that respondents generally spoke more than one language in the workplace with most respondents being able to communicate in English (the language that most of the interviews were conducted in). In total, 46 other languages were identified. Slightly fewer respondents (89.2%) identified other languages that were written, with again the main language being English (85.2%). In total, fewer other languages (30) were identified that respondents could write in. This correlates with Zwane et al's (2014) assertion that speaking multiple languages is part of the skills among people who work in the tourism sector more generally. The results from this study indicate that most employees in South African restaurants

speak more than one language which is a pattern noted in the literature. This is a characteristic that is valued since it improves customer communication and interactions.

The languages spoken by South African employees reflect the census data presented by Kamer (2020) that shows that the home languages mostly spoken by individuals in South Africa were isiZulu (25.3%), isiXhosa (14.8%) and Afrikaans (12.2%). English is the second-most common language spoken outside homes in South Africa, at 16.6%, although it is the sixth most common language spoken in South African households, at 8.1% (Kamer 2020).

Table 4.6: Home language of South African respondents (in %)

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
Not applicable (non-South Africans)	36.9	31.8	34.1
English	9.4	7.1	8.1
Sesotho	1.8	1.6	1.7
SiSwati	0.2	0.6	0.4
IsiXhosa	14.7	20.1	17.7
IsiZulu	23.1	22.3	22.7
Setswana	2.9	2.4	2.6
Tshivenda	0.5	0.3	0.4
Northern Sotho	1.8	2.4	2.1
Ndebele	0.2	0.4	0.3
Afrikaans	7.9	9.9	9.0
Xitsonga	0.6	0.9	0.7
Pedi	0.0	0.2	0.1

4.3 Education and training

Table 4.7 presents the highest level of education obtained among the respondents. More than half of the respondents (56.2%) completed matric or secondary schooling. Some of the respondents had partial schooling (1.9% primary completed and 10.9% partial secondary completed) while 2.5% had no formal education. In terms of post-schooling qualifications, 17.4% of the respondents had certificates/ diplomas, 8.2% had undergraduate degrees, 1.9% had honors degrees, 0.9% had Masters degrees and 0.1% had a doctoral degree. In total, 28.5% of the respondents have post-schooling qualifications. Research shows that there is generally no actual qualifications needed for individuals to work at a restaurant, except for some of the culinary positions (Dang and Moreo 2018; De Larrea et al 2019). This is probably the main reason for the diverse educational levels among the respondents. The relatively high proportion of respondents who completed matric or with post-schooling qualifications (84.7%) may be reflective of students taking on part-time jobs or persons who are in-between jobs.

The results show slight gendered differences where a higher proportion of male respondents are more educated when compared to females in relation to secondary schooling completed (57.8% compared to 55%) and undergraduate degrees (9.9% compared to 6.8%) specifically that have the highest proportions of respondents. There were more females compared to males in the categories of partial or no schooling. The differences in educational levels reflect gendered patterns in society, where more males tend to have access to educational opportunities (Federici 2013; Kuépié 2016; Nagaraj et al 2017).

Table 4.7: Highest level of education obtained (in %)

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
No formal education obtained	1.0	3.7	2.5
Primary completed (7 years of schooling)	1.4	2.3	1.9
Partial secondary completed (8-11 years of schooling)	10.1	11.5	10.9
Matric/ secondary schooling completed	57.8	55.0	56.2
Certificate/ diploma	16.9	17.9	17.4
Undergraduate degree	9.9	6.8	8.2
Honors degree	1.7	2.1	1.9
Postgraduate: Masters degree	1.1	0.8	0.9
Postgraduate: Doctoral	0.1	0.0	0.1

Table 4.8 indicates the type of institution respondents obtained their qualifications from. The types of institutions were universities (9.3%), private colleges (6.9%), universities of technology/ technikons (6.3%) and TVET institutions (5.8%). Slightly more qualifications were obtained by the male respondents from universities, where higher-level qualifications are offered. This reflects the gender concerns related to educational access noted in the literature. Additionally, gender gaps in educational qualifications as noted by Nagaraj et al (2017) are also evident. The lack of formal post-schooling educational qualifications among restaurant employees is linked to Dang and Moreo (2018) and De Larrea et al's (2019) assertion that formal educational qualifications are not generally needed to work in the restaurant sector, although they are critical to improving food standards and levels of service, crucial in relation to customer satisfaction. It also denotes the general lack of post-schooling qualifications on offer in South Africa, with training being done mostly informally and on-the-job (Ibrahim et al, 2020; Lee et al, 2018).

Table 4.8: If obtained post-matric qualification, type of institution obtained from (in %)

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
No response/ not applicable	70.4	72.7	71.7
TVET college	5.8	5.7	5.8
Private college	6.8	7.0	6.9
University of Technology/ Technikon	6.8	5.8	6.3
University	10.0	8.6	9.3

Among the respondents who had post-schooling qualifications, it is evident (according to Table 4.9) that the qualifications were generally obtained from 2008 to 2018 (9.2%), whereas only 1.7% of the respondents received their qualifications between 1987 to 2008. This indicates that respondents with qualifications are relatively recent graduates. Again, the results reflect De Larrea et al's (2019) view that educational qualifications to work in the restaurant sector are not required. This is reinforced by the results in this study that show that the majority of the respondents do not have a certificate or degree that is completed to work in the restaurant sector. Thus, it is not compulsory to have a qualification. There is no discernible trend in relation to gender differences in terms of when respondents completed their post-schooling qualifications.

Table 4.9: Year when post-school certificate/ degree was completed (in %)

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
Not applicable	88.8	89.2	89.0
1987	0.0	0.1	0.1
1995	0.0	0.1	0.1
1998	0.2	0.0	0.1
2001	0.2	0.0	0.1
2002	0.2	0.0	0.1
2003	0.4	0.1	0.2
2004	0.2	0.3	0.3
2005	0.0	0.2	0.1
2006	0.5	0.4	0.4
2007	0.1	0.3	0.2
2008	0.6	0.3	0.4
2009	1.3	1.3	1.3
2010	0.1	0.9	0.5
2011	1.2	1.1	1.1
2012	0.5	0.1	0.3
2013	0.8	1.1	1.0
2014	1.1	0.5	0.7
2015	1.2	1.4	1.3
2016	1.1	1.1	1.1
2017	0.7	0.6	0.6

2018	0.7	1.0	0.9
Ongoing	0.0	0.1	0.1
Pending	0.0	0.1	0.1

The assertions in the literature that qualifications are not required to work in the restaurant industry are echoed in relation to the perceptions of the employees with 15.5% of the respondents stating that a qualification was needed to obtain their position in the restaurant while 84.5% of the respondents did not need any form of qualification for their positions (Table 4.10). As indicated by Dang and Moreo (2018) and De Larrea et al (2019), the majority of restaurant employees receive in-house training and the industry does not generally require a qualification, except for chef or manager positions. Also, it is clear in the literature that the restaurant industry lacks formal education for employees at the university or college level (Mtshokotshe 2018). Gender differences were not evident.

Table 4.10: If qualification required for current position (in %)

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
Qualification is required	15.9	15.1	15.5
Qualification is not required	84.1	84.9	84.5

It is evident that the majority of the respondents, as mentioned previously, did not obtain a qualification after their schooling. Among the respondents who did study, 18.5% stated that their qualifications did not expose them to career options in the restaurant or hospitality industry (Table 4.11). Only 7.6% of the respondents indicated that their qualifications did expose them to a career in the restaurant or hospitality industry. Again, the results resonate with the literature that formal qualifications are not a prerequisite to work in the restaurant industry. The results could also suggest that many people working in the restaurant or hospitality industry are not in it to pursue a permanent career in this sector. Respondents were asked if post-schooling qualifications were obtained and to specify their area or field of study.

More than 200 qualifications were identified with only a few related to the restaurant/ hospitality sector in fields/ aspects including Barista and Chef courses, Food Science, Food Nutrition, Tourism and Tourism Management, Hospitality Management, Food and Beverage Management, Hotel Management, Retail/ Business Management, Entrepreneurship, Culinary/ Catering/ Cooking/ Gastronomy/ Pastry and Waitering. The limited qualifications linked directly to the restaurant industry reinforce views that qualifications are not needed and/ or that opportunities to study in these fields are limited. Gender differences between the male and female respondents are not discernible.

Table 4.11: If qualification exposed respondent to career options in the restaurant/ hospitality industry (in %)

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
Not applicable	73.3	74.4	73.9
Qualification exposed their career	7.7	7.5	7.6
Did not expose their career	19.0	18.2	18.5

Janta et al (2011) and Sobaih et al (2008) assert that restaurants attract or a dependent on young student employees to minimize cost and for flexibility. However, the responses in this study reveal that this is not the case in South Africa. Specifically, only 6.5% of respondents were studying while they worked in the restaurant industry and 93.5% were not studying (Table 4.12). The data could suggest that restaurant workers usually work long hours for relatively little pay which can hinder them from having time to study, attend classes and prepare for tests and exams. The little pay could also affect affordability, where some respondents may have families to look after, rent to pay, old or current debts which restrict them from funding their own education. The non-South African respondents will not qualify for government scholarships/ bursaries to study. The results could also indicate that in the South African context, where job opportunities are limited, working in a restaurant is a job for many and not a stepping-stone to another career or part-time employment while studying. While negligible, it is worth noting that slightly fewer female respondents were currently studying when compared to males.

Table 4.12: If respondent is currently studying (in %)

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
Currently studying	7.0	6.1	6.5
Not studying	93.0	93.9	93.5

While formal qualifications are generally not required in the restaurant industry, on-the-job training (Lee et al 2018) and employee education programs (Chen and Eyoun 2021) are important. This is the case in the South African context as well as revealed in this study. As indicated in Table 4.13 below, 77.6% of the respondents (substantially more than those with a formal post-schooling qualification) mentioned that they were trained for their current positions, while only 22.4% were not. Again, the differences between males and females are minute with slightly more females (78.2%) receiving training compared to males (77%).

Table 4.13: If respondent had training for current position (in %)

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
Had training	77.0	78.2	77.6
Did not have training	23.0	21.8	22.4

In relation to the type of training received, Table 4.14 indicates that close to half of the respondents (51.2%) received in-house training without certificates and 21.3% were trained in-house with a certificate. Thus, in total, 72.5% of the respondents received in-house (also referred to on-the-job) training at the restaurant where they worked. Only 3.6% of the respondents were trained by an outsourced entity with a certificate and only 1.4% of the respondents were trained by an outsourced entity but did not receive a certificate. This trend of in-house/ on-the-job training is associated with this being a cheaper and more convenient form of training, it addresses the needs of the restaurant/ establishment specifically, and it does

not take away from time to train in-house than it is to outsource, especially since as noted in the literature, the restaurant industry has a high turnover rate (Charles-Pauvers 2020; Iverson and Deery 1997; Lee and Layman 2019; Ruiz 2017; Zhang and Enemark 2016). Substantial gender differences were not noted in terms of training received.

Table 4.14: Type of training received if yes (in %)

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
Not applicable	23.0	21.9	22.4
In-house training - with certificate	21.6	21.2	21.3
In-house training - no certificate	50.1	52.0	51.2
Outsourced training (Trainer from outside) - with certificate	3.3	3.8	3.6
Outsourced training (Trainer from outside) - no certificate	1.9	1.1	1.4
Other	0.1	0.0	0.1

4.4 Employment status in the restaurant

Table 3.3 in the previous Chapter indicated the type of restaurants where the employees were interviewed. From Table 4.15 and Table 3.3, it is evident that employees are hired into a variety of different types of restaurants, namely, family, fast food or quick service, casual and upscale or fine dining. In relation to gender differences, for family and upscale or fine dining restaurants, there are no or little gender differences among the respondents. In fast food restaurants there are more female workers than males. Interestingly, a higher proportion of male than female respondents was in casual restaurants while more females proportionately than males are employed in the fast food or quick service restaurants. The reasons for these gender differences could be attributed to lower salaries in fast food or quick service restaurants.

Table 4.15: Type of restaurant employed in (in %)

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
Family	24.9	24.6	24.7
Casual	32.3	29.7	30.9
Fast food/ quick service	27.9	31.0	29.6
Upscale/ fine dining	14.9	14.8	14.8

The positions in the restaurants held by the respondents varied and covered both front-of-house (72.3%) and back-of-house positions (30.3%), as shown in Tables 4.16 and 4.17, respectively. A few of the respondents (2.6%) had both front-of-house and back-of-house positions, which conforms with the employee multiple skills preferred that Nonaka et al (2016) refer to. Furthermore, and aligned to the literature, is that more employees have front-of-house compared to back-of-house positions (Amran et al 2018). Some positions overlap, that is, the tasks are performed in both front-of-house and back-of-house. For example, the barista/ bartending can be done in the kitchen or at a bar in the front part of the restaurant. Preparations of meals, while mostly done in the kitchen, can also be done in the presence of customers. From a gender perspective, the Tables reveal that more female employees have front-of-house positions (75.6%) compared to males (69.5%) while slightly more males are employed in back-of-house positions (31.2%) compared to females (29.6%). This is in keeping with the gender literature which shows that employers tend to prefer females in positions that are customer-orientated (Jin et al 2013; Moon 2021; Neumark et al 1996; Omar et al 2016).

The front-of-house mostly consists of waitrons (42.1%), with more female (45.1%) waitrons than males (38.4%), which seems to also be the trend of preference as presented in the literature. The other 27.7% of the respondents work in the back-of-house in the restaurant. Eight percent of the respondents are cleaners for the front-of-house (9.7% females compared to 6% males), 5.4% work in the front reception/ hostess (6.1% females compared to 4.5% males), 4.3% are supervisors (3.9% females compared to 4.9% males) and 3.2% are floor attendants (2.3% females compared to 4.3% males). Among the rest of the respondents, the

positions are managers in different positions (4.5%: 3.5% females compared to 5.7% males), barista/ bartender (2.1%: 0.7 females compared to 3.8% males) and head waitrons (2%: 1.4% females compared to 2.9% males). Other more general positions such as administrators and security were also identified by 2.4% of the respondents (2.2% females compared to 2.5% males). Almost equal proportions of males (0.5%) and females (0.4%) were restaurant owners. Gendered occupational segregation, as noted in the literature, is evident in the responses. Noteworthy is that more senior positions such as managers, supervisors, floor attendants and head waitrons are male-dominated compared to waitron positions. Additionally, higher paying serving positions (specifically barista and bartender) are more male-dominated as well. As shown in the Table below, it is clear that there are more males who are in superior positions, which shows the gender inequalities or rather lack of upward mobility for females in managerial positions. Literature has always shown the lack of or little female success in this regard.

Table 4.16: Current position in restaurant: front-of-house (in %) – multiple responses

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
Not applicable	30.5	25.4	27.7
Restaurant owner	0.5	0.4	0.4
Restaurant manager	2.7	1.8	2.2
Assistant manager	2.9	1.6	2.1
Food and beverage manager	0.1	0.0	0.1
Supervisor	4.9	3.9	4.3
Head waiter/ Maître d'	2.9	1.4	2.0
Waitron (Waiter/ Waitress)	38.9	45.4	42.4
Barista/ bartender	3.8	0.7	2.1
Front attendant/ reception/ hostess	4.5	6.1	5.4
Runner/ floor attendant	4.3	2.3	3.2
Cleaner	6.0	9.7	8.0
Cook	0.1	0.1	0.1
General manager	0.0	0.1	0.1
Other (administrators, all rounders, general workers/ assistants, packers, till operator, security, driver, etc.)	2.5	2.2	2.4

The Table below indicates that the back-of-house positions consist mainly being a cook (14.6%: 14.6% females compared to 14.7% males), a range of chef and cook positions (6%: 4.8% females compared to 7.7% males) and cleaners (8.1%: 9.7% females compared to 5.8% males). Fewer respondents identified barista/ bartender (1.4%: 0.4% females compared to 2.5% males) positions. Additionally, 0.1% of the female respondents each identified kitchen manager

and general positions. Other more general positions such as drivers and delivery were also identified by 2.1% of the respondents (1.1% females compared to 3.5% males). For these other positions, male dominance was noticeable for both front-of-house and back-of-house positions.

Back-of-house restaurant positions also reflect gender occupational segregation and inequalities. Certain positions are held by females, which indicates gender inequalities. As shown in the Table below, there are more female cleaners than male cleaners, but there are more chefs who are male than female. The male dominance in relation to baristas/ bartenders is again evident as was the case for from-of-house positions. Chefs usually have a managerial or leadership position and cleaners are lower paid and less skilled positions, which shows gender inequalities in the restaurant industry that substantiates the literature (Grimshaw et al 2017; Kuépié 2016; Luna 2020; Mooney 2020; Mtshokotshe 2018).

Table 4.17: Current position in restaurant: back-of-house (in %) – multiple responses

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
Not applicable	68.8	70.4	69.7
Executive/ Head chef	1.0	0.3	0.6
Sous chef	1.2	1.0	1.1
Pastry chef	0.7	0.8	0.7
Station chef	4.8	2.7	3.6
Cook/ assistant cook/ other chefs	14.7	14.6	14.6
Cleaner (including scullery and dishwashing)	5.8	9.7	8.1
Barista/ bartender	2.5	0.4	1.4
General	0.0	0.1	0.1
Kitchen manager	0.0	0.1	0.1
Other (driver, delivery, information technology and computer, stock controller, etc.)	3.5	1.1	2.1

The highest proportion of the respondents (43%: 40.9% females compared to 45.5% males) heard about the job through a friend or family member. This shows the importance of word-of-mouth when marketing or sharing information. As Chipunza and Mupani (2019) state, restaurant job seekers tend to rely on networks of informal personal relations that include family connections, friendships and church members. A further 24.3% of the respondents (24.4% females compared to 24.3% males) walked into the restaurant and asked for work. The dominance of hearing about a job or walking into the restaurant for a job is also indicative of the informality of recruiting processes in the restaurant industry. Most sectors require applications, curriculum vitae and thorough background checks to get a job. Only 14.9% of the respondents (15.4% females compared to 14.3% males) sent their curriculum vitae to the restaurant, 12.5% (14.5% females compared to 10% males) saw an advertisement for the

position and 4.3% (4.4% females compared to 4.3% males) had an agent refer them for the position. A few respondents (1%: 0.5% females compared to 1.5% males) identified other ways they found out about the job which included recommendations/ referrals, being head-hunted/ recruited, promoted and starting the business. The higher responses among the male respondents suggest in relation to hearing about the job from a family or friend is indicative of greater access to networks, as noted in the literature (Urban 2013; Zwane et al 2014).

Table 4.18: How heard about vacancy (in %)

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
Walked into the restaurant and asked for work	24.3	24.4	24.3
I heard about it from a friend or family member	45.5	40.9	43.0
I saw an advertisement of the position	10.0	14.5	12.5
An agent referred me to the position	4.3	4.4	4.3
I sent my curriculum vitae to the restaurant	14.3	15.4	14.9
Other (such as recommended/ referral, head-hunted/ recruited, promotion and started business)	1.5	0.5	1.0

As indicated in Table 4.19, 28.8% of the respondents worked more than 2 to 4 years in the restaurant where the interview was held, 27.3% worked for 1 to 2 years and 18.8% worked for 6 to 12 months. In total, 85.9% of the respondents (86% females compared to 85.8% males) worked in the restaurant where the interview was held for 4 years or less. This clearly shows the high turnover rate in the industry as only 2% of the respondents worked in the restaurant for over 8 years. The literature reveals that numerous studies have indicated that the restaurant industry generally has a high staff turnover (Amran 2018; Charles-Pauvers 2020; Chung and D'Annunzio-Green 2018; Dwesini 2019; Iverson and Deery 1997; Kusluvan et al 2010; Lee and Layman 2019; Mooney 2018; Zhang and Enemark 2016). Some of the employees seem to be moving from one restaurant to another since fewer respondents indicated that they worked in the restaurant industry in total for 4 years or less (67.5%: 66.2% females compared to 69.3%

males). More respondents worked in the restaurant industry in total for more than 4 years (32.2%: 33.7% females compared to 30.5% males) compared to in the restaurant where the interview was held (14% for males and females). Thus, mobility within the restaurant industry is evident.

From a gender perspective, more males (34.6%) worked for less than a year compared to females (25.9%) while more females (74.1%) worked for a year or more compared to males (65.2%) in the restaurant where the interview was conducted. This could mean that males have more freedom and mobility in relation to job opportunities than women, as shown in the literature.

Table 4.19: How long working in the restaurant industry (in %)

	Restaurant where interviewed			Restaurant industry in total		
	Male (n=839)	**Female (n=1030)**	**Total (n=1869)**	**Male (n=839)**	**Female (n=1030)**	**Total (n=1869)**
No response	0.4	0.0	0.2	0.4	0.0	0.2
< 6 months	12.3	9.9	11.0	6.7	5.1	5.8
6-12 months	22.3	16.0	18.8	16.6	12.5	14.3
1-2 years	26.5	28.0	27.3	19.7	19.6	19.6
> 2-4 years	24.7	32.1	28.8	26.3	29.0	27.8
> 4-6 years	8.5	8.3	8.3	15.4	18.9	17.3
> 6-8 years	3.6	3.7	3.6	8.0	9.4	8.8
> 8 years	1.9	2.0	2.0	7.1	5.4	6.1

Most of the respondents (60.9%: 61.3% females compared to 60.5% males) were employed on a permanent contract basis while 31.2% (31.3% females compared to 31.1% males) were on a casual or temporary basis (Table 4.20). Some of the respondents (7.7%: 7.4% females

compared to 8.1% males) are on a fixed-term basis. No notable gender differences are discernible. The dominance of permanent positions is contradictory to the literature that indicates that most employees in the restaurant industry are employed on a contract basis. Future research should examine whether the permanent positions are on a full-time or part-basis, which may be more revealing of job status in the restaurant sector. The notion of permanent staff in the restaurant industry may, therefore, be different from what is normally understood as being a permanent job in terms of the hours worked and conditions such as benefits and leave. As Amran (2018) states, employees in the restaurant industry often have long working hours, shift work, repetitive tasks and work under pressure. The high turnover highlighted previously may be indicative of employee satisfaction, despite being permanently employed.

Table 4.20: Terms in which employed (in %)

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
Permanent	60.5	61.3	60.9
Fixed term	8.1	7.4	7.7
Casual/ temporary	31.1	31.3	31.2
Not been confirmed	0.2	0.0	0.1
Not registered	0.0	0.1	0.1

Table 4.21 shows that 90.6% of the respondents have a written (78.2: 79.2% females compared to 76.9% males) or verbal (12.5%: 12% females compared to 13% males) contract with their employer. Only 9.4% of the respondents (8.7% females compared to 10.1% males) do not have a contract. No notable gender differences are evident. The responses suggest that in South Africa, employment in the restaurant industry is more formalized.

Table 4.21: Type of contract between employer and employee (in %)

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
Not applicable	10.1	8.7	9.4
Written contract	76.9	79.2	78.2
Verbal contract	13.0	12.0	12.5

Close to a third of the respondents (32.4%: 30.7% females compared to 34.4% males) indicated that they did not need any prior experience to work in the position they are currently in (Table 4.22). A further 22.6% of the respondents (20.6% females compared to 25% males) stated that they needed less than a year of experience for their positions and 35.1% (38.7% females compared to 30.6% males) indicated between 1 to 4 years of experience was needed for their positions. Fewer respondents (8.1%: 8.3% females compared to 8.1% males) needed 4 to 8 years of experience and only 1.8% (1.7% females compared to 1.9% males) needed more than 8 years of experience. The requirement that in some cases more experience is needed is understandable as employees may need experience for certain positions in restaurants such as chefs, management and cashiers, which require certain levels of skills to handle their positions.

The gender difference noted is that more females appear to be required to demonstrate more years of experience than males which may be indicative of the bias in the restaurant industry where more women are expected to show that they have the experience to perform the tasks they are employed for. This is an interesting finding given earlier results that more males occupy higher paying, more skilled and leadership positions. The responses of no or limited experience needed correlate with the literature. As stated in the literature, the restaurant industry contributes to employing semi-skilled and unskilled workers.

Table 4.22: How much experience needed for current position (in %)

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
No experience	34.4	30.7	32.4
< 1 year	25.0	20.6	22.6
> 1 – 4 years	30.6	38.7	35.1
> 4 – 8 years	8.0	8.3	8.1
> 8 years	1.9	1.7	1.8

Some of the respondents worked elsewhere to earn an additional income (19.4%: 15.5% females compared to 24.2% males) as well as gain experience (8.1%: 6% females compared to 10.6% males) and/ or skills (8.3%: 5.6% females compared to 11.6% males) (Table 2.23). The main reason to work elsewhere was to gain an additional income. This relates to the assertions in the literature that restaurant employees earn relatively low and inconsistent (given the high reliance on tips) salaries. Fewer respondents earned an income to gain more experience or skills that could be attributed to some respondents considering other work options or desiring to be promoted. Gender differences are evident with more males working elsewhere to earn an income, for the experience or to gain skills. The ability to have an additional job is also linked to the time available to do so. Women are generally more likely than men to have domestic responsibilities (Duffy 2016; Federici 2013; Joll et al 2018) that prevent them from having additional time to take on another job. This relates to the sexual division of labor evident within the home and the labor market underscored in the theoretical framework that is guiding this study.

Table 4.23: If work elsewhere to earn an extra income, gain experience or skills (in %) – yes responses only: Multiple responses

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
Earn extra income	24.2	15.5	19.4
To gain experience	10.6	6.0	8.1
To gain skills	11.6	5.6	8.3

Close to half of the respondents (53.3%: 55.1% females compared to 51.4% males) did not know how much longer they would be working in the restaurant (Table 4.24). Among the rest of the respondents, 38.7% (36.7% females compared to 41.1% males) stated they will be working in the restaurant for 5 years or less and only 7.8% (8.1% females compared to 7.5% males) anticipated working in the restaurant for more than 5 years. This shows the uncertainty among restaurant employees and the lack of being committed to working in the industry. In terms of gender differences, more females were uncertain of how much longer they will be working in the restaurant or expected to be working for more than 5 years, suggesting fewer options for them. On the other hand, more men stated that they would be working in the restaurant for less than 5 years which is indicative of greater mobility and options.

Table 4.24: How much longer respondent will be working in the restaurant (in %)

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
< 1 year	11.9	11.9	11.9
> 1-2 years	16.7	12.3	14.3
> 2-5 years	12.5	12.5	12.5
> 5-10 years	5.1	3.8	4.4
> 10 years	2.4	4.3	3.4
Don't know	51.4	55.1	53.5

4.5 Rating of skills required

The literature review noted that several skills are relevant to working in the restaurant industry as well as the tourism and hospitality sector more generally. Respondents were asked to indicate the importance of specific skills identified in the literature (Cajander and Reiman 2019; Genc and Kozak 2020; Mohamad et al 2020; Waqanimaravu and Arasanmi 2020; Zwane et al 2014) for the positions they were occupying at the time of the interview at the restaurant on a 5-point scale:

- 1 = not at all important
- 2 = not important
- 3 = neutral
- 4 = important
- 5 = extremely important

For the purposes of the analysis, the 'not at all important' and 'not important' responses (NI) and the 'important' and 'extremely important' statements (I) have been combined in the Tables below. The N denotes the neutral responses. The statements have been grouped thematically in

relation to emotional/ behavioral attributes, transferable skills, knowledge-based and physical skills and functional skills.

In relation to emotional/ behavioral attributes (Table 4.25), more than 90% of the male and female respondents perceived that being confident (91.3%: 90.9% females compared to 91.9% males), being able to control emotions (94.2%: 94% females compared to 94.6% males) and being organized (96%: 95.2% females compared to 97.1% males) are important skills. There are no substantial differences between males and females. This is contradictory to some of the assertions in the literature that tend to generalize about the character traits of males and females in the restaurant industry and the tourism and hospitality sector more generally. This suggests that males and females who are employed in the restaurant industry tend to share similar perceptions about emotional/ behavioral attributes required in the restaurant industry.

Table 4.25: Rating of importance of skills for current position: emotional/ behavioral attributes (in %)

	Male (n=839)			Female (n=1030)			Total (n=1869)		
	NI	N	I	NI	N	I	NI	N	I
Be confident	3.1	5	91.9	3.0	6.2	90.9	3.0	5.7	91.3
Be able to control my emotions	0.7	4.8	94.6	0.8	5.2	94.0	0.7	5.0	94.2
Be organized	0.5	2.5	97.1	0.5	4.4	95.2	0.5	3.5	96.0

Table 2.26 indicates responses in relation to transferable skills required for the positions. More than 90% of the respondents felt that having a good memory (90.9%: 90.5% females compared to 91.5% males), working under pressure (94.7%: 95% females compared to 95.4% males), using their time wisely (93.8%: 93.4% females compared to 94.2% males), being flexible (92.2%: 92.7% females compared to 91.7% males) and being committed (92.8%: 92.7% females compared to 92.9% males) are deemed to be important skills. Slightly less than 90% of the respondents (88.6%: 87.4% females compared to 90% males) indicated that being able to work in a team was important. Fewer respondents indicated that solving problems (77%:

76.2% females compared to 78.1% males) and being a leader (63.5%: 63.6% females compared to 63.4% males) was important.

Being organized and having a good memory work together. There are skills important to ensure customer satisfaction since restaurant employees, especially during busy periods, deal with a lot of information (including placing orders) that is often also passed on from one employee to another. Different tasks are assigned to different positions of employees in the restaurant industry, therefore, working in a team is very important for communication purposes, to manage time and be efficient. The restaurant sector is known for its busy atmosphere, especially fast food/ quick service restaurants, with research indicating that restaurant employees work under pressure due to the busy atmosphere and fast-paced work (Amran et al 2018; Tantawy et al 2016; Zainol et al 2016). Using time wisely assists in keeping up with orders, seeing to customers on time, making sure the tasks are completed and ensuring the customers are taken care of quickly and efficiently. The word flexibility could mean many things in the restaurant industry: flexible to work more hours if necessary, or change times of shifts, or be flexible in being on demand when needed or lastly, be flexible to assist perhaps in other positions in the restaurant industry. The need to adapt and respond particularly to customers is important in relation to flexibility.

The lower responses in relation to solving problems and being a leader are understandable given the positions of the respondents interviewed. Transferable skills are regarded as being important by Fang et al (2021) and Zwane et al (2014). There are no notable gender differences in relation to male and female respondents, suggesting again that restaurant employees generally share similar perceptions in relation to transferable skills irrespective of their gender.

Table 4.26: Rating of importance of skills for current position: Transferable skills (in %)

	Male (n=839)			Female (n=1030)			Total (n=1869)		
	NI	N	I	NI	N	I	NI	N	I
Have good memory	2.6	7.0	91.5	2.0	7.6	90.5	1.8	7.3	90.9
Be able to work in a team	2.3	7.7	90.0	4.3	8.3	87.4	3.4	8.1	88.6
Be a leader	17.6	18.8	63.4	17.7	18.7	63.6	17.7	18.8	63.5
Solve problems	8.2	13.7	78.1	10.6	13.2	76.2	9.5	13.4	77.0
Work under pressure	0.9	3.6	95.4	1.9	4.2	95.0	1.4	3.9	94.7
Use my time wisely	0.7	5.0	94.2	1.0	5.6	93.4	1.0	5.4	93.8
Be flexible	1.4	6.9	91.7	0.9	6.4	92.7	1.2	6.6	92.2
Be committed	1.2	6.0	92.9	1.8	5.5	92.7	1.5	5.7	92.8

In comparison to emotional/ behavioral attributes and transferable skills, substantially fewer respondents deemed knowledge-based and physical skills to be important as shown in Table 2.27. Slightly more than 80% of the respondents (82.9%: 81.4% females compared to 84.6% males) viewed using equipment effectively to be important. Interestingly, equal proportions of males and females (66.9%: 66.2% females compared to 67.8% males) indicated that being physically strong is important. This is unexpected since the literature notes physical differences and perceptions as key features of gender expectations (Disch and Hawkesworth 2018; Fitzsimons 2017; Weyer 2007). More than 60% of the respondents (63.6%: 63.6% females compared to 63.8% males) felt that doing basic mathematics is an important skill. This was mainly the front-of-house employees who interact with customers and bills. Technological advancements where calculations are not done manually anyway have resulted in basic mathematical skills being no longer important. Half of the respondents (50.5% females compared to 49.2% males) perceived having computer skills as being important. It is important to note that this research was undertaken prior to the COVID-19 pandemic. This response is likely to have changed considerably as digital and other technological platforms have been major changes associated with the pandemic, as shown by Huang (2021). The lowest

proportion of respondents (37.3%: 35.6% females compared to 39.5% males) indicated that being in a position to speak a foreign language is important. This is dissimilar to the assertions of Zwane et al (2014) who indicate the importance of foreign languages in the restaurant industry. In the South African context, given that employees speak more than one national language as indicated earlier, being multilingual and speaking local languages appear to be more important than knowing a foreign language.

Table 4.27: Rating of importance of skills for current position: Knowledge-based and physical skills (in %)

	Male (n=839)			Female (n=1030)			Total (n=1869)		
	NI	N	I	NI	N	I	NI	N	I
Have computer skills	29.0	21.8	49.2	29.6	19.8	50.5	29.3	20.7	50.0
Be able to speak a foreign language	39.8	20.7	39.5	43.2	21.2	35.6	41.7	21.0	37.3
Be physically strong	13.4	18.7	67.8	14.3	19.6	66.2	13.9	19.2	66.9
Do basic mathematics	16.7	19.5	63.8	21.5	14.9	63.6	19.4	17.0	63.6
Use equipment effectively	5.9	10.5	84.6	8.6	9.9	81.4	7.0	10.2	82.9

In relation to functional skills, generally similar patterns were found to emotional/ behavioral attributes and transferable skills rather than knowledge-based and physical skills in relation to the importance of these skills (Table 2.28). More than 90% of the respondents felt that being on time (97.6%: 97.9% females compared to 97.2% males), caring for customers (94.7%: 95% females compared to 95.4% males) and communicating effectively (90.4%: 90.7% females compared to 90.1% males) are important skills. Slightly fewer respondents (81.9%: 80.6% females compared to 83.7% males) indicated that having knowledge of the food and beverages sector was important. It is interesting to note that considerably fewer respondents (54.2%: 52.8% females compared to 56.1% males) indicated that having knowledge about tourism offerings in the area was important. This suggests that many employees in the restaurant sector do not see the relationship between restaurants and tourism at a destination. However, as highlighted in the literature, the restaurant industry is a component of the food and beverages

sector (Statistics South Africa 2020). The customer-centric orientation, evident in the responses, of the restaurant industry emerged as a key focus in the literature as well (Chala 2017; Dube et al 2021; Genc and Kozak, 2020; Namin 2017; Petzer and Mackay 2014; Tanizaki et al 2017; Zwane et al 2014). The importance of communication skills has been highlighted (Mohamad et al 2020; Tantawy et al 2016; Zwane et al 2014) in relation to communicating with customers and other employees.

Table 4.28: Rating of importance of skills for current position: Functional skills (in %)

	Male (n=839)			Female (n=1030)			Total (n=1869)		
	NI	**N**	**I**	**NI**	**N**	**I**	**NI**	**N**	**I**
Have knowledge of food and beverages	8.9	7.4	83.7	12.8	6.6	80.6	11.0	7.0	81.9
Have knowledge about tourism offerings in the area	24.4	19.5	56.1	27.6	19.6	52.8	26.2	19.6	54.2
Communicate effectively (speak, read, write)	2.7	7.3	90.1	1.5	7.9	90.7	2.0	7.6	90.4
Be on time	0.2	2.5	97.2	-	2.1	97.9	0.2	2.3	97.6
Care for the customers	3.1	4.1	92.9	1.6	5.7	92.7	2.2	5.0	92.8

The results indicate that in terms of the perceptions of the importance of specific skills required for the restaurant industry, in only a few instances (and these were negligible) were gender differences noted. Thus, males and females generally display similar perceptions of what is deemed to be important characteristics that employees should have. The empirical findings in this research, therefore, challenge some of the findings and generalizations in the literature in relation to the gendered nature of perceptions regarding skills required in the industry that emphasizes differences between men and women (Disch and Hawkesworth 2018; Fitzsimons 2017; Weyer 2007). This suggests that in the South African context, both males and females share similar perceptions and understanding of what is deemed to be important when working in the restaurant sector. This indicates that the current trends in gendered recruiting and

occupational segregation (Cajander and Reiman 2019; Mooney 2018) are of concern since gender differences in relation to the types of skills required for specific positions are not evident. If females indicate the skills that are important for their positions, then there is no basis for assuming that females and males have different skill sets in relation to the types of competencies required to work in the restaurant industry. Notions of men being viewed as strong and focused are thus misplaced and reflect patriarchal biases rather than what males and females view as skills that they possess or require to work in the restaurant industry.

4.6 Income status

Table 4.30 indicates that most of the respondents (83.7%: 83.3% females compared to 84.1% males) earned more than R1 500 to R8 000 per month. The rest of the respondents (16.3%: 16.7% females compared to 15.9% males) earned more than R8 000. It is important to note that more than half of the respondents earned less than R4 500 (53.5%: 53.9% females compared to 53% males). The total average earned was calculated at R4 904, with females (R4 851) earning less on average than males (R4 932). Although slightly less, the results support findings in the literature that females earn less on average than males in the restaurant industry (Herbekian 1981; Khanduri and Nikita 2018; Mascho and Mao 2017; Mooney 2018; Perugini and Selezneva 2015). The prevalence of low skill jobs identified in the literature review (Dwesini 2019; Iverson and Deery 1997) and the results from this study correlate to the relatively low pay among the respondents.

Table 4.30: Monthly net income of respondent (in %)

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
Less than R1 500	3.9	4.9	4.5
R1 501 - R3 000	21.2	25.5	23.6
R3 000 - R4 500	31.8	28.4	29.9
R4 501 - R6 000	16.5	16.4	16.5
R6 001 - R8 000	14.6	13.0	13.7
R8 001 - R10 000	6.7	4.7	5.6
R10 001 - R12 000	2.2	2.7	2.5
R12 001 - R15 000	1.0	1.7	1.4
R15 001 - R18 000	1.3	2.0	1.7
R18 001 – R21 000	0.3	0.3	0.3
R21 001 – R25 000	0.4	0.1	0.3
More than R25 000	0.0	0.2	0.1
	X = R4 932	**X = 4 851**	**X = 4 904**

Most restaurant employees get paid monthly with a salary, daily with tips and/ or commission-based work (Table 4.31). In this study, almost all the respondents received a salary (96.4%: 95.8% females compared to 97.1% males). Salaries, for close to half of the respondents, were complemented by tips (52.8%: 56.5% females compared to 48.3% males) and/ or commission on sales (6.8%: 7% females compared to 6.6% males). Those who were receiving an income from tips and commission on sales were the front-of-house employees, usually the waitrons. The trends in South Africa appear to differ from international trends where there is more reliance on tips. The relatively low incomes presented in Table 4.30 indicate that in South Africa tips do not contribute to increased incomes. However, tips play an important role in increasing incomes for some employees, as shown by Herbekian (1981), Luna (2020), Lynn

(2017), Matulewicz (2015), Neumark et al (1996) and Shatnawi (2019), since salaries are generally low in the restaurant industry. Shatnawi (2019) asserts that tips for employees in the hospitality sector are regarded as the key source of additional (or complementary) income. In relation to gender differences, it is evident that more females receive part or total incomes from tips than males. This is not surprising since more women tend to be waitrons than men. Only slightly fewer men than women received salaries. Salaries are a source of income for almost all men and women interviewed.

Table 4.31: Income sources (in %): yes responses only per category

	Male (n=839)	Female (n=1030)	Total (n=1869)
Salary	97.1	95.8	96.4
Tips	48.3	56.5	52.8
Commission on sales	6.6	7.0	6.8

4.7 Perceptions of current position

The literature review indicates that it is important to understand employee perceptions of their work environments (Arun et al 2019; Ram 2018). Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with specific statements (Table 4.32), using a 5-point scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. For the purposes of the analysis, responses in relation to 1 and 2 were pooled to show disagreement while 4 and 5 were combined to show agreement with specific statements. The rating scale of 3 was retained to denote a neutral response. There were generally no notable differences between males and females in relation to employee perceptions of their work environments.

The highest levels of agreement (more than 80%) were for the statements 'The working environment is clean' (82.9%: 83.6% females compared to 82% males) and 'The working environment is safe' (80.9%: 81.4% females compared to 80.3% males). This indicates that in

South Africa, employees perceived the restaurants that they work in to be safe and clean. More than 60% of the respondents agreed with the statements 'My supervisor/ line manager is competent' (69.2%: 69.6% females compared to 68.8% males), 'The location of the restaurant is convenient for me' (68.1%: 67.1% females compared to 69.4% males) and 'There are clear job profiles for each staff member' (63.7%: 63.4% females compared to 64% males). This indicates that there is leader and managerial competencies with the restaurant industry. However, more than 30% of the respondents did not agree with the statement, indicating room for improvement in some restaurants. More than 50% of the respondents agreed with the statements 'Customers treat us well' (59%: 58.1% females compared to 60.2% males) and 'I enjoy the work' (57.3%: 56.8% females compared to 58% males). It is interesting to note that although very minute, for most of the statements more males agreed than females, suggesting that work environments may be more hostile for women than males as highlighted in the literature (Baltag et al 2021; Cajander and Reiman 2019; Federici 2013; Matulewicz 2015; Mooney 2018; Slonaker et al 2007). For all these statements, fewer respondents indicated that they disagreed with these statements compared to respondents who were neutral (rating of 3). A neutral response is likely to be indicative of employees not having a strong opinion about the statements, which suggests some level of indifference. This could denote that these employees are not invested in working in the restaurant or that these statements pertain more to the experiences of the respondents rather than levels of understanding or knowledge about a specific aspect.

Less than 50% of the respondents agreed with the rest of the statements. More than 40% of the respondents agreed with the statements 'I am likely to have an increase in my salary in the next year' (44.5%: 44.6% females compared to 44.4% males), 'I have an adequate say in deciding which shifts I work' (43.2%: 42.3% females compared to 44.1% males) and 'I am rewarded when I work well' (42.5%: 41.6% females compared to 43.6% males). This reinforces concerns raised in the literature regarding salaries (Baltage et al 2021; Bendick et al 2010; Cajander and Reiman 2019; Fleming 2015; Huang 2021; Iverson and Deery 1997; Tantawy et al 2016; Urban 2013; Zainol et al 2016) and the low salaries found among respondents in this study. More than 30% of the respondents agreed with the statements 'There are opportunities for me to be promoted' (38.5%: 39.7% females compared to 37.1% males), 'I am paid a fair salary' (36.9%: 36.5% females compared to 37.4% males) and 'I am satisfied with the benefits I receive' (32.5%: 32.9% females compared to 32.2% males). The lowest levels of agreements (more

than 20% of the respondents agreeing) were for the statements 'There is favoritism in the workplace' (29.9%: 31.6% females compared to 28% males), 'I do not feel that I am appreciated for the work I do' (27.1%: 29% females compared to 25% males) and 'My co-workers are difficult to work with' (23.3%: 25.2% females compared to 20.9% males). The responses again show dissatisfaction with salaries, promotion opportunities, lack of appreciation and limited benefits. However, the lower levels of agreement for some of the statements indicate that most respondents do not experience difficulties with their co-workers and that there are limited experiences of favoritism in the workplace. These responses suggest that there is dissatisfaction with key aspects of the work environment, specifically salaries/ rewards and recognition while there is satisfaction with colleagues. The lack of gender differences resonates with perceptions of skills presented earlier, indicating that both males and females share similar sentiments about their positions in the restaurant.

Table 4.32: Perceptions of current position (in %)

	Male (n=839)			Female (n=1030)			Total (n=1869)		
	1/2	3	4/5	1/2	3	4/5	1/2	3	4/5
I am paid a fair salary	37.3	25.3	37.4	39.5	24.0	36.5	38.5	24.6	36.9
I am likely to have an increase in my salary in the next year	31.6	24.2	44.4	31.2	24.2	44.6	31.4	24.2	44.5
There are opportunities for me to be promoted	37.5	25.4	37.1	29.6	25.6	39.7	35.9	25.5	38.5
I am satisfied with the benefits I receive	50.2	17.6	32.2	45.8	21.3	32.9	47.8	19.6	32.5
I am rewarded when I work well	35.4	21.0	43.6	33.5	25.0	41.6	34.3	23.2	42.5
My supervisor/ line manager is competent	7.8	23.4	68.8	8.1	22.1	69.6	8.1	22.7	69.2
I enjoy the work	17.8	24.3	58.0	17.3	25.9	56.8	17.5	25.2	57.3
My co-workers are difficult to work with	55.2	23.8	20.9	49.8	25.0	25.2	52.2	24.5	23.3
I do not feel that I am appreciated for the work I do	51.5	23.6	25.0	45.9	25.1	29.0	48.4	24.5	27.1
There are clear job profiles for each staff member	11.5	24.6	64.0	11.8	24.8	63.4	11.7	24.7	63.7
The working environment is safe	3.2	16.4	80.3	3.2	15.4	81.4	3.2	15.9	80.9
The working environment is clean	2.0	16.0	82.0	2.2	14.3	83.6	2.1	15.0	82.9
Customers treat us well	12.3	27.5	60.2	11.3	30.7	58.1	11.7	29.3	59.0

I have an adequate say in deciding which shifts I work	33.4	22.5	44.1	36.0	21.7	42.3	34.8	22.0	43.2
There is favoritism in the workplace	47.5	24.4	28.0	46.6	21.9	31.6	46.9	23.1	29.9
The location of the restaurant is convenient for me	12.6	18.0	69.4	13.4	19.4	67.1	13.1	18.8	68.1

4.8 Reasons for working in a restaurant

Examining the reasons for working in the restaurant industry contributes to unpacking why employees opt for positions in a particular sector. Respondents were asked to indicate the reasons for working in a restaurant by rating the level of importance (using the same 5-point scale as stated for skills required – Section 4.5) in relation to specific statements. As was the case for the skills required analysis, the 'not at all important' and 'not important' responses (NI) and the 'important' and 'extremely important' statements (I) have been combined, with N denoting the neutral responses (Table 4.33). Multiple responses are noted, that is, respondents identified more than one reason for working in the restaurant industry.

The statement that received the highest proportion of respondents stating important is working 'for an income' (90.5%: 89.2% females compared to 92% males), with slightly more males than females. This resonates with earlier findings presented in this study that in South Africa, people work in the restaurant sector for a job. Working for an income was followed by 'to gain experience (knowledge and skills)' (62.4%: 60.9% females compared to 64.3% males), with again slightly more males rating this statement as being important. A significant response is that 58.7% (60.2% females compared to 56.9% males) of the respondents rated 'because it was the only job I could find' as being important. This supports earlier assertions that limited employment opportunities in South Africa result in many people working in the restaurant industry because they do not have other options. This links to 54.4% (55.4% females compared to 53.3% males) of the respondents rating 'because it is easier to get a job at restaurants' as important. It is interesting to note that slightly more females share these sentiments, which

reflects the literature that suggests that women have more limited employment options than men. Close to half of the respondents (50.3%: 49.9% females compared to 50.9% males) rated 'because of the flexible hours' as important.

Less than 50% of the respondents rated the rest of the statements as being important. Specifically, 45.7% (43.5% females compared to 48.5% males) rated 'because I have a passion for this work' as important, with more males than females. This denotes that close to half of the respondents enjoy working in the restaurant industry. Fewer respondents 'rated because it is fun' (37.9%: 37.7% females compared to 42% males) and 'to meet people' (37%: 35.5% females compared to 38.6% males) as being important, with again more males than females. The gender difference could suggest that more females work in the industry because of necessity or their experiences in the workplace could influence their perceptions. Generally, the responses related to reasons for working in the restaurant industry indicate that social experiences are less important in the South African context than working for an income and securing a job.

Table 4.33: Rating of reasons for working in a restaurant (in %): Multiple responses

	Male (n=839)			Female (n=1030)			Total (n=1869)		
	NI	N	I	NI	N	I	NI	N	I
For an income	2.7	5.4	92.0	1.8	9.0	89.2	2.2	7.4	90.5
Because of the flexible hours	30.6	18.5	50.9	32.2	17.9	49.9	31.5	18.1	50.3
Because it is fun	35.7	22.3	42.0	39.2	26.2	34.6	37.7	24.5	37.9
Because it is easy to get a job at restaurants	24.4	22.3	53.3	20.0	24.6	55.4	21.9	23.5	54.4
To gain experience (knowledge and skills)	17.2	18.6	64.3	20.7	18.3	60.9	19.1	18.5	62.4
Because it was the only job I could find	26.7	16.4	56.9	21.6	18.2	60.2	23.9	17.4	58.7
To meet people	37.5	23.8	38.6	41.9	22.6	35.5	40.0	23.1	37.0
Because I have a passion for this work	27.2	24.3	48.5	33.1	23.4	43.5	30.5	23.8	45.7

4.9 Conclusion

This Chapter presented and discussed the main findings from the restaurant employee surveys. The analysis was undertaken in relation thematically focusing on the demographic profile of the employees interviewed, education and training considerations of employees, employment status of the respondents in the restaurant, rating of skills required in the restaurant industry, income status of respondents, perceptions of current positions in the restaurant and reasons for working in a restaurant. In keeping with the data analysis approach adopted for the study, male and female responses were compared and wherever relevant, differences were highlighted. Furthermore, issues arising from the literature reviewed in Chapter Two were also integrated where appropriate. Chapter Five summarizes the key findings linked to the research objectives presented in Chapter One. Recommendations are also forwarded in the next Chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The study undertakes a gendered examination of restaurant employee profiles and perceptions, an under-researched area in South Africa. The importance of the restaurant industry in the context of being a part of the tourism and hospitality sector is underscored. This final Chapter summarizes the main findings arising from the data analysis undertaken in relation to the objectives that were presented in Chapter One. Additionally, recommendations are presented. Final concluding comments are lastly presented.

5.2 Summary of key results

This section provides a summary of the key results in relation to the four objectives presented in Chapter One that frames this research that focus on the profiles of employees, types and length of work, employee perceptions of skills and satisfaction levels in the restaurant sector in South Africa in relation to gender differences. In relation to the **first objective**, the majority of the employees interviewed were females, which correlates with the literature reviewed, especially in relation to the restaurant industry having a dominance of front-of-house employees. In terms of the population group, the majority of the employees are African/ Black South Africans (50.5%) and foreign Africans (33.4%). The high proportion of foreign employees is not unique to the South African context and is noted in the literature as a typical trend in relation to restaurant employment in many parts of the world. It is interesting to note that more African/ Black South Africans interviewed were females, whereas more foreign Africans were males, which may reflect male-centered migratory patterns. Among foreign Africans, the dominance of Zimbabweans is evident and reflects emigrant patterns in South Africa. The gender differences suggest that more female South Africans are employed in the restaurant industry whereas more male foreign Africans are hired. Furthermore, more males appear to be hired where there is more physical work required, for example, back-of-house positions and more females are hired in the front-of-house positions as waitrons and hostesses. Methodologically, surveys were conducted in four provinces (Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal,

Limpopo and the Western Cape) in purposively selected cities. Thus, it is not surprising that most employees were from these provinces. However, it was noted that South African employees were from provinces across South Africa, indicating domestic migratory patterns as well. Regarding the population group of employees in South Africa, it is worth noting that Africans are mostly employed in the restaurant industry. In relation to where respondents originally come from, permanent employees were generally locals. While transformation (in terms of South African African employees) in overall numbers is evident in this study, it is important to note that equity target groups often occupy positions that are lower paying, which is of concern.

Restaurants in South Africa, as is the trend globally, employ a generally youthful population (most respondents were under 33 years old), with females being younger than males. In relation to languages, the main home languages were South African languages including isiZulu, isiKhosa, Afrikaans and English. The responses show that restaurant employees spoke different languages. Furthermore, respondents were generally bilingual and were able to communicate in English. The results reinforce the literature that restaurants have diverse languages, which is a trend among employees in the tourism and hospitality sector.

An additional component of the profile of the respondents examined in this study was education and training. The majority of the respondents completed matric or secondary schooling and close to 30% of the respondents had post-schooling qualifications. Among those with post-schooling qualifications, most were recent graduates, with no notable gender differences. The diverse educational levels among the respondents could be attributed to the restaurant industry not requiring any specific qualifications for most positions. Slight gendered differences were noted with a higher proportion of male respondents being more educated when compared to females, which reflects gendered patterns in society, where more males tend to have access to educational opportunities. The assertion in the literature that qualifications are not required to work in the restaurant is also expressed in the views of the employees interviewed with more than 80% of the respondents stating that qualifications are not required. Furthermore, only a few of the respondents with post-schooling qualifications indicated that their qualifications exposed them to a career in the restaurant or hospitality industry. Again, gender differences were not noted.

Among South African restaurant employees, this study indicates that only a few (slightly fewer females) are studying which differs from other contexts where students are working in the restaurant industry to earn an income on a part-time basis. As highlighted in the literature, on-the-job training and employee education programs are important in the restaurant industry in the absence of formal qualifications. This is evident in this study as well with close to 80% of the respondents being exposed to some form of training in relation to the positions they held during the time of the interview. Only a few more females received training compared to men, indicating that training is likely to be linked to positions rather than the gender of the employees. Most of the training was undertaken by the restaurants with only a few respondents stating that the training was provided by an outsourced entity. This was in keeping with global trends, especially in the context of high turnover rates in the restaurant sector that dissuades employers from spending too much time and money to train staff.

The **second objective** focused on the type and length of work among employees in the restaurant sector. Employees in South Africa work in different types of restaurants, including fast food or quick service, family, casual, and upscale or fine dining. In relation to gender differences, there were more female workers in fast food restaurants while more male than female respondents were in casual restaurants. This could be because of lower salaries in fast food or quick service restaurants. Close to 70% of the respondents worked in front-of-house positions while close to 30% worked in back-of-house positions, again reflecting the dominance of front-of-house jobs in the restaurant industry. The main position identified was waitrons. A few employees had front-of-house and back-of-house positions. From a gender perspective, more females have front-of-house positions that supports the gender literature which shows that employers tend to prefer females in positions that are customer-orientated, linked to perceptions that females have better social skills. Furthermore, gendered occupational segregation, as underscored in the literature, is evident in this study as well with more senior and higher paying serving positions being male-dominated. Some of the respondents (more males) also worked elsewhere to earn an additional income as well as to gain experience and/or skills. The gender difference could reflect differences in time availability between men and women, especially with women having higher levels of domestic responsibilities. This is reflective of the low and often inconsistent salaries in the restaurant industry.

Most respondents heard about their positions/ jobs in the restaurant sector from friends or family members, which reinforces assertions in the literature that restaurant job seekers often rely on social networks. This reflects the informality of recruiting processes in the restaurant industry. It is important to note that more males access social networks than females. In relation to the number of years worked, most respondents worked for less than 4 years in the restaurant industry, which is indicative of the high turnover rates that characterize employees in this sector. It is important to note that more males worked for less than a year compared to females, suggesting they have more freedom and mobility in relation to job opportunities. Close to half of the respondents (slightly more females) did not know how much longer they would be working in the restaurant industry. This is again indicative of relatively high levels of uncertainty and lack of long-term commitment among employees in the restaurant industry.

Contrary to the literature review, in South Africa, most employees in the restaurant industry work on a permanent rather than a casual or temporary basis. Additionally, close to 90% of the employees have a written contract. No notable gender differences are discernible. While close to 60% of the respondents were employed on a permanent contract, this study did not probe whether this was on a full-time or part-time basis, which is an important aspect to consider in future research. This could be more indicative of the job status or level of job security in the sector rather than simply focusing on whether permanent or not. Furthermore, the high turnover noted earlier could also reflect levels of employee dissatisfaction or seeking better opportunities.

As indicated earlier, formal qualifications are generally not needed to work in the restaurant industry. Interestingly, close to two-thirds of the respondents stated that they needed prior experience to work in their current positions. This could be linked to many positions requiring some critical skills discussed later. The gender differences suggest that more females appear to be required to demonstrate more years of experience than males, indicating that women have to demonstrate that they have the experience to perform the tasks they are employed for.

In terms of income, more than 80% of respondents earned less than R8 000 per month with more than half earning less than R4 500. This reflects the low salaries that most of the

employees earn in the restaurant industry, which is similar to assertions in the literature. On average, males earn slightly more than females, reflecting gendered pay inequalities in the restaurant industry as noted in the literature as well. Almost all the respondents received a salary with close to half complementing this income with tips and a few indicating commission on sales. Those receiving tips and commissions on sales are like to be front-of-house employees (specifically waitrons). The large proportion of employees receiving a salary, although small, differs from international trends where there is a high reliance on tips. Gender differences were noted with more females receiving part or total incomes from tips than males, which is not surprising given that more females are waitrons.

The **third objective** focused on employee perceptions of skills required in the restaurant sector. The main emotional/ behavioral attributes perceived as being important by the respondents were being confident, being able to control emotions and being organized. The main transferable skills required for the positions deemed to be important were having a good memory, working under pressure, using time wisely, being flexible, being committed and being able to work in a team was important. The main functional skills viewed as being important were being on time, caring for customers, communicating effectively and having knowledge of the food and beverages sector was important. Knowledge-based and physical skills were deemed to be less important than the skills identified above. The main knowledge-based and physical skills perceived to be important was using equipment effectively. The customer-centric orientation of the skills needed is evident.

It is important to note that in only a few instances were gender differences noted in relation to skills/ attributes needed for positions in the restaurant industry. This is dissimilar to assertions in the literature that tend to generalize about the character traits and skills of males and females in the restaurant industry and the tourism and hospitality sector more generally. It is evident that both males and females believe that there are important characteristics that employees should have to be successful in their positions in the restaurant industry. This denotes that irrespective of whether one is male or female, when working in the restaurant industry, similar perceptions exist in terms of the types of skills required. The findings suggest that gendered recruiting and occupational segregation is problematic since both males and females identify similar skills as being important.

The **fourth and final objective** examined employee perceptions of their current position and reasons for working in the restaurant industry. Most respondents perceived their working environments as being safe and clean. There is also general satisfaction among most of the respondents in relation to how they were being managed and leadership in the restaurants as well as relationships with co-workers. The highest levels of dissatisfaction are in relation to salaries, promotion opportunities, rewards and benefits. This is understandable given the low salaries earned by the respondents. The lack of gender differences relates to perceptions of skills presented earlier, indicating that both males and females share similar views about their working environments, which is dissimilar to the literature.

In relation to reasons for working in the restaurant industry, which reflects what attracts persons to a particular sector, the main reason was earning an income and it is the only job they could find. The importance of the restaurant industry providing jobs, especially much needed low and semi-skilled employment, in South Africa is emphasized in the literature. Close to half of the respondents indicated working flexible hours as being important. The slight gender differences noted suggest that more females work in the industry because of necessity. The results also reveal that social experiences associated with working in a restaurant are less important in the South African context than working for an income and securing a job, irrespective of one's gender.

The majority of restaurant employees, whether male or female, share similar profiles and perceptions in terms of skills required to work in the restaurant industry, qualifications needed for specific positions in the restaurant, how much experience is required, knowledge of certain aspects pertaining to the industry such as language, etiquette, reliability, honesty and so forth. Thus, some findings can be generalized to be universal in relation to the way that restaurants operate in terms of profiles of employees in the restaurant industry and perceptions.

5.3 Recommendations

Recommendations were noted while undertaking the data analysis and presenting the summary of the key findings. This sector provides greater detail in relation to some of these

recommendations as well as forwards additional recommendations. The responses indicate that in many instances, the differences between male and female respondents are negligible. This suggests that male and female respondents in the restaurant industry in South Africa have similar perceptions and experiences. This could be attributed to the general vulnerabilities associated with workers in the restaurant industry, as noted in the literature. Additional research should be undertaken to examine the extent to which other variables such as age and nationality influence restaurant employee perceptions in the restaurant industry. Additionally, this study did not focus on key gender aspects that are evident in the literature review which require further research. For example, examining sexual harassment, which was a key issue in relation to the literature review, is likely to require more qualitative-based research given the sensitivities associated with this issue.

This study did not establish the proportion of tips versus salaries that make-up employees' incomes. Future research should examine this aspect since a reliance on tips, which are unpredictable, increases vulnerabilities among restaurant employees. Future studies should also examine employee perceptions about whether tips should be retained or not because, as Lynn (2017) states, some restaurant owners fear that abandoning tipping would undermine being able to attract and retain better employees.

Further research is required in relation to the skills/ attributes focused on when employing staff, and whether there are gender differences in this regard. Additionally, it would be interesting to compare responses if restaurant employees were specifically asked if males and females are expected to have different character traits and skill sets when working in the restaurant sector. The contradictory responses in relation to what are prominent gender differences in the literature and the feminist theoretical framework (Disch and Hawkesworth 2018; Fitzsimons 2017; Weyer 2007) reveal the significance of empirically-based gender research that examines respondents' views and perceptions. This does not negate the importance of understanding gender differences and inequalities in society, which are deeply embedded in all facets of life, but assists in critically examining assumptions and the implications thereof where change is a constant feature.

Most of the restaurant's employees indicated that they are permanently employed. However, they may be permanent part-time employees which might not indicate the true reflection of the number of permanent employees and job security or job adequacy (that is being sufficiently employed in relation to time available to work and being paid enough). There are still notable labor profile disparities and these can be addressed by employing sound human resource strategies that are gender-sensitive.

An important component for the survival of any business is customer care, more so in the tourism and hospitality sector within which the restaurant industry is located that is customer-centric. The customer-centric orientation also needs to be prioritized and understood by employees. Thus, employees should constantly be appraised of and sensitive to this key area via different mechanisms such as during staff meetings and training sessions, and via emails. Employees should also be encouraged and incentivized to share suggestions that can enhance productivity, service quality and customer care. The more staff are rewarded and feel part of the organization, the more they will be willing to stay longer, work harder and come up with strategies that could improve the business. It is also imperative that staff are trained on how to deal with difficult and sometimes abusive customers since this can be a major source of stress for restaurant employees. Women in particular need to know that they do not need to tolerate harassment from customers and co-workers.

The restaurant sector is undoubtedly a major contributor to job opportunities, especially in developing contexts such as South Africa where job creation is a key challenge. The turnover rate, however, suggests dissatisfaction among employees as well as the lack of job security, continuity and career opportunities in the restaurant industry. It is imperative that more research is undertaken to better identify and understand the reasons for the high employee turnover rates in the restaurant industry, especially in the context of employees in South Africa not having many options for promotion or employment outside the restaurant industry. Additionally, more effort should be made within the restaurant sector to retain employees. If owners and managers of restaurants spend more time focusing on ensuring that the higher-order motivational needs of employees are addressed, there is a better chance that employees will not leave.

The loss of productive and experienced employees in the restaurant industry, which is afflicted with high staff turnover, has significant direct and indirect costs, including the willingness of owners and managers to invest in training employees. Restaurants, therefore, need to examine their training programs. While on-the-job training is important and well understood given the nature of how the restaurant sector operates, the importance of introducing and developing qualifications for the restaurant industry needs to be seriously looked at by post-schooling training institutions so that qualifications can be customized to address the generic, technical and specialized needs of the restaurant industry. Public and private sector partnerships will be important in this regard to create opportunities for work-integrated learning and internship opportunities in the restaurant industry. Given that educational opportunities tend to be gendered with women having fewer opportunities and being confined to lower-level skills training, attention should be paid to females in the restaurant industry being granted educational opportunities at all levels to ensure that they are well capacitated and that they are represented at all levels in the restaurant industry. This will also contribute to addressing gendered occupational segregation.

Developing a culture and environment in a restaurant that is conducive to promoting high levels of productivity and service quality is attainable with a focused and team-oriented business or work ethic. This type of work culture takes time to build among employees. Recruiting and selecting employees that align with the goals and values of the restaurant is a valuable method to ensure alignment with the organizational culture. These are also cost-effective methods that are within the control of the organization to ensure the continuation of this culture. It is important, however, to ensure that patriarchal cultural tendencies and practices within the restaurant industry are acknowledged and addressed to ensure more equitable workplaces.

Institutions should also facilitate or develop strategies to improve the work ethics of restaurant owners, managers and employees. Certain skills need to be continuously taught such as communication skills, time and other management skills, operations, teamwork, basic computer skills and customer care. Such could be beneficial not only for business productivity and growth but also for individuals who are interested in staying in the sector for longer. It is imperative that qualifications are developed to meet the diverse needs of the restaurant sector, as highlighted earlier.

Finally, the COVID-19 pandemic cannot be ignored, especially given the devastating impacts on the tourism and hospitality sector generally and the restaurant industry specifically. Future research should establish the differential gendered impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on the restaurant workforce to examine Wong's (2021) assertions that women are more negatively impacted by disasters than men.

5.4 Concluding remarks

The restaurant industry in South Africa contributes substantially to socio-economic development and job creation. This research reveals the importance of empirically-based investigations to inform gender studies. The results show that for many variables, gender differences were non-existent or negligible. As indicated earlier, this does not negate gender issues in the restaurant sector. It does indicate that there are complexities that require more detailed examination. Making assumptions about gender profiles and perceptions are, however, problematic. The need for further research together with creating better conditions for employees (including addressing gender inequalities) are underscored in this study.

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Appendix 1: Restaurant employee survey

tourism

Department:
Tourism
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

Cape Peninsula
University of Technology

Employment profile in restaurants for selected cities in South Africa
Carried out for the National Department of Tourism

QUESTIONNAIRE

The purpose of this study is to determine the profile of individuals working in restaurants in selected cities in South Africa. Completing this survey will take approximately 10 to 20 minutes. Please note that all information will be used for statistical purposes only and will be treated confidentially in accordance with the ethical standards of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT) and the National Department of Tourism. The name of the business you work for will not be recorded and will not appear in any report. Your anonymity is also guaranteed and your name and contact details will not appear on the questionnaire or be recorded elsewhere. The confidentiality of your answers will also be respected and the completed questionnaire will not be shared with your employer, manager or supervisor. We appreciate your participation in this project.

GENERAL INFORMATION

Please answer by marking the correct answer with an **X,** except where otherwise indicated.

Example: How long have you worked in this restaurant?

Less than 6 months	~~6-12 months~~	2-4 years	5-7 years	More than 8 years

A. Profile of respondent
1. Gender

Male	Female	Other

2. Ethnic/ historical racial group

African South African	White South African	Colored South African	Indian South African	African foreigner	Other foreigner	Other (specify)

3. Age group

18 – 25 years	26 – 33 years	34 – 40 years	41 – 50 years	51 – 65 years	65 years and older (specify)

4. What is your nationality (Country where you were born)?

South African	Other (specify)

4.1. If South African, please indicate from which province you are from.

WC	EC	NC	KZN	FS	NW	G	M	L	DK

WC-Western Cape   EC- Eastern Cape   NC-Northern Cape   KZN- KwaZulu-Natal
FC-Free State   NW-North West   G-Gauteng   M-Mpumalanga   L-Limpopo

4.2. If South African, indicate your home language.

English	isiXhosa	isiZulu	Tswana	Tshivenda	Northern Sotho
Ndebele	Afrikaans	Tsonga	Sotho	Swati	Other (Specify)

4.3. If you are from another country, what is your first language? _____

4.4. Apart from your home language, indicate other languages that you can speak and write.

Speak	Write

B. Education and training
1. Highest level of education completed

No formal education	Primary completed (7 years of schooling)	Partial secondary completed (8-11 years of schooling)	Matric/ secondary completed	Certificate/ diploma
Undergraduate degree	Honors degree	Postgraduate: Masters degree	Postgraduate: PhD/ doctoral	Other (specify)

2. Please indicate the type of institution where the qualification was obtained from.

TVET (FET College)	
Private college	
University of Technology/ Technikon	
University	
Other (Specify)	

3. Please indicate the specific area/ field of study if your formal qualification was the completion of a post-school certificate/ degree (e.g. Diploma in Hospitality, Masters in Tourism, etc.) and the year in which qualification was received.

_____

_____

4. Did this qualification exposed you to career options in the restaurant/ hospitality industry?

Yes (provide details)	No

5. In addition to your highest qualification obtained, please indicate in the table below all other formal qualification(s) you obtained (e.g. Diploma in Hospitality, Masters in Tourism, etc.), year in which qualification was received, and whether qualification exposed you to career options in the restaurant/ hospitality industry? Leave blank if no additional qualifications.

Name of qualification	Year obtained	If exposed to restaurant/ hospitality industry (provide details)

6. Are you currently studying?

Yes (specify what you are studying for)	No

7. Did you have training for your current position?

Yes	No

7.1. If yes, indicate the type of training.

In-house training - with certificate	
In-house training - no certificate	
Outsourced training (Trainer from outside) - with certificate	
Outsourced training (Trainer from outside) - no certificate	
Other (specify)	

8. Is there any qualification required for your current position?

Yes (specify)	No

C. Employment status

1. Indicate your current position at the restaurant:

Front-of-house	
Restaurant owner	
Restaurant manager	
Assistant manager	
Supervisor	
Head waiter/ Maître d'	
Waitron (Waiter/ Waitress)	
Front attendant/reception	
Runner/ floor attendant	
Cleaner	
Other (specify)	

Back-of-house	
Executive/ Head chef	
Sous chef	
Pastry chef	
Station chef	
Cook	
Cleaner	
Other (specify)	

2. How did you hear about the availability of the vacancy at this restaurant?

Walked into the restaurant and asked for work	
I heard about it from a friend or family member	
I saw an advertisement of the position	
An agent referred me to the position	
I sent my CV to the restaurant	
Other (specify)	

3. How long have you worked in this restaurant?

< 6 months	6-12 months	1-2 years	2-4 years	4-6 years	6-8 years	> 8 years (specify)

4. How long have you been employed in **this** position? (For example, 2 years and 4 months)

……………years ………………months

5. How long have you worked in the restaurant sector?

< 6 months	6-12 months	1-2 years	2-4 years	4-6 years	6-8 years	> 8 years (specify)

6. Describe the terms on which you have been employed.

Permanent	Fixed term	Casual/ temporary	Other (specify)

7. Is there an employment contract between your and the employer?

Yes	No

7.1. If yes, indicate the type of contract:

Written contract	Verbal contract

8. How much experience did you have for your current position?

No experience	< 1 year	> 1 – 4 years	> 4 – 8 years	> 8 years (specify)

9. Do you work elsewhere to gain extra income, experience or skills? (Please indicate all valid options.)

Income	Yes	No
Experience	Yes	No
Skills	Yes	No

10. How much longer do you think you will be working in this restaurant?

< 1 year	> 1-2 years	> 2-5 years	> 5-10 years	> 10 years

D. Rating of skills required

1. Please indicate the importance of the following skills for your current position at the restaurant on a 5-point scale where 1 = not at all important and 5 = extremely important.

In my current position it is important to:	Not at all important	Not important	Neutral	Important	Extremely important
Be confident	1	2	3	4	5
Be able to control my emotions	1	2	3	4	5
Be organised	1	2	3	4	5
Have a good memory	1	2	3	4	5
Be able to work in a team	1	2	3	4	5
Be a leader	1	2	3	4	5
Solve problems	1	2	3	4	5
Work under pressure	1	2	3	4	5
Use my time wisely	1	2	3	4	5
Be flexible	1	2	3	4	5
Be committed	1	2	3	4	5
Have computer skills	1	2	3	4	5
Be able to speak a foreign language	1	2	3	4	5
Be physically strong	1	2	3	4	5
Do basic mathematics	1	2	3	4	5
Use equipment effectively	1	2	3	4	5
Have knowledge about food and beverages	1	2	3	4	5
Have knowledge about tourism offerings in the area	1	2	3	4	5
Communicate effectively (speak, read, write)	1	2	3	4	5
Be on time	1	2	3	4	5
Care for the customers	1	2	3	4	5

Section E: Income status

1. What is your monthly net income (after deduction of taxes and including tips, etc.) or can you provide us with a monthly income range? _____

R1-R1500	R1501 – R3000	R3001 – R4500	R4501 – R6000	R6001 – R8000	R8001 – R10000	R10001 – R12000	R12001 – R15000	R15001 – R18000	R18001 – R21000	R21001 – R25000
> R25000 (specify)									Confidential	

2. What are your salary/ income sources? Multiple responses permitted.

Tips	Salary	Commission on sales	Other (specify)

D. Perceptions of current position

1. Please indicate the rating that most closely reflects your agreement with the statements in the table below a 5-point scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree.

I am paid a fair salary	1	2	3	4	5
I am likely to have an increase in my salary in the next year	1	2	3	4	5
There are opportunities for me to be promoted	1	2	3	4	5
I am satisfied with the benefits I receive	1	2	3	4	5
I am rewarded when I work well	1	2	3	4	5
My supervisor/ line manager is competent	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy the work	1	2	3	4	5
My co-workers are difficult to work with					
I do not feel that I am appreciated for the work I do	1	2	3	4	5
There is clear job profiles for each staff member	1	2	3	4	5
The working environment is safe	1	2	3	4	5
The working environment is clean	1	2	3	4	5
Customers treat us well	1	2	3	4	5
I have an adequate say in deciding which shifts I work	1	2	3	4	5
There is favouritism in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5
The location of the restaurant is convenient for me	1	2	3	4	5

E: Reasons for working in a restaurant

1. Please indicate the importance of all of the following reasons why you are working in a restaurant based on the 5-point scale below, where 1= not at all important and 5= extremely important.

I work in a restaurant:	Not at all important	Not important	Neutral	Important	Extremely important
For an income	1	2	3	4	5
Because of the flexible hours	1	2	3	4	5
Because it is fun	1	2	3	4	5
Because it is easy to get a job at restaurants	1	2	3	4	5
To gain experience (knowledge and skills)	1	2	3	4	5
Because it was the only job I could find	1	2	3	4	5
To meet people	1	2	3	4	5
Because I have a passion for this work	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your participation!